JACET International Convention Selected Papers

Vol. 3

ISSN 2188-8612

ISSN 2188-8612

JACET International Convention Selected Papers Volume 3

The JACET 54th (2015) International Convention

Theme: Intercultural Communicative Competence and English Language Education in a Globalized World

August 29 – 31, 2015

Kagoshima University

JACET International Convention Selected Papers, Volume 3
Published by the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET)

Cover Design

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First published in August, 2016

ISSN 2188-8612

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Message from the Editorial Board Chair

With utmost pleasure and honor, we present the third issue of Selected Papers from the Japan Association of College English Teachers [JACET] 54th International Convention, which was held at Kagoshima University, Japan, from August 29 to 31, 2015. Following the tradition of many successful JACET Conventions over the years, the 54th Convention also ended with great success, boasting a large number of participants who visited the venue from inside and outside Japan (approximately 750 in total). Highly productive and diversified sessions were held for three days, including plenary sessions, invited lectures, presentations, symposiums, and workshops.

The six articles included in this volume represent an international collection of selected papers from the convention. They are three invited papers written by the President of JACET and two plenary speakers, followed by three papers by conference presenters. Professor Hajime Terauchi, the 8th president of JACET, addresses action plans and future prospects for JACET as the newly inaugurated president. He overviews the trajectory of JACET since its establishment in 1962, while noting the current situation of English language education in Japan in an era of globalization. Professor Daniel Perrin, with complicated global contexts and necessary professional communication in mind, presents multimodal research methods in applied linguistics with a focus on transdisciplinarity, and then concludes with the importance of employing empirically-based measures for research leading to the development of both theory and practice. Professor Celeste Kinginger presents an extensive study pertaining to the impacts of study abroad programs, focusing on her current research targeting Japanese learners of English in Anglophone settings. In acquiring pragmatic and social interactive abilities in globalized communities, she addresses the importance of reconsidering/redefining what *expertise* means in English today in pursuit of well-organized research, pedagogy, and the design of study abroad programs.

The three papers from convention presenters include one from overseas (SEAMEO-RELC). The first manuscript by Professor Siusana Kweldju, using the coined term *language branding*, sheds light on emergent requirements of demonstrating evidence of an adequate level of native-speaker-based conceptions of proficiency. They are imperative in order to participate in international mobility, in particular for language learners and scholars from expanding circle countries. The second paper by Professor Yukiko Ohashi explores and presents evidence on the effectiveness of language teachers' L2 feedback in the development of language learners' spontaneous L2 utterances, uptake, and interaction in class. Results from various quantitative analyses suggest the importance of enriching and empowering feedback in order to promote the learners' uptake performance. Teacher scaffolding and peer learner collaboration are also noted as being crucial for the enhancement of individual learners' spontaneous L2 utterances. The final article by Professor Robinson Fritz and Professor Sumiko Miyafusa introduces the Ideal Intercultural Self (IIS), a unique concept and framework developed by the authors, then explored for the effects of utilizing IIS with the aim of developing international communicative competence (ICC). Employing Japanese college students in the research, the authors suggest that a pedagogically significant challenge lies in how college L2 learners can become adept at filling the gap between their present self and future IIS.

In publishing this volume, our mission was to demonstrate the highest quality in selection. For the benefit of JACET and its members, it is our desire that this volume of Selected Papers provide a top-notch scholarly presence by offering thought-provoking and academically inspiring work from the convention for all to access online. Accordingly, our stringent review process resulted in the publication of a limited number of articles.

As the Chair of the Editorial Board, I would like to express my cordial gratitude to each of the reviewers, the Editorial Board members, and all of those who contributed to publishing the third volume of the JACET International Convention Selected Papers. It is my sincere desire that this collection be utilized and contribute to advancing the development of English language education.

Masao Kanaoka, Ed.D.

Chair, The Editorial Board of the JACET International Convention Selected Papers, Volume 3

Invited Papers

English Language Education in the Global World: Overview of JACET's History and Challenges for its Next Step

Hajime Terauchi

Takachiho University

President of JACET

Abstract

The Presidential Speech at the JACET 54th (2015) International Convention at Kagoshima University presented an overview of the history of JACET from its inception in 1962, reviewed the current situation of English language education in Japan as well as around the world, and introduced action plans and future prospects for JACET. The need is recognized for more effective language teaching and learning in preparation for active participation in the global community.

