Because second language (L2) acquisition is the branch of learning with the highest rate of learning failure, it provides the ideal starting point to draw from research into which factors demotivate these learners and why. Much L2 motivation research insight has high transferable value. I have drawn from it to positively inform my mentoring of pathway/foundation students and have found it extremely effective in fostering retention of online learners studying in any discipline. This article draws on this research and places it in the context of ‘crisis’ situations, including Covid-19, to illustrate its value.

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**Introduction**

The literature on second language (L2) acquisition defines amotivation as ‘the realization that there’s no point … or it’s beyond me’ and demotivation as the triggering of amotivation by a specific aspect of learning which becomes an obstacle to the point that the student becomes amotivated (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011: 140).

The sudden, forced move to an exclusively online learning experience in response to Covid-19 lockdowns arguably intensified underlying or already present, ‘ecological’ or non-academic issues affecting some students in ways I could readily empathise with from personal experience—particularly the sense of isolation and lack of support. When compounded by this new learning landscape, these pre-existing issues posed very real challenges to some learners, particularly those now placed in a more marginalised position, specifically in terms of access to academic and pastoral care. Therefore, it could be argued that if there was one benefit of Covid-19, it may have been its drawing attention, due to its scale, to this often underacknowledged aspect of a student’s learning journey. In this chapter, I draw on my own research into factors that demotivate L2 learners, on the literature on educational psychology which informed it, and specifically on how participants in my doctoral study negotiated amotivation and/or demotivation as L2 students of Korean.

As a mature returning student while working full-time, it was with some irony that I found myself directly experiencing what I was researching. At 46, I embarked on a PhD in Applied Linguistics through Macquarie University in Sydney, Australia online and by distance education. I had never studied this discipline before and was initially working full-time as an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instructor at a South Korean university. Halfway through my candidature, I relocated to Western Australia due to a personal crisis that accompanied language acquisition (Dörnyei 2007), and I applied strategies drawn from the very literature I was researching to rejuvenate and maintain my motivation. This enabled me to complete my thesis; I have since implemented these strategies with great success with the student cohorts that I have been entrusted to serve.

In this chapter, I will initially introduce my study and its participants. I then draw on select theoretical constructs in the literature that inform their struggles, and in one case, success, to illustrate their importance for any student, both in the L2 learning classroom and the broader sociocultural environment. Finally, I draw on the responses of tertiary institutions to crisis situations to briefly align the theoretical constructs and the experience of my participants with an empathetic understanding of their challenges.

**The Study and its Participants**

I began my PhD entitled *Factors affecting the motivation of EFL instructors living in South Korea to learn Korean* (Gearing 2018) in September 2009, part-time, by distance education, completing compulsory coursework for 18 months before embarking on the thesis, which was completed in September 2018. Anecdotal observation of seemingly chequered attempts by my peers and colleagues to acquire Korean led me to question why almost all of them, at some point, appeared to have become amotivated to learn the first language (L1) of their vibrant host nation. And so, the idea for this study was born. At that time, I was employed as one of 12 foreign EFL instructors at University of Ulsan (UOU) in South Korea. The resulting qualitative thesis by publication entailed conducting in-depth interviews of 14 EFL instructors, all working in South Korean universities, in one case at the UOU for 15 years, on what factors motivated and/or amotivated and/or demotivated their Korean language learning paths. Participants were recruited in late 2011 after gaining ethical approval, with the proviso that while seven recruits could be colleagues at the UOU, a further seven participants would each need to be working in a different South Korean university to each other. This was to ensure balance against any potential institutional or location-based bias among the UOU participants. The recruitment process entailed the sending of a formal letter of invitation to each of my UOU EFL colleagues, with the first seven to reply in the affirmative being recruited. The other potential participants were recruited via my professional network (the Korean Organization for Teachers of English to Speakers of

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**Revitalising Motivation:**

Second language acquisition research as a means to understand student demotivation
Other Languages (KOTESOL) with the first seven who worked in a different institution being recruited. The invitation letter requested that each potential participant keep a journal tracking their Korean learning journey for two weeks prior to their in-depth interview and six did so. The invitation to potential UOU participants also included the request that one of the selected seven become a one-year longitudinal case study. Her resulting commitment would entail weekly interviews for the year, with every second interview being audio recorded. All interviews were conducted face-to-face and audio-recorded in 2013. Participant details are listed in Table 1.

