Raising pre- and in-service teachers' awareness of the impact of imagery-based intervention programmes on language learners' motivation

Bianca Manuela Sandu*[a] and Soraya García-Sánchez[b]

[a, b]Department of Modern Philology, Translation and Interpreting, Universidad de Las Palmas de Gran Canaria, Spain

*Corresponding author;. Email: bianca.sandu@ulpgc.es

Abstract

This study aimed to examine for the first time, to the best of our knowledge, the effectiveness of an intervention programme based on Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) involving pre- and in-service CLIL teachers, with one of the researchers also acting as their instructor. Eleven student teachers enrolled in a CLIL Master's programme participated, which offered a dual perspective as both learners and (future) educators. The main objectives were to analyse participants' L2 motivation in the pre- and post-intervention phases and to evaluate their perceptions of the effectiveness of L2MSS-based activities on their own and their students' language learning in the post-intervention phase. The findings demonstrate that the vision-based intervention enhanced motivation among the pre- and in-service CLIL teachers by activating their ideal L2 self and enriching their L2 learning experience. Quantitative data revealed stronger post-intervention correlations between effort and motivational constructs, while qualitative insights showed increased engagement, emotional involvement, and clarity of professional goals. Notably, the intervention contributed to shaping their emerging teacher identities, as they moved from being recipients of instruction to potential facilitators of motivation. Such a shift aligns with the broader call within SLTE to position pre-service teachers as reflective practitioners capable of shaping their own and their students' motivational trajectories.

Keywords: L2MSS; language learning motivation; vision; intervention programme; student teachers.

1 Introduction

In their third edition of *Teaching and Researching Motivation*, Dörnyei and Ushioda (2021) assert that "[t]he field of L2 motivation has remained vibrant and vigorous" and that "these are good times to be a motivation researcher" (p. xi). Indeed, literature has witnessed a proliferation of research interest into language learning motivation from the Socio-educational Model of Second Language Acquisition(Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner, 2019), to the L2 Motivational Self System (L2MSS) (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Csizér, 2019), the Self-Determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985; Ryan & Deci, 2017), a focus on context (Ushioda, 1996; 2009) or more state-of-the-art concepts, such as Directed Motivational Currents (Dörnyei et al., 2016; Muir & Dörnyei, 2013), Dweck's (2017) mindset theory, or Ushioda's (2021) call for an ethical agenda (for a detailed description of these paradigms, see Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021 and Lamb et al., 2019).

The L2MSS (Dörnyei 2005; 2009), with its focus on possible selves involving tangible images and senses as pivotal elements of language learning motivation, was shown to be the most influential theoretical approach among L2 motivation researchers in the second decade of this century (Al-Hoorie, 2018; Boo et al., 2015; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Today, this model continues to gain momentum, as well as be revised (Papi et al., 2019) and extended in studies such as Thomson and Vázquez (2015), who suggest the concept of "anti-ought-to self" or Henry (2017) who brings forward the notion of the "ideal multilingual self". Another way of exploring the L2MSS in search of further extension is through vision-based intervention programmes. This is in line with some of the most avant-garde paradigms or constructs in the field of L2 motivation, such as Ushioda's (2023) 'person-focused' rather than 'systems-based' view of motivation, or the complex dynamic systems theory (Dörnyei et al., 2015), which are rooted in the 'social turn in second language acquisition' (Block, 2003). Vision, called "mental imagery" in cognitive neuroscience, has been shown to stimulate brain plasticity (Nierhaus et al., 2019), and is undoubtedly one of the most remarkable human faculties (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021) and a key element in the complex engine on which to harness motivation.

Despite the paucity of literature when it comes to this type of research (Lamb, 2017), intervention studies based on the L2MSS are gaining increased attention due to positive outcomes and meaningful pedagogical implications (e.g., Mackey, 2019; Ghasemi, 2021; Safdari, 2021). Moreover, the importance of carrying out this sort of research arises from the potential insight they offer into the "interdependence and complex synergies (or contagion) between teachers' and learners' psychological and

emotional lives in the classroom" (Ushioda, 2023, p. 77) as researchers also tend to be the ones who select, design and implement the activities in the intervention programme (e.g., García-Pinar, 2021; Mackay, 2019; Safdari, 2021; Author 1_Study 2). In the context of the present study, one of the researchers also assumed the role of practitioner, directly implementing the motivational intervention programme. This dual role afforded firsthand experience of the "contagion" described by Ushioda (2023), that is, the dynamic interplay and mutual influence between the psychological and emotional states of teachers and learners. The researcher-practitioner was thus able to observe and personally experience how learners' engagement and affective responses influenced their own motivational orientation and emotional investment in the classroom process, and vice versa. This experiential dimension brings to light the relevance of exploring such interdependencies within intervention-based motivational research.

The present study examined the complex relationship between researcher and participants in motivational intervention research, extending it further through a unique configuration: the participants are pre- and in-service CLIL teachers, while one of the researchers also serves as their instructor. This layered dynamic adds depth to the practitioner–participant relationship, as it involves teacher-learners engaging with vision-based motivational activities, and also enables an exploration of their perceptions regarding the potential motivational value of these activities for their students. In this way, the study offers insight into how future and practicing teachers evaluate such interventions both as learners and as educators.

2 Literature review

2.1 The L2 Motivational Self System

The L2MSS was proffered by Dörnyei in 2005 and meant a significant transformation of former motivational models. Two theoretical advancements in mainstream psychology and L2 motivation, that is, research of the self (Markus and Nurius, 1986) and Gardner and Lambert's (1959) concept of integrativeness, laid the groundwork for the development of this system. The impact of self-regulation on behaviour through goals and expectations was suggested by Markus and Nurius (1986) in their theory of 'possible selves', in line with other self theorists (e.g. Greenwald & Pratkanis, 1984; Kihlstrom & Cantor, 1984) who were intrigued by the active, dynamic nature of the self-system. On the other hand, the notion of integrativeness, which reflects L2 learners'

willingness "to identify with members of another ethnolinguistic group and to take on very subtle aspects of their behaviour" (Gardner and Lambert, 1972, p. 135), connects with the belief that learning a foreign language is different from other subjects as it entails a change in one's identity.

The theory of possible selves deepens the understanding of the interrelation between thought, feeling and action and its impact on the motivated behaviour that moves people from the present to the future, and places the power of imagination at the heart of this dynamic process in which sociocultural contexts play a crucial role (Markus & Nurius, 1986). The representations of the self in a future state connect individuals' current self with their concept of what they might become, what they would like to become and what they are afraid of becoming (Markus & Nurius, 1986). The notion of vision is crucial in this theory as the possible selves can be "heard" and "seen" through images and senses (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 61), which makes them a reality for the individual. It is this capacity to see and feel our ideal self as if it were real that triggers an array of actions which seek to bridge the gap between our current and our ideal future self. It is this visionary nature of the possible selves that attracted Dörnyei (2005, 2009) and led to the creation of the L2MSS in the field of second language learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2009).

According to the L2MSS, there are three main sources of motivation to learn a foreign language; that is, the *ideal L2 self*, which represents the learner's future vision of mastering the language, the *ought-to L2 self*, which refers to the social influence of other important people in the learner's life, such as parents, peers, or teachers, on their future vision, and the *L2 learning experience*, which connects these future-oriented self-guides to the learner's present engagement with the language learning process. L2 Learning Experience is defined as "the perceived quality of the learners' engagement with various aspects of the L2 learning process" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 63).