Keywords**:** action plans, future prospects, global community, JACET history, JACET principles

Introduction

I am Hajime Terauchi, the 8th president of JACET as of June 21st, 2015. It is with great excitement that I take on my duties for this two-year term of office until June 2017. Today, at this JACET 54th (2015) International Convention at Kagoshima University, I will be talking about three things. The first is an overview of the history of JACET from its inception in 1962. In the second part, I will review the current situation of English language education in Japan as well as around the world. This includes concepts related to the need for more effective language teaching and learning in preparation for active participation in the global community.

In the third part, I will introduce three action plans for JACET in 2015 and present future prospects for this organization.

Overview of JACET History up to 2015

First of all, to remember the spirit with which this association was begun, I would like to briefly look back at the history of JACET since its birth. In 1962, members of the Institute for Research in Language Teaching, attending the general council meeting on college English education during the annual conference, decided to establish a new association. Approximately 120 joined in its founding, and in 1963, Professor Natsuo Shumuta was appointed as the first president (April 1963 to September 1968). The summer seminar, a tradition which continues today, was started at this time. During the term of the second president (September 1968 to October 1984), Professor Yoshio Ogawa, the board of directors set up a research committee to plan and manage the association's activities. The committee also organized the Tohoku, Chubu, Kansai, Chugoku-Shikoku, and Kyushu-Okinawa chapters (subsequently, the Hokkaido chapter was established in 1986 and the Kanto chapter in 2006). During this period, JACET conducted a survey supported by grants for research from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science to understand the situation of college English education. The association also joined the International Association of Applied Linguistics and started an active international exchange of scholars. During the term of office of the third president (October 1984 to August 1991), Professor Ryuichi Kajiki, the number of JACET members exceeded 2,160, eighteen times that at the time of its founding.

The fourth president was Professor Ikuo Koike. During his term (August 1991 to September 2001), AILA'99 was held at Waseda University in 1999, attracting 2,350 participants from all over the world, and the *JACET Principles*, described below, were announced. During this period, the Deregulation of University Act was promulgated. Also, research in areas of applied linguistics increased, and JACET added these research areas to those of English literature and English linguistics. For the first time, JACET membership was dominated by researchers of English education and applied linguistics.

The fifth president (September 2001 to December 2004), Professor Yoji Tanabe, worked on the association’s charter and organizational reform. Unfortunately, Professor Tanabe passed away during his term, and Professor Mamoru Morizumi became the sixth president (December 2004 to March 2010), continuing Professor Tanabe’s initiatives. During Professor Morizumi’s term, the association reviewed its statutes and finances and became an incorporated entity. The comprehensive knowledge base of JACET members was published as *A Series of Studies on English Education*, in thirteen volumes, by Taishukan Publishing Company. During the term of the seventh president, Professor Hisatake Jimbo, in accord with the revision of the law, JACET was restructured as a general incorporated association in April 2013. Since the JACET 50th Commemorative International Convention held in 2011 at Seinan Gakuin University, all annual conventions have been held as international conventions.

JACET is now officially affiliated with ten associations and institutions. Association Internationale de Linguistique Appliquée (AILA); China English Language Education Association (CELEA), China; English Teachers’ Association-Republic of China (ETA-ROC), Taiwan; Thailand TESOL (Thai-TESOL), Thailand; The Applied Linguistics Association of Korea (ALAK), South Korea; The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT), Japan; The Korea Association of Teachers of English (KATE), South Korea; The Malaysian English Language Teaching Association (MELTA), Malaysia; The Pan-Korea English Teachers Association (PKETA), South Korea; The Regional Language Centre (RELC), Singapore.

JACET honorary members are shown in Table 1.