On completion of the interview process, all recordings were transcribed and thematically coded. This enabled a matching of participant experiences with the most robust theoretical constructs in the literature, that would inform a deep understanding of their experiences. Chapters for the thesis were accordingly allocated with four being successfully published in international first quarterly academic journals in the discipline of Applied Linguistics. Their findings largely inform the findings and discussion in this chapter.

### Literature Review

It is not possible to enter a discussion about L2 educational psychology without acknowledging the doyen of this research literature, Zoltan Dörnyei. Upon relocation to England in 1998, the Hungarian linguist established himself as arguably the world's leading researcher on motivation in L2 acquisition before sadly passing in 2022, aged 62. His pathfinding L2 Motivational Self-System (Dörnyei 2005) redefined the L2 motivation literature by placing the learner at its centre, replacing the previously dominant themes of the classroom learning environment and external sociocultural factors. The L2 Motivational Self-System comprises three aspects. The Ideal L2 Self, or the learner's image of their future L2 speaking self-vision, motivates them to reduce the gap between their idealised and actual L2 selves. The Ought-to L2 Self is the learner’s image of which future qualities they need to possess to prevent negative outcomes. These may include duties, expectations, and responsibilities, imposed externally. Finally, The L2 Learning Experience refers to the immediate L2 learning environment. This model builds on the Process Model of Motivation (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998) which conceptualizes motivation in three stages of continual fluctuation (Dörnyei 2005).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant (pseudonym)</th>
<th>Ethnicity</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Qualifications (Highest degree obtained)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>BA (Human Resource Management)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>BA (English Literature)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richard</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>MA in TESOL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andy</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>Bachelor of Hospitality Management</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Barry</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>BA (Broadcasting)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Patricia</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>BA (Anthropology)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharon</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>MBA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert</td>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>MA (Education)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angela</td>
<td>United States</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>MA (Creative Writing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duncan</td>
<td>England</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>MA (English Language Teaching)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul</td>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>MA in TESOL</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>James</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>BA (English Literature)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>David</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>BA (Psychology)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vernon</td>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>BA (Computer Science)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Participant details (Gearing 2018).
needs to be generated and a goal identified. In the **actional stage**, motivation needs to be actively maintained and protected. In the **post-actional stage**, the learner retrospectively reviews their learning experience. Importantly, it is at the post-actional stage that learners look back on the actions that they have undertaken and form causal attributions to explain to themselves the reasons for their success, or otherwise, in achieving their goals. Although Dörnyei (2005) laments the Process Model of Motivation’s limitations, my own experience confirms that it remains a highly effective means of interpreting and understanding L2 student motivation, both individually and at the level of curriculum development and design. Dörnyei is also credited with having conducted some of the most comprehensive studies of L2 motivation to date. His study of 4000 European L2 learners of French, Italian, German, and English (Dörnyei 1998) informed Dörnyei and Ushioda’s (2011) comprehensive research summary of European learners of L2s. They found that by far the single most demotivating factor for students was their teachers (40%), followed by issues accompanying choices made to inform teaching practice, including methodology, curriculum, and resources. What fascinates many in this field of research is that these findings were almost identically corroborated by Kikuchi and Sakai’s (2009) summary of similar research into the demotivation of Japanese EFL learners. In my study, only one participant achieved relative fluency in Korean, and she did not take formal classes. The one participant who did take them for nine years, ‘James’, still described himself as an intermediate speaker of Korean. All other participants who undertook formal face-to-face classroom Korean instruction, of which there were three, including the longitudinal case study’s attempts to learn Korean online, withdrew after experiencing amotivation and/or demotivation (Gearing 2019). The models constructed by Dörnyei and Özü (1998) and Dörnyei (2005) enable a candid analysis of why this may have occurred, including demotivating factors that may have been present before these learners entered the L2 classroom and may well have been exacerbated once they were in it. These include a dislike of the L2 itself and/or the community that speaks it and the learners’ previous L2 learning experiences, particularly if these were negative (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011).