Furthermore, a matrix of nine prerequisites (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021) must exist so that the motivational capacity of these three components of the L2MSS be maintained or increased. Initially amounting to six (Dörnyei, 2009), these conditions were further revised and expanded to nine. As we shall see in the following section, the preliminary six conditions (Dörnyei, 2009) are considered fundamental in practical recipe books such as Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) or Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014). The initial conditions are: (1) the presence of a clearly defined and desirable future self-image; (2) the vividness and elaboration of that image; (3) its perceived plausibility and

alignment with the expectations of significant others; (4) regular activation of the self-image; (5) the existence of an accompanying action plan; and (6) the presence of a contrasting feared self that serves as a motivational counterforce (Dörnyei, 2009; Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013).

2.2 Intervention programmes based on the L2MSS

Several scholars have called for more action to address the scarcity of intervention programmes based on the L2MSS. For instance, Lamb (2017) drew attention to this type of experimental or quasi-experimental research studies, which "are to be encouraged because they offer the most persuasive evidence of motivational impact" (p. 334) and, four years later Dörnyei and Ushioda (2021), alluded to "some encouraging empirical studies […] that point to the usefulness of motivational strategies [when exploring] the enhancement of the learner's vision" (p. 133). Even though these empirical studies of teaching innovation are still scarce, the reports found in the Scopus database (March 2024) highlight the importance of carrying them out due to positive results and pedagogical implications.

Some intervention programmes (Chan, 2014; Magid & Chan, 2012; Magid, 2014a, 2014b) contained motivational activities created by Oyserman (2003) and Oyserman et al. (2002) and included a brief introduction to the concept of ideal selves, scripted or guided imagery to enhance students' vision, listing goals, drawing a timeline and developing action plans. As well as that, Chan's (2014) participants elaborated on the Ideal Selves Tree, designed by Hock et al. (2006), with stems portraying ideal future selves and branches indicating action plans.

The publications of Arnold et al. (2007), Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) and Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) seem to have marked a milestone for worldwide researchers' interest in intervention programmes as they offer practical lesson plans along with valuable insights into the pedagogical value of vision-based activities and effective strategies for their implementation in the classroom. The Scopus search conducted in March 2024 together with other studies found in the L2MSS literature unveiled, to the best of our knowledge, ten studies, most of which were published quite recently (García-Pinar, 2019, 2021; Author 1_Study 2; Ghasemi, 2021; Machin, 2020; Mackay, 2014; 2019; Safdari, 2021; Sato & Lara, 2019; Sato, 2021).

Research findings in this area indicate promising pedagogical outcomes. For example, Mackay (2014), who incorporated visualisation training, mental imagery

exercises, examples of ideal L2 selves, and a timeline with learning objectives, adapted from Arnold et al. (2007) and Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013), reported a significant increase in learners' willingness to communicate, as well as some improvement in attitudes related to international contact. The qualitative analysis further revealed that a greater number of students in the intervention group, compared to the control group, expressed enjoyment in language learning and reported more positive attitudes towards English. Notably, participants who had already formed L2 self-guides tended to refine and deepen their vision, with some developing more specific and focused representations of their future L2 selves. Nevertheless, Mackay (2014) concluded that the vision resulting from this type of activity carried out with undergraduates may be too distant to trigger a significant change in learners' behaviour. García-Pinar (2019) took a novel approach by designing her activities using TED speakers as role models, through which she attempted to enhance participants' ability to visualise and notice the way different verbal and non-verbal modes were used in these talks to spread knowledge. A significant increase in the eleven university students' ideal L2 self, L2 learning experience and multimodality was observed in the post-intervention phase, while the qualitative analysis (García-Pinar, 2021) uncovered some of the participants' awareness regarding the content of their presentations, which they thought had improved due to the implementation of modes, therefore strengthening their confidence and even helping some of them visualise themselves as competent L2 speakers. Another study carried out in Spain (Author 1_Study 2) brought to light more and stronger correlations in the post-intervention phase, which was attributed to the participants' engagement in the classroom. The ideal L2 self-construct emerged in the post-intervention phase, showing correlations with proficiency test, instrumentality (promotion), cultural interest, integrativeness and L2 learning experience. It also proved to be a significant predictor of intended effort in the multiple linear regression analysis, indicating its meaningful contribution to explaining variance in the outcome measures. These findings led to the conclusion that vision-based motivational activities could strengthen university students' vision of mastering the language, engaging more in the EFL language learning process and, hence, exerting extra effort.

Sato and Lara (2019) and Sato (2021) also worked with Spanish L1 learners, this time from Chile. Sato and Lara (2019) designed a series of interaction vision intervention tasks and peer interaction tasks related to Business Management, the participants' major, and based on the six interrelated conditions Dörnyei (2009)

recommends be given to enhance the capacity of the main components of the L2MSS. Four constructs, that is ideal L2 self, ought-to self, learning experience, and intended effort were explored, with ideal L2 self and learning experience yielding a significant effect and the qualitative analysis supporting these findings. Participants expressed that this type of activity enabled them to visualise and prepared them for a future in which EFL would play an important role. They also referred to the positive experience they engaged in during the intervention programme, which had an impact on their ideal L2 self. Sato (2021) conducted another study further exploring the relationship between L2 motivation and classroom behaviour, with a focus on classroom L2 learning. In this quasi-experimental vision intervention research study, the researcher/teacher designed activities for Chilean business-major students, based on Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) and Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) and aimed at creating, strengthening, substantiating and counterbalancing their vision, and embedded them in the course. The motivational variables explored were the ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, intended effort, and international posture. The behavioural data consisted of the number of words and turns in English and Spanish measuring the learners' contributions during the intervention. The results indicated a positive effect on ideal L2 self and international posture, with interview data showing participants' engagement in the L2 learning process. Furthermore, learners who carried out the vision-based activities increased the number of words and turns in English, while those who did not, increased the number of words and turns in Spanish. Additionally, the lack of vision of the control group seemed to have intensified the negative correlation between ought-to L2 self with EFL use.

Two other recent studies were carried out in Iran (Ghasemi, 2021; Safdari, 2021), both covering the six steps suggested by Dörnyei (2009). Ghasemi (2021) implemented activities designed by Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014), as well as scripted and guided imagery (Hall et al., 2006), and found long-term effects of the intervention programme and a reduced level of helplessness on secondary school male students, highlighting the fundamental role of the teacher and specific teacher training courses. Safdari (2021) aimed at building and intensifying adult learners' vision with activities suggested by Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) and Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013), which included classroom activities, homework and projects. There were statistically significant differences regarding intended learning effort, ideal L2 self, attitude toward L2 learning and imagery capacity. These positive results were accompanied by the qualitative analysis which showed the motivational activities carried out represented a spur in their

motivation, ideal L2 self-vision, attitude towards language learning and capacity to make specific action plans to achieve their objectives.

The intervention programmes included here explored the impact of L2MSS-based activities on language learners in different educational contexts, ranging from secondary to tertiary education and language schools. However, there is a significant gap in the literature, as no study has been conducted with pre- and in-service language educators, which brings to light an area in need of further scholarly inquiry.