Table 1

JACET Honorary Members (The Japan Association of College English Teachers, 2015, pp. 126-127)

Dr. Andrew D. Cohen	Dr. Alister Cumming	Dr. Bates L. Hoffer
Dr. David Crystal	Dr. Dan Douglas	Dr. David McNeil
Dr. Derek Bickerton	Dr. Douglas Stout	Dr. Ema Ushioda
Dr. Fredricka L. Stoller	Dr. Gabriele Stein	Dr. George Lakoff
Dr. Henry G. Widdowson	Prof. John C. Wells	Dr. John F. Fanselow
Dr. John G. Bordie	Dr. John McCormick	Dr. John W. Oller, Jr.
Dr. Kellogg W. Hunt	Dr. Leon A. Jakobovits	Dr. Lily W. Fillmore
Dr. Mark Lester	Dr. Mark Pegrum	Dr. Michael McCarthy
Dr. Paul Fletcher	Dr. Paul Kei Matsuda	Dr. Rebecca L. Oxford
Dr. Randolph Quirk	Dr. Razika Sanaoui	Dr. Richard A. Spears
Dr. Richard W. Schmidt	Dr. Roderick A. Jacobs	Dr. Roy Lyster
Dr. Simon Borg	Dr. Thomas Scovel	Dr. Vivian Cook
Dr. Wallace L. Chafe	Dr. William Grabe	Dr. William Labov

The Current Situation of JACET in a Global World

JACET Convention and Summer Seminar

JACET has held annual conventions since 1962. The convention themes and keynote speakers since 2001 are as follows:

JACET convention themes and keynote speakers since 2001.

- 2001: *English Education in the 21st century: New Challenges*

  Guy Cook (University of Reading)

  Carol A. Chapelle (Iowa State University)

  Ikuo Koike (JACET President, Meikai University)

- 2002: *Integrated English Education: from Primary through Tertiary*

  Yoji Tanabe (JACET President, Waseda University)

  Geoffrey K. Pullum (University of California, Santa Cruz)

  Mineo Nakajima (Secretary General, University Mobility in Asia and the Pacific)

- 2003: *'National Policy' for Foreign Language Education: Searching for the Ideal*

  Takashi Yoshimoto (President of Tohoku University)

  David Crystal (Professor Emeritus, University of Wales)

  David Ingram (Griffith University)

- 2004: *English as an 'International Language': Educational Goals and Standards*

  Saran Kaur Gill (Kebangsaan Malaysia University)

  Andy Curtis (Queen's University)

  Katsuhiko Tanaka (Chukyo University)

  Alan Davies (Professor Emeritus, University of Edinburgh)

  Ravinder Gargesh (University of Delhi)

- 2005: *Exploring the Evolving Goals of English Education*

  Mamoru Morizumi (JACET President, J. F. Oberlin University)

  Michael Rundell (University of Brighton)

  David Charles Nunan (University of Hong Kong)

  Michael Stuart Byram (Durham University)

- 2006: *Pedagogical Considerations for University English Instruction in a New Era of Open Admissions*

  Moses Samuel (University of Malaya)

  Donald Freeman (School for International Training)

  Kazuo Nishimura (Kyoto University)

  Jack C. Richards (SEAMEO RELC)

- 2007: *English Education at the Tertiary Level - in Search of a Consistent Curriculum* *from Elementary School through University*

Mamoru Morizumi (JACET President, J. F. Oberlin University)

David Little (Trinity College Dublin)

Toshiaki Ozasa (Fukuyama Heisei University)

- 2008: *What is Global English Communicative Competence? : A Reconsideration of English Education in Japan*

  Jennifer Jenkins (University of Southampton)

  Katsuhiko Shirai (President of Waseda University)

  Yasukata Yano (Waseda University)

  Takashi Sakamoto (Accreditation Council for Practical Abilities)

  Salikoko S. Mufwene (University of Chicago)

- 2009: *College English Curriculum Innovation in the 'New' Age of International Exchange*

  Mark Warschauer (UC Irvine)

  Anthony Green (University of Bedfordshire)

  Toshimitsu Asakura (President of Hokkai-Gakuen University)

  Amol Padwad (J. M. Patel College)

- 2010: *Tomorrow's Learners, Tomorrow's Teachers: Autonomous Development in College English Language Learning and Teaching*