A review of the literature revealed two key broader sociocultural theoretical constructs that would most effectively inform and support an analysis of my findings. The first was the seminal qualitative study undertaken by Bonnie Norton of immigrant working class women learning English in Canada (Norton 1997, 2013, 2014). Her findings clearly indicate very high extrinsic or externally based motivation, as opposed to intrinsic, or internal motivation or enjoyment derived from the activity (Deci & Ryan 1980, 1985, 2000, 2009) among her participants. Unsurprisingly, this was largely due to the social, economic, and cultural capital such investment could potentially produce (Bourdieu 1986). However, despite this high motivation, participants in her studies consistently noted that attempts to enter L1 communities of practice—where they could practice their newly acquired English skills—were often stymied. The result was inevitable, though reluctant, amotivation and demotivation. Seaman (2008: 270–271) underscores why a sense of belonging to a community of practice is so important, particularly for learning cohorts with a shared motivation or goal, arguing:

> *It is this shared practice that differentiates the community of practice from other communities. A community of practice consists of members that share more than simply an interest; a community of practice shares expertise, competence learning, activities, discussions, information, tools, stories, experiences, and a knowledge base … but also it creates, organizes, revises and passes on knowledge among the members of the community.*

Finally, contributing to any, or all, of the theoretical constructs introduced above may well be accompanying issues related to the ‘ecology’ of learning. Arguably, and precisely due to the ground-breaking theoretical constructs of Dörnyei (2005) and Norton (1997), a gap in the L2 motivation literature was now clearly identifiable. Casanave’s (2012) autobiographical case study of her experiences of attempting to learn the L1 of her host nation, Japan, began the process of filling it. Her seminal study highlighted the often under-reported interconnected personal and/or work-related issues that plagued her progress of studying Japanese while teaching EFL in Japan, causing amotivation. Notably, these included her perception of being labelled and treated as an ‘alien’ living in a host nation with highly divergent cultural norms to those that she had previously experienced in western culture. Other issues included work-related stress due to a high workload and environmental and resulting health issues such as noise and air pollution and associated physical and mental health challenges.

In the following findings and discussion section, I will primarily draw on the theoretical constructs introduced above. However, I will also include the work of other prominent researchers from the L2 motivation literature, to illustrate how and why participants in my study experienced so much episodic and sustained Korean L2 amotivation and demotivation, particularly relating to the seemingly difficult task of justifying ‘integrating’ a minority L2 identity into the seemingly incompatible neo-liberal, globalised landscape that many participants believed would be the backdrop of their continued career pathway and journey (Gearing & Roger 2019). Finally, I will briefly draw on well-known ‘crisis’ situations experienced by the tertiary education sector internationally to demonstrate how the L2 motivation literature may inform understanding of, and therefore empathy to, the academic and pastoral/ecological needs of the affected learners in each case.
Findings and Discussion

Unsurprisingly, since I was following her Korean-learning path intensely throughout 2013, some of the deepest insight from my study emerged from the testimony given by its longitudinal case study, 'Patricia' (not her real name), an African American with a Bachelor of Arts degree in anthropology. She arrived in Seoul in December 2007 from the United States, before completing a one-year contract at a hagwon, or private language academy, then returning, as intended, to the United States. Unable to find employment in the USA, she returned to South Korea and worked as a teacher at a hagwon outside Seoul for one year, before transferring to another branch of the same institute in Seoul, working there for three months, then joining the UOU as an EFL instructor. In the time I monitored her, she, the single most amotivating factor consistently experienced by research participants in my study was their perception that they were persistently not 'accommodated' as L2 users of Korean: be it by local L1 users in daily life (Gearing & Roger 2018a), as an online learner of Korean (Gearing & Roger 2018b), or face-to-face in the L2 classroom as summed up by Patricia: 'I know I'm saying it right. I say it over, and over, again. No matter how many ways I say it, nobody can understand me. A Korean person says it: “Oh”. I still get very annoyed with that.' (Gearing 2019).