2.3 Teacher motivation

In recent years, teacher motivation has gained recognition as a crucial but underexplored component in Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) (Lamb & Wyatt, 2019). Despite growing acknowledgement of its significance for effective pedagogy, learner achievement, and teacher well-being (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Mercer & Gregersen, 2024), SLTE literature has historically treated teacher motivation as an incidental outcome of training, rather than a distinct area of inquiry. This absence is especially problematic given the increasingly accepted view that teachers' classroom behaviour is not solely informed by technical competence, but also by deeply embedded affective and motivational dispositions formed over time through personal and professional experiences (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Korthagen, 2017).

Recent scholarship advocates for a more holistic view of teacher development, one that accounts for teachers' inner lives, including their beliefs, values, emotions, and aspirations (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). The question is no longer merely what pre-service teachers need to *know*, but also what they *feel*, *hope for*, and *wish to become* as educators (Korthagen, 2017). Central to this perspective is the notion of possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986). In teacher education, self-images are often formed in response to past learning experiences and begin to shape identity development during initial training (Fletcher, 2000; Hamman et al., 2013; Kubanyiova, 2009). When nurtured through targeted pedagogical strategies, these self-concepts can motivate pre-service teachers to invest effort in their development and commit to long-term growth.

Importantly, research has demonstrated that student teachers do not enter training programmes with homogeneous motivational profiles. Some, often described as "highly engaged persisters," exhibit strong intrinsic commitment to teaching from the outset (Watt & Richardson, 2008). Others, however, display more ambivalent or extrinsically driven motives. For these individuals, teacher education must not only sustain existing

motivation but also work to foster new sources of internalised commitment. This requires the creation of motivational conditions and the deliberate use of strategies, such as vision-building activities, that help student teachers visualise their future professional selves and see teaching as a personally meaningful vocation (Dörnyei, 2001; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014).

Moreover, the motivational significance of the teacher–researcher configuration cannot be overstated. As Lamb (2017) has argued, one of the most powerful motivational strategies in language teaching is setting a personal example through one's own behaviour. This principle appears to hold equally true in SLTE: teacher educators who visibly embody professional commitment, enthusiasm, and reflective practice are likely to exert a profound, often subconscious, influence on their trainees. Indeed, as Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) note, motivating others requires the educator themselves to be motivated.

As well as that, fostering teacher motivation is not only critical for professional development but also for student outcomes. Teachers who are intrinsically motivated and who possess a coherent sense of professional identity are more likely to create motivating learning environments, which in turn promote student engagement and academic performance (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Sahakyan et al., 2018). Conversely, teachers who lack motivation or self-efficacy may unwittingly demotivate their learners (Atkinson, 2000). Thus, supporting the development of teacher vision, commitment, and self-belief must be viewed as a pedagogical imperative with far-reaching implications for both teaching and learning.

Finally, the present study aligns with recent calls in applied linguistics to foreground the complex, situated realities of language teaching and learning by recognising the reciprocal relationship between teacher and student motivation (Ushioda, 2023) Consistent with the growing recognition of the affective and motivational interdependence between teachers and learners (e.g., Gkonou et al., 2020; Moskowitz & Dewaele, 2021; Pinner, 2019), the intervention was designed not only to support teacher participants in developing their own vision-related motivation, but also to prompt reflection on how these activities could translate into motivational practices for their students. In doing so, the study also contributes to ongoing efforts to bridge the gap between research and pedagogy (e.g., McKinley, 2019; Sato & Loewen, 2022), positioning teachers not as passive consumers of theory, but as co-constructors of pedagogical and motivational knowledge.

e the gap between research and pedagogy (e.g., McKinley, 2019; Sato & Loewen, 2022), positioning teachers not as passive consumers of theory, but as co-constructors of pedagogical and motivational knowledge.

p between research and pedagogy (e.g., McKinley, 2019; Sato & Loewen, 2022), positioning teachers not as passive consumers of theory, but as co-constructors of pedagogical and motivational knowledge.

The purpose of the present study was to investigate for the first time, to our knowledge, the effect of a vision-based intervention programme based on Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2MSS on the motivation of pre-and in-service teachers following a CLIL Master's Programme at a public university in Spain. Not only does this enable the exploration of their views on the importance of motivation and vision-based activities for them as language learners, but also for their students.

3 Method

3.1 Research questions

The following research questions were posed:

1) To what extent has the intervention impacted on the L2 motivation of the CLIL pre- and in-service teachers?

2) How has participation in the intervention affected the perceptions of the CLIL pre- and in-service teachers regarding the effectiveness of the L2MSS-based activities on their own and their students' language learning process?

3.2 Participants

The intervention programme was delivered to seventeen postgraduate students, with an age range spanning from 21 to 42, who were doing a CLIL Master's Degree (*Máster Universitario en Aprendizaje Integardo de Contenidos en Lengua Extranjera: Inglés*) at a public university in Spain, within the compulsory module 'Communicative abilities in English: C1' (*Habilidades comunicativas en Inglés: C1*), which is aimed at helping them develop the necessary communicative modes, namely, production, interaction, reception and mediation (Council of Europe, 2020) to carry out the rest of the modules and to teach their subjects in EFL successfully. All participants had English as L2 and their level of English was between B2+ and C2 according to the Common European Framework of Reference (Council of Europe, 2020). Out of the seventeen participants,

eleven (six female and five male) were selected for the quantitative and qualitative analyses as they had carried out all the motivational activities proposed in the intervention programme. The sample size is supported by previous intervention studies in the field, such as García-Pinar (2019) or Magid (2014b), with eleven and sixteen participants, respectively.

3.3 Instruments

After obtaining informed consent from participants, a motivational questionnaire (see Author 1), containing 50 six-point Likert scale items designed by You and Dornyei (2016) and Gardner (2004), was conducted in pre- and post-intervention phases with items in English and Spanish. In addition to these 50 items, the pre-intervention questionnaire included questions on participants' background information, while the post-intervention survey accommodated three questions related to participants' L2 learning experience when carrying out the motivational activities, to wit, 'How much did you enjoy imagining yourself in the future as a successful English speaker? Please mark your experience below' (1 = didn't enjoy it at all – 10 = really enjoyed it); 'Does imagining yourself in the future as a successful English speaker make you study more now to become what you imagine?'; and 'Does imagining yourself in the future as a successful English speaker motivate you to learn the language in the present?'.

The purpose of using this survey was to explore the interrelationship between the motivational variables ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, instrumentality promotion and prevention, cultural interest, family influence, integrativeness, and intended learning effort as a criterion measure, and their possible impact on learners' language learning motivation before and after the intervention. A description of each construct, together with examples of items used to measure them, is offered below:

- Ideal L2 self (5 items): It refers to characteristics one would ideally like to possess as an L2 speaker and the ability to imagine oneself in the future as a successful L2 speaker, e.g. "I can imagine myself in the future having a discussion with foreign friends in English" (Cronbach Alpha = .74 / .82; pre- and post-intervention coefficients, respectively).
- Ought-to L2 self (7 items): It alludes to characteristics one believes one should possess, e.g., "Studying English is important to me because the people I respect think that I should do it" (Cronbach Alpha = .85 / .91).

- L2 learning experience (5 items): It relates to positive learning experiences which lead to motivation. It refers to the teacher, the methodology, the environment, the materials, etc., e.g. "I always look forward to English classes" (Cronbach Alpha = .54 / .64).