  Hisatake Jimbo (JACET President, Waseda University)

  Barbara Sinclair (University of Nottingham)

  Simon Borg (University of Leeds)

  Kiyomi Akita (University of Tokyo)

- 2011: *Challenges for Tertiary English Education-JACET's Role in the Next Fifty Years*

  Rod Ellis (University of Auckland)

  Joseph Lo Bianco (University of Melbourne)

  Ernesto Macaro (University of Oxford)

Aya Matsuda (Arizona State University)

Peter Skehan (University of Auckland)

Vijay Bhatia (City University of Hong Kong)

Ikuo Koike (JACET Special Advisor)

Adele Scott (Massey University)

Paul Matsuda (Arizona State University)

Lawrence Jung Zhang (Nanyang Technological University)

- 2012: *The Application of Contemporary Language Theories to Higher English Education: Focusing on the Importance of Content-based and Context-based Approaches*

Ewa Dabrowska (Northumbria University)

Yoshihiko Ikegami (Showa Women's University)

David Singleton (Trinity College Dublin)

Stephen J. Andrews (University of Hong Kong)

Ian Roberts (Downing College, University of Cambridge)

- 2013: *Collaboration and Relativization in English Language Education*

Susan Bassnett (University of Warwick)

Alan Hirvela (Ohio State University)

Ken Hyland (University of Hong Kong)

Toru Iiyoshi (Kyoto University)

- 2014: *Fostering English Communicative Competence for Peace and Friendship*

Craig Smith (Kyoto University of Foreign Studies)

Kip A. Cates (Tottori University)

- 2015: *Intercultural Communicative Competence and English Language Education in a Globalized World*

Hajime Terauchi (JACET President, Takachiho University)

Claire Kramsch (University of California, Berkeley, President of AILA)

Daniel Perrin (Zurich University of Applied Sciences)

Celeste Kinginger (Pennsylvania State University)

JACET summer seminar themes and main lecturers since 2001

JACET has held Summer Seminars since 1962. The themes and main lecturers since 2001 are as follows:

- 2001: *Language Learning Strategy*

  Rebecca Oxford (University of Alabama)

  Chisato Furuta (Aoyama Gakuin University)

  Osamu Takeuchi (Kansai University)

- 2002: *New Perspectives on ESP*

  Dan Douglas (Iowa State University)

  Thomas Orr (University of Aizu)

  Judy Noguchi (Mukogawa Women's University)

  Atsuko Umesaki (Tezukayama University)

- 2003: *Pragmatics in Second Language Acquisition: A Focus on Speech Acts*

  Andrew D. Cohen (University of Minnesota)

  Michiko Nakano (Waseda University)

  Susumu Kubo (Matsuyama University)

  Sayoko Yamashita (Tokyo Medical and Dental University)

- 2004: *Facilitating Vocabulary Acquisition*

  Michael McCarthy (University of Nottingham)

  Asako Yamazaki (Musashi Institute of Technology)

  Kazumi Aizawa (Tokyo Denki University)

  Brent Wolter (Okayama University)

- 2005: *Psycholinguisitics and Second Language Acquisition*

  Thomas Scovel (San Francisco State University)

  Peter Robinson (Aoyama Gakuin University)

  Shuhei Kadota (Kwansei Gakuin University)

  Yuko Goto Bulter (University of Pennsylvania)

- 2006: *Issues in L2 Reading Instruction*

  William Grabe (Northern Arizona University)

  Fredricka Stoller (Northern Arizona University)

- 2007: *Issues in L2 Writing Instruction*

  Alister Cumming (University of Toronto)

  Razika Sanaoui (York University)

- 2008: *Perspectives on Language Teacher Development*

  Simon Borg (University of Leeds)

  Tsuneo Takanashi (Professor Emeritus, Hirosaki University)

  Tim Murphy (Kanda University of International Studies)

- 2009: *English Grammar 1900—2000 and Politeness in English*

  Geoffrey Leech (Lancaster University)

  Masanori Toyota (Kansai Gaidai University)