A recurrent theme she expressed was her desire to leave Korea with some grasp of the language (evidence of a nascent Ideal L2 Self) though admitting and regretting not being able to speak more Korean with her friends (an Ought-to L2 Self) (Gearing & Roger 2018b). Dörnyei (2005) states that the internalised vision of the learner as a fluent L2 speaker needs to be primed and nurtured to flourish. Patricia consistently cited many non-linguistic, or ecological, factors in her Korean language learning journey as reasons why the motivation required to sustain this did not develop. While empathetically hearing these, it was difficult, however, not to conclude that she did not appear to have internalised an ideal L2 Self vision as a Korean speaker. In addition to the ecological issues outlined by Casanave (2010), Patricia referred to the persistent desire of Koreans to speak in English with her. A person-in-context relational view of motivation states that language learners' current experiences and self-states may facilitate or constrain their engagement with their future possible selves (Ushioda 2009). This view may offer insight into Patricia's interpretation of her Korean-learning experiences. While attempting to enter peripheral L2 communities of practice can be a long and difficult process for learners (Lave & Wenger 1991; Norton 1997, 2013, 2014), Patricia's Korean communities of practice comprised friends. However, in her interviews, she offered scant evidence that she made use of this resource as a language learning opportunity. Rather, she attributed her Korean friends' ability and desire to converse in English, and her temporary status in South Korea, as related amotivating factors. She also consistently referenced her frustration at attempting to gain access to an online community of practice through her online Korean course, an issue exacerbated by her sense of being a distance student. This led to a feeling of being 'exposed' or 'vulnerable', culminating in episodic imposter syndrome, or the persistent inability to believe in the validity of one's success (Bothello & Roulet 2018). It can be assumed that an individual with a more robust Ideal L2 Self would have explored other L2 acquisition options more fully, in addition to (or in place of) self-study. To sum up, Patricia consistently cited multiple external obstacles that she attributed to her lack of attaining an ideal L2 Self (Dörnyei 2009). In common with the findings of Casanave (2012), these included a less than ideal work schedule; however they included additional obstacles such as lack of long-term job security and parallel competing goals, extra-curricular commitments, perceived internal obstacles including a tendency to over-commit and a negative self-belief about her language learning ability and speaking anxiety, compounded by technical problems impeding progress with her online course (particularly software installation and compatibility), and lack of a suitable study space and study routine.

Only one participant, 'Sharon' (not her real name), achieved relative fluency in Korean. An African American, Sharon had a Bachelor of Science degree in speech communication and a Master of Business Administration. She arrived in South Korea in August 2001 and worked at a hagwon in a large regional city, then at a university there for one year, before joining the UOU as an EFL instructor. Her attainment of Korean fluency was arguably assisted by living a 'total immersion experience'. She shared an apartment with a roommate fluent only in Korean and was an active member of a Korean-speaking church. She displayed a strong Ideal-L2 Self, firmly believing that giving her intent to reside permanently in South Korea, it was her responsibility to learn her host nation's L1. Associated with this was a strong underlying Ought-to L2 Self-component, largely expressed as respect for the people and culture of South Korea. She was arguably the only participant who was motivated to learn Korean—despite associated difficulties associated with some aspects of its grammar and needing to self-manage episodic demotivation. To counter this while self-studying, she engaged in enjoyable L2 activities, such as listening to Korean singers, watching Korean television, and engaging in simple gossip within her Korean communities. Such a methodology of stepping away from the more formal aspects of learning to focus on those that provide accessibility, enjoyment, and therefore the expectation of success, can be key in re-establishing motivation (Ushioda 2011).