- Instrumentality relates to more instrumental motives, such as one's future career enhancement or simply being awarded a language proficiency certificate, and had two foci (Dörnyei, 2009), that is, promotion and prevention: instrumentality promotion (8 items) focuses on positive outcomes and is related to the ideal self. E.g., "Studying English is important to me to achieve a personally important goal (e.g., a degree or scholarship)." (Cronbach Alpha = .75 / .64), while instrumentality prevention (5 items) focuses on avoiding negative outcomes and is related to ought-to L2 self, e.g. "I have to learn English because I don't want to fail the English course." (Cronbach Alpha = .42 / .03[1]).

- Cultural interest (5 items): It refers to learners' appeal for the EFL cultural products, such as music, series, TV programmes, magazines, etc., e.g. "I really like the music of English-speaking countries." (Cronbach Alpha = .72 / .27).

- Family influence (5 items): This factor, also analysed separately by Taguchi et al (2009), relates to the role of the family and the parental pressure learners feel to learn a language, e.g. "I have to study English because, otherwise, I think my parents will be disappointed with me." (Cronbach Alpha = .75 / .74).

- Integrativeness (Gardner, 2004) (5 items): Integrativeness refers to a genuine interest in learning a second language in order to develop a closer connection with the community of its speakers (Gardner, 2001), e.g. "My motivation to learn English to communicate with English speaking people is strong." (Cronbach Alpha = .67 / .67).

- Intended learning effort (5 items): It is the dependent variable (criterion measure) used to gauge the effort learners claim they exert to learn English, e.g. "Even if I failed in my English learning, I would still learn English very hard." (Cronbach Alpha = .76 / .63).

---

[1] While Cronbach Alpha internal consistency at .54 or above was accepted following other research studies (Taguchi et al., 2009; Brady, 2019a), variables whose results were below this point (instrumentality prevention .42/.03 in the pre- and post-phases, and cultural interest .72/.27 in the post-phase) were excluded from the correlation analysis.

The IBM SPSS programme (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) version 26.0 was utilised to conduct correlations with the aim of examining the role of motivational activities and strategies based on imagery in the participants' intentions to exert effort in learning English.

For the qualitative analysis, the data consisted of final reports written by the eleven participants following the intervention programme. Each report ranged between 260 and 500 words, with several participants exceeding the upper limit, yielding a corpus of approximately 6,000 words. The two researchers examined the data for emerging themes and recurrent patterns (Dörnyei, 2007; Braun & Clarke, 2006), initially through close reading and subsequently using the qualitative analysis software Atlas.ti (https://atlasti.com/). Themes and subthemes were identified and cross-verified through both deductive and inductive content analysis, following the procedures outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006; 2013). The online tool ReCal (https://dfreelon.org/utils/recalfront/) was utilized to assess inter-rater reliability, yielding an overall percentage agreement of 81.81% and a Krippendorff's Alpha of 0.719, which indicates substantial agreement ($0.6 < \alpha \leq 0.8$, Hughes, 2021).

3.4 Design of the intervention programme

The activities in the intervention programme were embedded in a three-month English C1 proficiency level (CEFR) course called 'Communicative Skills in English: C1'. They followed the sequencing in Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) and Dörnyei (2009) and were mainly based on Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013), Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014), and also designed by researchers. The intervention programme implemented in Author 1_Study 2 was extended to incorporate the six-stage framework recommended by Dörnyei (2009) and Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013). They were aimed at raising awareness about the role of vision and motivation when learning languages. These were as follows:

1. Introduction: Learners watched the first seven minutes of a video with Dörnyei (2017) explaining the power of vision in language learning.

2. Step 1: *Construction of the ideal L2 self: Creating the vision*: Participants practised visualisation imagining an apple (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014). They then carried out the activity *My future L2 self* (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013), which encouraged students to visualise their ideal L2 self and to speak and write

about it providing as much detail as possible. Finally, they did a *role model role-play* activity (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013), whose main aim was to raise awareness of what makes a good language learner.

3. Step 2: *Imagery enhancement: Strengthening the vision*: Students watched a video of a successful language speaker recorded by the researchers and then made a similar video in which they interviewed each other as future successful English speakers.

4. Step 3: *Making the ideal L2 Self plausible: Substantiating the vision*: Learners did the activity *Reality check* (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013) and analysed a person's ideal L2 self and then divided the goals into four categories according to how achievable they thought they were. Students reflected on plausibility.

5. Step 4: *Activating the ideal L2 self: Keeping the vision alive*: Learners did the activity *Work: Job interview* (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013) and visualised themselves having a job interview in the L2. They also did *Webquest groups* and read about what makes a successful language learner.

6. Step 5: *Developing an action plan: operationalising the vision (from dream to reality)*: Participants reflected on Tessa Souter's tips (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014) and then they did the activities *Study habits* and *Distraction reduction* (Hadfield & Dörnyei 2013). They also did an audiovisual activity which aimed at helping participants avoid distractions and set clear and specific goals related to time management and language learning (Eyal, 2019). Eyal's (2019) video addresses the price of progress and how to take responsibility for behaviours.

7. Step 6: *Considering failure: Counterbalancing the vision*: The activity *Overcoming obstacles* (Hadfield & Dörnyei, 2013) introduced students to some strategies for overcoming barriers.

8. Final written reflection: students were asked to write a report at the end of the course on their experience carrying out the intervention programme focusing on the impact of each activity on their motivation and the usefulness of each activity for them and their students.

4 Results

With regard to the quantitative analysis, descriptive statistics and correlations aimed at answering the first RQ, namely, *to what extent the intervention has impacted on the L2 motivation of the CLIL pre- and in-service teachers*. Findings revealed that there were

little or no variations between the pre-and post-intervention phases in terms of average answers to the different items belonging to the variables under analysis. The outcomes shown in Table 1 are in line with results obtained in research studies carried out with English-major students with and without intervention studies (Brady, 2019a; 2019b; Author 1_Study 1; Author 1_Study 2), which were attributed to their love or passion for EFL and explains their high degree of agreement with the different items. The participants in this research study were pre-service CLIL teachers who would use EFL in their classroom to deliver lessons on other subjects, but also on the English language.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

Motivational variables	Pre-intervention		Post-intervention	
	Average	SD	Average	SD
Cultural interest	5.03	.78	5.23	.45
Integrativeness	5.20	.70	5.16	.62
L2 learn exp.	4.96	.55	5.03	.67
Effort	5.06	.73	5.00	.66
Ideal L2 self	5.13	.74	4.96	.72
Instrumentality (promotion)	4.77	.76	4.94	.56
Ought-to L2 self	2.77	1.1	3.48	1.35
Instrumentality (prevention)	3.55	.87	4.16	.62
Family influence	2.53	1.1	3.06	1.16

However, the correlations point to a shift in learners' motivational orientations. Prior to the intervention, effort showed significant positive correlations with the ideal L2 self ($r = .642$, $p < .05$), instrumentality (promotion) ($r = .663$, $p < .05$), and cultural interest ($r = .670$, $p < .05$). These findings suggest that learners who possessed a clear and motivating vision of themselves as L2 users, who valued the instrumental benefits of language learning, and who expressed interest in the target culture were more likely to invest effort in their language learning. In contrast, ought-to L2 self ($r = -.136$), and family influence ($r = -.111$), did not exhibit significant associations with effort, revealing that external expectations or obligations had no influence at this stage. Integrativeness and L2 learning experience showed no correlations with effort in the pre-intervention stage, which might suggest that identification with the L2 community and perceptions of the learning environment had not yet emerged as strong motivational drivers prior to the intervention.

Post-intervention, the pattern of relationships largely reinforced and, in some cases, amplified these earlier findings. Effort remained significantly and positively correlated with the ideal L2 self ($r = .680$, $p < .05$), and instrumentality-promotion ($r = .649$, $p < .05$). Notably, after the intervention, effort showed a meaningful correlation with L2 learning experience ($r = .654$, $p < .05$), indicating that learners' engagement with the learning environment became a significant factor in sustaining their motivation. Additionally, the correlation with integrativeness strengthened ($r = .558$), bringing to light a growing role of learners' identification with the L2 community in sustaining motivation. This shift may reflect the impact of the motivational intervention programme, which included vision-enhancing activities designed to deepen learners' engagement with the target language culture and foster a more personally meaningful connection to L2 use. Ought-to L2 self ($r = -.443$), family influence ($r = -.282$) and Instrumentality-Prevention ($r = -.061$) continued to exhibit a negative correlation, reinforcing the limited motivational impact of external or prevention-based pressures among these participants.

Pre-intervention	CI	FI	O2L2S	L2LE	IL2S	I	E
IProm	0,523	0,021	-0,03	0,384	0,335	**,590***	**,663***
CI		0,007	0,078	,583*	0,436	0,575	**,670***
FI			**,918****	-,614*	-0,209	0,107	-0,111
OL2S				-0,489	-0,264	0,123	-0,136
L2LE					0,403	0,451	0,511
IL2S						0,356	**,642***
I							0,572

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).

Table 2. Pre- and post-intervention correlations

Post-intervention	FI	O2L2S	L2LE	IL2S	I	E
IProm	-,095	-,176	,328	**,677***	**,647***	**,649***
FI		**,741****	-,360	-,448	-,542	-,282
OL2S			**-,614***	-,311	**-,614***	-,443
L2LE				,367	,476	**,654***
IL2S					**,673***	**,680***
I						,558

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (1-tailed).
IProm = Instrumentality promotion; CI = Cultural interest; FI = family influence; OL2S = Ought-to L2 self; L2LE = L2 learning experience; IL2S = Ideal L2 self; I = Integrativeness; E = Effort

In the post-intervention phase, participants were also asked to answer three questions concerning their experience with the vision-based activities. All participants seem to have enjoyed imagining themselves as successful English speakers as the average answer was 9.25 (1 = 'didn't enjoy it at all'; 10 = 'really enjoyed it'). In addition, all participants answered affirmatively to the questions 'Does imagining yourself in the future as a successful English speaker make you study more now to become what you imagine?' and 'Does imagining yourself in the future as a successful English speaker motivate you to learn the language in the present?', which supports the

relevance of imagery-based intervention activities in relation to effort and motivation in the post-intervention phase.

To address the second research question of the present study, namely, *how participation in the intervention has affected the perceptions of the CLIL pre- and in-service teachers regarding the effectiveness of the L2MSS-based activities on their own and their students' language learning process*, a qualitative analysis was conducted.

The constructs of L2 learning experience and ideal L2 self were the most alluded to, which is consistent with Sato (2021). Four themes and 131 codes were identified. Those were L2 learning experience (62 quotes - 47%), ideal L2 self (36 quotes - 28%), usefulness for students (29 quotes - 22%) and recommendation to be implemented (four quotes - 3%).

The *L2 learning experience* dimension stood out as the dominant one and, within this concept, enjoyment or engagement was mentioned 25 times, which represents 40% of the participants' quotes, e.g. "It was such an extraordinary thing to see how the activities were proposed that I liked them so much and I liked the subject"; "I really enjoyed this activity; there was music playing in the background that created a comfortable atmosphere". Other sub-themes that emerged were language proficiency, e.g. "[…] because they encouraged us to focus our attention in the classroom and to start talking in English, mainly being conscious that we were in the classroom and we had to switch the language and start talking in English", distraction reduction, e.g. "The activity helped us to understand how to schedule our time, […] be aware that some things pull us further away from what we want to do. […] Never have I thought it would help me that much!", the novelty of activities, e.g. "Dörnyei was such a discovery this year", learning strategies, e.g. "From my point of view, this activity has been very useful as a reference to improving our habits and being efficient" (referring to an activity on study habits), or benefits of teamwork, e.g. "Something I regard as crucial is helping each other and working as a team, and we were able to do it learning cooperatively in many activities".

As far as the *ideal L2 self* dimension is concerned, some of the participants mentioned that their motivation was boosted by visualising their ideal L2 self, e.g. "Motivation played an important role here because I imagined myself in the future being able to use the language perfectly and without problems", "[…] activities like the one we did with our eyes shut, while listening to some relaxing music visualising

ourselves in a future situation as, for example, being a teacher at school in the future, gave it a sense of realism and was a wonderful way of believing in our dreams". Safdari (2021) and Magid and Chan (2012) also found increased motivation as a frequent theme in their qualitative analysis, while Magid (2014b) displayed an array of positive emotions, such as confidence, pride, respect or admiration, which stemmed from imagining one's ideal L2 self and which led to strong motivation.

Some other pre-service CLIL teachers mentioned that the vision-based activities clarified their objectives, e.g. "This type of visionary method is so helpful, especially for those who do not really know what to do with their lives or how they see themselves in the future", which is in line with previous intervention studies (Mackay, 2019; Magid, 2014b; Magid & Chan, 2012; Safdari, 2021). They also referred to the benefits of teamwork, e.g. "What is more, you listen to other partner talking about this, and that might give you some ideas so that you can implement them in the future", and the importance of self-awareness or reflecting on what acted as a catalyst for the teacher career choice,

> I could remember myself being a child and speaking to my grandparents in English, […] or even hearing the voice of my grandfather telling me I would be an amazing English teacher in the future. It is very important to remember where your motivation comes from.

The significance of reflection is also acknowledged by Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014), who state that by recognising your gifts and revisiting images of past learning experiences, educators can (re-)ignite the flame of teacher vision.

Plausibility is another noteworthy concept that we identified, e.g. "It is true that at first it can be a little bit funny for students, but as soon as they start visualising themselves, they are going to see a clear vision of their lives and if they have real expectations or unachievable goals". Perceived plausibility is one of the conditions Dörnyei (2009) considered essential for the motivating capacity of the ideal self, and he suggests that "possible selves are only effective insomuch as the individual does indeed perceive them as possible [...] within the person's individual circumstances" (p. 19). Creating plausible and specific action plans (e.g. Safdari, 2021) or breaking down large goals and making them more manageable (e.g. Magid & Chan, 2012) seem to be crucial elements of an engine on which to harness motivation.

With regard to their perceptions of the effectiveness of the L2MSS-based activities on their students' language learning process in the post-intervention phase one of the themes that was identified was the usefulness of vision-based activities for their prospective students; the thematic analysis yielded a distinct classification of quotations into two groups, that is, those reflecting perceptions towards their L2 learning experience and those aligning with the ideal L2 self-dimension. When referring to the L2 learning experience, pre-service teachers touched on the importance of tools and strategies, e.g. "[…] teachers, should provide them [students] with enough tools and a variety of strategies they have not worked on, or cannot manage on their own yet", and language proficiency, e.g. "I think it is an incredible idea, as students love to role-play and learn a lot of new words and expressions". With respect to the ideal L2 self, participants brought up the usefulness of this type of activities to boost students' motivation, e.g. "[…] exercising language competencies and skills through this kind of activities can help language learners to develop a series of positive thought and feelings such as motivation", to teach them the importance of having clear goals through visualisation, e.g., "[…] the realization of this kind of activities would allow students to visualize themselves as successful language learners. In the future, as a teacher, I will definitely use this activity in the classroom. The students have to visualise themselves in the future to be able to have clear aims", and to raise awareness of caring for students' mental health and using this type of activities to address this issue and also help learners continue engaged, e.g., "Rarely do we ask our students about their mental or personal processes, we centre our attention in planning and teaching the contents of the curriculum. Consequently, they lose their interest and motivation".