What can we take from all of this? Based on their research focus on the L2 classroom and based on the findings of Falout and Maruyama (2004) and Kikuchi and Sakai (2009), Kikuchi (2015) concludes that that less motivated learners are more sensitive to demotivators, while more motivated students are more able to self-regulate their cognitive and emotional wellbeing when encountering demotivators, meaning learners with clear goals might not perceive potential demotivators as such and keep...
their focus on the learning environment. Conversely, Kikuchi and Sakai (2009) found that students without clear goals far more readily highlighted many potential demotivators, particularly the monotony of the lessons, unmotivated fellow classmates, and the student’s own lack of ability to understand the class. With this in mind, let us view feedback from ‘Duncan’, a qualified L2 teacher and EFL instructor at one of South Korea’s leading universities, on his Korean L2 classroom experience:

‘She tried to go through the material so fast, that we could never … consolidate the information. … she was trying to do a semester’s worth of … language teaching in two months … one evening a week, for two hours. … it became a little overwhelming …’

Similar negative feedback was forthcoming from ‘James’, also employed as an EFL instructor at one of the other three leading universities in South Korea:

… if you are interested in the culture of the language, you are more interested in the language itself … [it] is not Hanbok … that’s a small [part] of it … [it] is what I am talking about … to some dude in the coffee shop … to some businessman … [it] is what I see on TV, right now. … not [a] … one time a year Buddhist lantern festival … [which is] boring.

As one possible reprieve to such beleaguered L2 students whose post-actional interpretation of the success of their learning (Dörnyei & Ottó 1998) is so dire, Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) advocate emphasising ‘less studenty’ tasks and the promotion of activities that students will more readily engage in because they can relate to them.

While this summary appears to posit the argument that a demotivated L2 learner may well be projecting their own lack of motivation outwardly as a possible means of not taking responsibility for their own lack of L2 acquisition progress, this does not concur with the findings of Norton (1997, 2013, 2014), nor resolve the ‘big’ non-classroom-related questions that continued to nag me. These included the persistent ecological and identity and investment-related themes raised by participants, particularly the sentiment that they were employed on one or two-year renewable contracts. Interestingly, of the only two on tenure, one was Sharon. All other participants, to varying degrees, believed it was not necessary, or in some cases actively discouraged, to speak Korean in the English L2 classroom and that, as they operated in English-speaking ‘cocoons’, they found it entirely possible to function in daily life using ‘survival’ Korean. Accordingly, the investment required to acquire a minority language with very limited perceived transferable value was deemed prohibitive, especially given the near universal and consistently expressed perception of a lack of accommodation of them as L2 speakers of Korean (Gearing & Roger 2018a, 2018b, 2019; Gearing 2018, 2019).

Rewriting History

In attempting to give these findings a theoretical understanding, I was not surprised to find that the 21st century has recorded an unprecedented movement of an ever-increasingly large number of native English speakers to host nations where the L1 was a minority language (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie 2017). Despite this trend arguably being symptomatic of the new globalised landscape, the only study of L2 identity and motivation not focusing on learning English was Lyons’ (2009) analysis of the French Foreign Legion. From 2005 to 2014, 72.67% of all published studies on L2 motivation focused on English as the target language. The result was a lack of attention given to the acquisition of other languages in primarily monolingual settings (Boo, Dörnyei & Ryan 2015). Ushioda (2017), however, did share my surprise that the spread of global English had not appeared to have motivated such potentially affected individuals to diversify their language ability. In South Korea’s case, English is accorded an almost unquestioned respect due to the country’s very economic survival depending on English-language proficiency (Song 2012), which may well explain why participants in my study almost universally experienced barriers accessing Korean-speaking communities of practice and being accommodated in them in daily life (Gearing & Roger 2018a, 2018b, 2019; Gearing 2019). This overriding desire of Koreans to embrace English due to globalisation, therefore, makes the following statement by ‘Andy’ much easier to understand:

‘There’s no reward in learning Korean … so when other priorities take over … it’s the first thing I drop.’

Korean’s status as a minority language in the transnational, neo-liberal marketplace was cited by ‘Robert’ for his amotivation to acquire it:

‘… in the globalized setting … how important is Korean … it makes much more sense to learn … [Mandarin], even if you are in Korea … because Chinese … is … such a big … language, particularly in Asia, here.’

Finally, in assessing the merit of investing in a Korean L2 identity, Duncan surmised:

‘… what’s going to help me get a better job … in another country? Is it going to be learning Korean, or … publications, presentations … developing a better course … getting better at my teaching craft?’