There were also references to these activities as being recommendable and even already implemented because they could show learners the value of setting future goals, in relation to the ideal L2 self, e.g. "I strongly recommend using these kinds of activities in class because they help students with motivation and their future aims concerning the language, such as travel, work, and communication with other people", and as motivational boosters, e.g. "I strongly recommend using this kind of activities in class because they help students with motivation." "[…] another activity that I carried out with my students was to play relaxing music and ask them to imagine speaking English in the future".

5. Discussion

This study examined the impact of a vision-based intervention programme, grounded in the L2MSS, on the motivational of pre- and in-service CLIL teachers. Although the descriptive statistics revealed relatively stable average scores across the motivational variables between the pre- and post-intervention phases, the correlational analysis offers more meaningful insights into how the intervention may have shaped participants' motivational architecture.

Pre-intervention, effort was significantly associated with the ideal L2 self, instrumentality-promotion, and cultural interest, reflecting an initial reliance on internalised aspirations and future-oriented motives. These findings are consistent with Mackay's (2014) study, which demonstrated how vision-enhancing activities promoted greater willingness to communicate and deepened learners' investment in language learning through enhanced future self-guides. Likewise, García-Pinar (2019; 2021) reported that a vision-based intervention featuring TED speakers led to stronger associations between ideal L2 self, L2 learning experience, and multimodal engagement, which helped learners see themselves as competent L2 users.

The present study's post-intervention results revealed new and strengthened correlations, specifically between effort and both L2 learning experience and integrativeness, suggesting that the intervention may have promoted a deeper identification with the learning process and with the L2 community. This finding resonates with Sato and Lara (2019), who found that visualisation tasks integrated with learners' professional contexts led to a greater salience of the ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience. Similarly, Sato's (2021) work with Chilean business majors confirmed that targeted vision-enhancing activities not only increased ideal self-perceptions but also resulted in behavioural changes, such as more frequent English use in class. These quantitative findings also reflect the kind of motivational contagion described by Pinner (2019).

In contrast, ought-to L2 self, family influence, and instrumentality-prevention continued to show non-significant or negative associations with effort in the post-intervention phase, reinforcing the limited influence of extrinsic or avoidance-based motives on these teacher-learners. These findings are consistent with prior studies (e.g., García-Pinar, 2019; Mackay, 2014; Sato, 2021), which might suggest that vision-based interventions could be more effective in activating intrinsic and future-oriented motives than externally imposed ones.

The findings from the qualitative strand of this study, aiming at addressing the second research question of the present study, namely, *how participation in the intervention has affected the perceptions of the CLIL pre- and in-service teachers regarding the effectiveness of the L2MSS-based activities on their own and their students' language learning process,* offer insights into the complex motivational dynamics experienced by pre- and in-service CLIL teachers, highlghting the relevance of vision-based interventions in SLTE. Participants' reflections foregrounded the *L2 Learning Experience* and the *Ideal L2 Self* as the most salient motivational constructs. This aligns with previous intervention research (e.g., Ghasemi, 2021; Magid & Chan, 2012; Safdari, 2021;), where vision-enhancing activities catalysed personal investment, positive affect, and behavioural engagement in language learners.

Importantly, the results support calls in the SLTE literature for a more holistic approach to teacher development, one that recognises teacher motivation not as a by-product of training, but as a core concern in its own right (Lamb & Wyatt, 2019; Mercer & Gregersen, 2024). As Kubanyiova and Feryok (2015) and Korthagen (2017) argue, understanding teachers' beliefs, values, and aspirations is vital, particularly in the formative phase of professional identity construction. The vision-based activities in this study enabled participants to engage affectively and imaginatively with their future selves as competent English users and educators, an experience many described as emotionally resonant and clarifying. This reflects the motivational potential of targeted interventions that support identity formation through guided imagery and self-reflection (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014).

The dual role of one of the researchers as both instructor and intervention facilitator emerged as a salient dynamic. Participants cited the instructor's enthusiasm and engagement as motivationally contagious, reinforcing Pinner's (2019) notion of "motivational contagion" and Lamb's (2017) assertion that modelling is a potent motivational strategy. Simultaneously, the learners' curiosity, effort, and emotional investment positively influenced the instructor's own motivation, illustrating the reciprocal nature of teacher–learner affective dynamics (Ushioda, 2023; Gkonou et al., 2020). This experiential reciprocity lends practical support to Consoli and Dikilitaş's (2024) view that engagement in contextually embedded research can lead to professional renewal and deeper pedagogical insight for both teachers and educators.

Crucially, participants did not merely reflect on their experiences as learners, but also considered the pedagogical value of the activities for their own students. Many

articulated how such strategies could foster language learners' motivation by enhancing self-awareness, clarifying goals, encouraging meaningful engagement or caring for students' mental health. These insights underscore the growing recognition of the affective and motivational interdependence between teachers and students (Gkonou et al., 2020; Moskowitz & Dewaele, 2021), and support Ushioda's (2023) call for a practice-oriented, relational approach to motivation research. Participants positioned themselves not as passive recipients of motivational knowledge, but as future practitioners actively seeking to transfer this knowledge into pedagogical action.

Finally, these qualitative findings resonate with the quantitative results, which showed that L2 learning experience emerged as a significant variable in the post-intervention phase. Participant testimonies, which centred on emotional engagement, enjoyment, teamwork, novelty, and perceived gains in language proficiency, complement and substantiate these results. This convergence aligns with studies such as Magid (2014b), Safdari (2021), and García-Pinar (2021), which likewise observed that vision-based activities fostered increased confidence, positive affect, and enhanced strategic thinking among participants. As such, this study contributes to the growing body of evidence affirming the efficacy of vision-enhancing interventions in teacher education and their potential to inspire reflective, motivated, and agentive future educators.

5 Conclusions

This study has examined the potential of vision-based intervention grounded in Dörnyei's (2005; 2009) L2MSS to foster motivational development among pre- and in-service CLIL teachers. The findings underscore that guided imagery and vision-building activities can meaningfully boost participants' motivation by activating their ideal L2 self and enriching their L2 learning experience. The quantitative results revealed strengthened correlations between effort and these constructs in the post-intervention phase, while the qualitative analysis highlighted participants' heightened engagement, emotional involvement, and increased clarity regarding their professional aspirations. These insights align with previous studies (e.g., Mackay, 2019; Magid & Chan, 2012; Safdari, 2021) and further affirm the value of vision as a powerful motivational resource in teacher education.

A salient dimension of this research was the reciprocal motivational dynamic between the instructor–researcher and participants. The instructor, who also

implemented the intervention, observed how learners' enthusiasm, engagement, and emotional investment reinforced her own commitment and motivation, an instance of what Pinner (2019) terms "motivational contagion." This finding resonates with Ushioda's (2023) person-centred view of motivation and contributes to the growing literature on the affective and dialogic interdependence between teacher and learner motivation (e.g., Gkonou et al., 2020; Consoli & Dikilitaş, 2024). Such reciprocal experiences suggest that vision-based interventions can serve not only as pedagogical tools but also as catalysts for mutual affective and professional development.