To sum up, my participants largely believed that they were working in a host nation with a minority L1 with little perceived transferability in the neo-liberal globalised economy. Its inhabitants displayed an insatiable thirst to acquire English to compete in this globalised economy; as such, they took every opportunity to strengthen their English skills. Therefore, the corresponding persistent theme of difficulty accessing
L2 communities of practice and being accommodated there (Norton 2014) had resulted in participants exhibiting a less than robust L2 Self, informing an equally unmotivated associated Ought-to Self (Dörnyei 2005).

Applying the L2 Motivation Lens to ‘Crisis’ Situations Experienced in the Tertiary Education Sector

To close our discussion, I will cite three ‘crisis’ scenarios in the literature, to demonstrate how students’ experiences of them may be more empathetically interpreted by drawing on aspects of the L2 motivation literature I have now introduced. Arguably, the most intense challenge faced by the tertiary education sector this century has been in response to Covid-19. Gelles et al. (2020) found that while access issue disparities were already present, and often ignored in the face-to-face classroom learning situation, they were now exacerbated in the exclusively online one, noting that: ‘Showing compassion for students can be more difficult when there is physical and social distance’ (307). Their analysis of how a cohort of US engineering students responded to the need to study exclusively online indicated that they still needed academic, career, and mental health support. However, without adequate human resource and technological infrastructure, the information they gained was largely through informal interpersonal interactions with their teaching staff and peers. As a result, students found themselves reliant on limited and, at times, highly confusing directives and policy from their institution and academic staff, particularly on how their curriculum would now be managed and assessed. In South Africa, Swartz (2018) found that, as a response to significant student protests directly targeting the lack of accessibility to higher education and demands to decolonise the curriculum, causing widespread campus disruption, universities offered blended and online learning. However, this only intensified the issue that not all affected students had adequate access to, or literacy in, digital learning (Anderson 2005). Finally, Gómez (2008) makes the point that while Tohoku University reached out to its engineering faculty students after the 2011 Great East Japan earthquake, its international students were left in a very tenuous, unsupported position, with many returning home. These students reported their relying primarily on non-university sources of information for support and decision-making, particularly from their own nationality, subsequently stating that the slowness of the university’s flow of information, with the most important of this being only published on websites, was totally insufficient to meet their needs. Wright and Wordsworth (2013) surmise that how students interpret the level of empathy displayed to them during a crisis highlights the importance of clear and transparent communication from the university. Therefore, by drawing on our newfound L2 motivation knowledge, a prima facie case can be made that students with a less idealised vision of themselves may become more easily demotivated in the face of obstacles such as those mentioned above.

While they may outwardly appear to be projecting their own amotivation, such sentiments may be viewed more empathetically if the possible myriad academic and ecological challenges these students may be concurrently experiencing are taken into account.

Conclusion

That my peers in South Korea experienced such seemingly prohibitive amotivation and or demotivation to acquire the L1 of their vibrant host nation would, at first glance, appear contradictory to what one might expect from those employed as language instructors. By focusing on the psychology of the learners themselves, before broadening to include accompanying ecological factors in the broader sociocultural landscape, I have attempted to provide a means from which tertiary education providers may more fully understand and therefore respond to students who may well exhibit symptoms of amotivation or demotivation. More importantly, aspects of this information may be used to inform the forward planning of how to anticipate these causes and pre-emptively mitigate them occurring in potentially any learning setting. Finally, while acknowledging that some L2 learners may well be bringing ‘baggage’ with them, including a dislike of the L2 itself and the community that speaks it (Dörnyei & Ushioda 2011), some of the most significant demotivating issues L2 learners experience include the accessing of communities of practice and subsequent accommodation in them. In our ever-increasingly globalised world, interactions among linguistically diverse cohorts will, arguably, only increase. Therefore, understanding the associated difficulties, from all perspectives, is imperative if we wish to minimize the potential for amotivation and demotivation. Hopefully, the literature on L2 motivation can positively inform this process.
Revitalising Motivation: Second language acquisition research as a means to understand student demotivation

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