The participants' reflections also point to a developing sense of pedagogical agency. Beyond acknowledging the personal benefits of the activities, they expressed a clear intention to implement vision-building strategies in their own future classrooms. This indicates that the intervention contributed to shaping their emerging teacher identities, as they moved from being recipients of instruction to potential facilitators of motivation. Such a shift aligns with the broader call within SLTE to position pre-service teachers as reflective practitioners capable of shaping their own and their students' motivational trajectories (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Korthagen, 2017).

reflective practitioners capable of shaping their own and their students' motivational trajectories (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015; Korthagen, 2017).

In light of these findings, we argue that vision-based motivational training deserves more prominent inclusion in teacher education programmes. Embedding such activities into Master's level curricula may contribute to fostering long-term engagement, sustained professional growth, and more motivating classroom climates. If the future of language learning is to be rooted in meaningful psychological investment, teacher education must equip educators not only with methodological knowledge but also with tools to support affective and identity development, for themselves and their learners.

Despite certain limitations, such as the absence of a control group and a small sample size, the study employed a mixed-methods design to provide a richer understanding of the intervention's effects. Future research could build on this foundation through longitudinal designs, follow-up interviews, or cross-institutional collaborations to investigate the durability and transferability of these outcomes. Specifically, future studies might explore whether participants eventually integrate these strategies into their own pedagogical practices and how their motivational beliefs evolve over time. Such work would contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of how

vision, when cultivated within SLTE, can support the development of both teacher and learner agency in linguistically and emotionally meaningful ways.

ogical practices and how their motivational beliefs evolve over time. Such work would contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of how vision, when cultivated within SLTE, can support the development of both teacher and learner agency in linguistically and emotionally meaningful ways.

tices and how their motivational beliefs evolve over time. Such work would contribute to a more comprehensive understanding of how vision, when cultivated within SLTE, can support the development of both teacher and learner agency in linguistically and emotionally meaningful ways.

ORCID

Bianca Manuela Sandu https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3961-3130
Soraya García-Sánchez https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1095-9410

References

Al-Hoorie, A. H. (2018). The L2 motivational self system: A meta-analysis. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 8*(4), 721-754.

Arnold, J., Puchta, H., & Rinvolucri, M. (2007). *Imagine that! With CD-ROM/audio CD: Mental imagery in the EFL classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Atkinson, E.S. (2000) An investigation into the relationship between teacher motivation and pupil motivation. *Educational Psychology, 20*(1), 45-57.

Block, D. (2003). *The social turn in second language acquisition*. Edinburgh University Press.

Boo, Z., Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). L2 motivation research 2005–2014: Understanding a publication surge and a changing landscape. *System, 55*, 145-157.

Brady, I. K. (2019a). A multidimensional view of L2 motivation in southeast Spain: Through the 'Ideal Selves' looking glass, *Porta Linguarum 31*, 37-52.

Brady, I. K. (2019b). Exploring the L2 motivational self system in Spain: Study design and preliminary findings. *Journal of English Studies 17*, 43-73.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative research in psychology, 3*(2), 77-101.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2013). *Successful qualitative research: A practical guide for beginners*. SAGE Publications

Chan, L. (2014). Effects of an imagery training strategy on Chinese university students' possible second language selves and learning experiences. In K. Csizér & Magid M. (Eds.). *The impact of self-concept on language learning (*pp. 524-552). Multilingual Matters.

Consoli, S., & Dikilitaş, K. (2021). Research engagement in language education. *Educational Action Research*, *29*(3), 347-357.

Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume (CEFR CV)*. Council of Europe Publishing. https://rm.coe.int/common-european-framework-of-reference-for-languages-learningteaching/16809ea0d4

Csizér, K. (2019). The L2 motivational self system. In M. Lamb et al. (Eds.). *The Palgrave handbook of motivation for language learning* (pp. 71-93). Palgrave Macmillan.

Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. Plenum Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. NJ Lawrence Erlbaum.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics.* Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.) *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9-11). Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z. (2017, July 6). *Motivating L2 learners and teachers through vision* [Video]. Youtube. https://youtu.be/bnZ9XPFpPXA?si=_U6nPtjIA0L_YViD

Dörnyei, Z., Henry, A., & Muir, C. (2016). *Motivational currents in language learning: Frameworks for focused interventions*. Routledge.

Dörnyei, Z., & Kubanyiova, M. (2014). *Motivating learners, motivating teachers: Building vision in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z., MacIntyre, P. D., & Henry, A. (Eds.). (2015). *Motivational dynamics in language learning*. Multilingual Matters.

Dornyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited.* Routledge.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2021). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Routledge.

Dweck, C. (2017). *Mindset: Changing the way you think to fulfil your potential* (Rev. ed.). Robinson.

Eyal, N. (2019). *How to become indistractable with Nir Eyal* [Video]. Youtube. [No longer available]

Fletcher, S. (2000) A role for imagery in mentoring. *Career Development International* 5 (4/5), 235-243.

García-Pinar, A. (2019). The influence of TED talks on ESP undergraduate students' L2 motivational self system in the speaking skill: A mixed-method study. *ESP Today 7*(2), 231-253. https://doi.org/10.18485/esptoday.2019.7.2.6

García-Pinar, A. (2021). Taking a closer look at the speaking of ideal self of Spanish undergraduates, *Studies in English Language and Education 8*(3), 901-916. https://doi.org/10.24815/siele.v8i3.20504

Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dörnyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.). *Motivation and second language acquisition* (pp. 1-20). University of Hawaii Press.

Gardner, R. C. (2004). *Attitude/Motivation Test Battery: International AMTB Research project*. https://publish.uwo.ca/~gardner/docs/englishamtb.pdf.

Gardner, R. C. (2019). The socio-educational model of second language acquisition. In M. Lamb et al. (Eds), *The Palgrave handbook of motivation for language learning* (pp. 21-36). Palgrave Macmillan.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology, 13*(4), 266-272.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Newbury House.

Ghasemi, F. (2021). L2 Motivational Self System in practice: Alleviating students' learned helplessness through a vision-based program. *School Mental Health 14*(1), 179-188. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12310-021-09464-4

Gkonou, C., Dewaele, J.-M., and King, J. (2020). *The Emotional Rollercoaster of Language Teaching.* Multilingual Matters.

Greenwald, A. G., & Pratkanis, A. R. (1984). The self. In R. S. Wyer & T. K. Srull (Eds.), *Handbook of social cognition* (pp. 129-178). Erlbaum.

Hall, E., Hall, C., Stradling, P., & Young, D. (2006). *Guided imagery: creative interventions in counselling & psychotherapy*. Sage.

Hadfield, J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2013). *Motivating learning*. Pearson Education Limited.

Hamman, D., Coward, F., Johnson, L., Lambert, M., Zhou, L. and Indiatsi, J. (2013) Teacher possible selves: How thinking about the future contributes to the formation of professional identity. *Self and Identity, 12*(3), 307-336.

Henry, A. (2017). L2 motivation and multilingual identities. *The Modern Language Journal, 101*(3), 548-565.

Hock, M. F., Deshler, D. D., & Schumaker, J. B. (2006). Enhancing student motivation through the pursuit of possible selves. In C. Dunkel & J. Kerpelman (Eds.). *Possible selves: Theory, research and applications* (205-221). Nova Science.

Hughes, J. (2021). krippendorffsalpha: An R package for measuring agreement using Krippendorff's alpha coefficient. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2103.12170*. https://doi.org/10.32614/RJ-2021-046

Kihlstrom, J. E, & Cantor, N. (1984). Mental representations of the self. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology* (Vol. 15, pp. 1--47). Academic Press.

Korthagen, F. (2017). Inconvenient truths about teacher learning: Towards professional development 3.0. *Teachers and teaching*, *23*(4), 387-405.

Kubanyiova, M. (2009). Possible selves in language teacher development. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 314-332). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781847691293-017

Kubanyiova, M., & Feryok, A. (2015). Language teacher cognition in applied linguistics research: Revisiting the territory, redrawing the boundaries, reclaiming the relevance. *The Modern Language Journal, 99*(3), 435-449. https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12239

Lamb, M. (2017). The motivational dimension of language teaching. *Language Teaching, 50*(3), 301-346.

Lamb, M., Csizér, K., Henry, A., & Ryan, S. (Eds.). (2019). *The Palgrave handbook of motivation for language learning*. Palgrave Macmillan.

Lamb, M., & Wyatt, M. (2019). Teacher Motivation: The missing ingredient in teacher education. In S. Mann & S. Walsh (Eds.), *The Routledge Handbook of Language Teacher Education* (pp. 522-535). Routledge. 10.4324/9781315659824-41

Machin, E. (2023). Intervening with near-future possible L2 selves: EFL students as peer-to-peer motivating agents during Exploratory Practice. *Language Teaching Research, 27*(2), 466-483. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168820928565

Mackay, J. (2014). Applications and implications of the L2 Motivational Self System in a Catalan EFL Context. In K. Csizér & M. Magid (Eds.). *The impact of self-concept on language learning* (pp. 553-588). Multilingual Matters.

Mackay, J. (2019). An ideal second language self intervention: Development of possible selves in an English as a Foreign Language classroom context. *System, 81*: 50-62. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2019.01.003

Magid, M. (2014a). A motivational programme for learners of English: An application of the L2 Motivational Self System. In K. Csizér & M. Magid (Eds.). *The impact of self-concept on language learning* (pp. 489-523). Multilingual Matters.

Magid, M. (2014b). An application of the L2 Motivational Self System to motivate elementary school English learners in Singapore. *Journal of Education and Training Studies, 2*(1), 228-237. http://dx.doi.org/10.11114/jets.v2i1.232

Magid, M., & Chan, L. (2012). Motivating English learners by helping them visualise their Ideal L2 Self: Lessons from two motivational programmes. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching 6*(2), 113-125. https://doi.org/10.1080/17501229.2011.614693

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist 41*(9), 954-969. https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.41.9.954

Mercer, S., & Gregersen, T. (2020). *Teacher wellbeing*. Oxford University Press.

McKinley, J. (2019). Evolving the TESOL teaching–research nexus. *Tesol Quarterly, 53*(3), 875-884.

Moskowitz, S., & Dewaele, J. M. (2021). Is teacher happiness contagious? A study of the link between perceptions of language teacher happiness and student attitudes. *Innovation in Language Learning and Teaching, 15*(2), 117-130.

Muir, C., & Dörnyei, Z. (2013). Directed motivational currents: Using vision to create effective motivational pathways. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching, 3*(3), 357–375.

Nierhaus, T., Vidaurre, C., Sannelli, C., Mueller, K. R., & Villringer, A. (2021). Immediate brain plasticity after one hour of brain–computer interface (BCI). *The Journal of physiology, 599*(9), 2435-2451. 10.5772/intechopen.110162

Oyserman, D. (2003). *School-to-jobs facilitators manual*. University of Michigan.

Oyserman, D., Terry, K., & Bybee, D. (2002). A possible selves intervention to enhance school involvement. *Journal of adolescence 25*(3), 313-326. https://doi.org/10.1006/jado.2002.0474

Papi, M., Bondarenko, A. V., Mansouri, S., Feng, L., & Jiang, C. (2019). Rethinking L2 motivation research: The 2× 2 model of L2 self-guides. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *41*(2), 337-361.

Pinner, R. (2019). *Authenticity and teacher-student motivational synergy: A narrative of language teaching*. Routledge. https://doi.org/10.4324/9781351184298

Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2017). *Self-determination theory: Basic psychological needs in motivation, development, and wellness*. Guilford.

Safdari, S. (2021). Operationalizing L2 motivational self system: Improving EFL learners' motivation through a vision enhancement program. *Language Teaching Research 25*(2), 282-305. https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168819846597

Sahakyan, T., Lamb, M. and Chambers, G. (2018). Language Teacher Motivation: From the Ideal to the Feasible Self. In S. Mercer & A. Kostoulas (Eds.), *Language Teacher Psychology* (pp. 53-70). Multilingual Matters. https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783099467-008

Sandu, B. M., & Oxbrow, G. L. (2020). Exploring the L2 motivational self system through lexical availability and overseas experience amongst English-major students in Gran Canaria. *Revista electrónica de lingüística aplicada. 19*(2), 108-125. 10.1017/S0261444820000154

Sandu, B. M., & Rodríguez Gil, M. E. (2023). Engaging Spanish English-major undergraduate students through imagery and motivational activities. *Revista de Filología de la Universidad de La Laguna*, 331-358. 10.25145/j.refiull.2023.47.17

Sato, M. (2021). Generating a Roadmap for Possible Selves via a Vision Intervention: Alignment of Second Language Motivation and Classroom Behavior. *Tesol Quarterly, 55*(2), 427-457. https://doi.org/10.1002/tesq.300

Sato, M., & Lara, P. (2019). Interaction vision intervention to increase second language motivation: A classroom study. In M. Sato & S. Loewen (Eds.). *Evidence-based second language pedagogy* (pp. 287-313). Routledge.

Sato, M., & Loewen, S. (2022). The research–practice dialogue in second language learning and teaching: Past, present, and future. *The Modern Language Journal*, *106*(3), 509-527.

Taguchi, T., Magid, M., & Papi, M. (2009). The L2 motivational self system among Japanese, Chinese and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.). *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 66-97)*. Multilingual Matters.

Thompson, A. S., & Vásquez, C. (2015). Exploring motivational profiles through language learning narratives. *The Modern Language Journal*, *99*(1), 158-174.

Ushioda, E. (1996). Developing a dynamic concept of L2 motivation. In T. Hickey & J. Williams (Eds.), *Language, education and society in a changing world* (pp. 239-245). Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E. (2009). A person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self and identity. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.) *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 215-228). Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E. (2020). *Language learning motivation*. Oxford University Press.

Ushioda, E. (2023). Intuition and Reflexivity: The Ethics of Decision-Making in Classroom Practitioner Research. *Journal for the Psychology of Language Learning, 5*(2), 76-87.

You, C. J., & Dörnyei, Z. (2016). Language learning motivation in China: Results of a large-scale stratified survey. *Applied Linguistics, 37* (4), 495-516. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amu046

Watt, H.M. and Richardson, P.W. (2008) Motivations, perceptions, and aspirations concerning teaching as a career for different types of beginning teachers. *Learning and Instruction, 18*(5), 408-428.