- 2010: *Theory and Practice in Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)-- The Role of the European Language Portfolio (ELP)* --

  David Newby (Graz University)

  Ken Hisamura (Den-en Chofu University)

  Noriko Nagai (Ibaraki University)

- 2012: *Advanced EFL and ESP Reading*

  William Grabe (Northern Arizona University)

  Hiroko Tajika (Tsuda College)

Fredricka Stoller (Northern Arizona University)

Judy Noguchi (Mukogawa Women's University)

- 2013: *Motivation and autonomy: Research and Methodological Perspectives in Language Learning*

  Ema Ushioda (University of Warwick)

  Osamu Takeuchi (Kansai University)

  Yasuo Nakatani (Hosei University)

- 2014: *CLIL and Content-based Language Teaching: New Global Perspectives on Bilingualism and Immersion*

  Roy Lyster (McGill University)

  Makoto Ikeda (Sophia University)

  Carol Inugai-Dixon (International Baccalaureate Organization)

- 2015: *Mobile Learning in and out of the Classroom: Balancing Blended Language Learner Training*

  Mark Pegrum (University of Western Australia)

  Glenn Stockwell (Waseda University)

  Hiroyuki Obari (Aoyama Gakuin University)

Note. The above information was taken from The Japan Association of College English Teachers (2012) for the years from 2001 to 2011 and the JACET website for the remaining years.

JACET Research Activity

JACET-Special Interest Group

In 1999, AILA'99 was held at Waseda University, attracting 2,350 participants from all over the world. Since then research in areas of applied linguistics has increased, and as of August 1st, 2015, 42 JACET-SIGs are actively conducting research in their areas.

- *Hokkaido Chapter*

  CALL Hokkaido; Classroom-centered Research; Discourse Analysis Circle of Hokkaido (DACH); ESP Hokkaido Chapter

- *Tohoku Chapter*

  Autonomous Learning

- *Kanto Chapter*

  English Education; SLA; Testing; Language Contact; Discourse-Pragmatics SIG; English Lexicography; Oral Communication Study Group; Global Education/Education for International Understanding; Bilingualism and Bilingual Education; ESP Kanto Chapter; Language Policy; Critical Thinking; English Vocabulary Research; Language Teacher Cognition; Developmental Education Kanto Chapter; Teaching Materials; English for Academic Purposes

- *Chubu Chapter*

  Politeness Research Group; ESP Chubu Chapter; The Writing Research Group; World Englishes and Cross-cultural Understanding; Multicultural Coexistence and English Education; Applied English Grammar based on the Latest Linguistic Theories; Developmental Education Chubu Chapter

- *Kansai Chapter*

  JACET Materials Development Group; Foreign Language Education Abroad; Pedagogical English Grammar; Listening; Literature in Language Education; Special Interest Group on Reading; The Writing Research Group, the JACET Kansai Chapter; ESP Kansai Chapter; English for Japanese Scientists; Developmental Education Kansai Chapter

- *Chugoku-Shikoku Chapter*

  Oral Presentation & Performance; SIG on Academic & Teaching Portfolio

- *Kyushu-Okinawa Chapter*

The Study Group for English Education in East Asia; ESP Kyushu-Okinawa Chapter; Applied Cognitive Linguistics

I will introduce two very important academic publications from JACET. One is *the JACET 8000*, a list of the 8000 basic words which should be acquired by learners of English. This list is being revised as a new update version which will be published as *the New JACET 8000*. The other major JACET publication is the 13-volume set of *A Series of Studies on English Education* from Taishukan Publishing Company published in 2012 (Table 2).

Table 2

A Series of Studies on English Education (13 Volumes) Edited by JACET. Refer to The Japan Association of College English Teachers (2011) for further information

Vol. 1:	A Study on University English Education
Vol. 2:	English Language Education Policies
Vol. 3:	English Education and Culture
Vol. 4:	ESP in the 21st Century
Vol. 5:	Second Language Acquisition
Vol. 6:	Learner Development in English Education
Vol. 7:	Developing Professional Competences of English Language Teachers
Vol. 8:	English Studies and English Education
Vol. 9:	Listening and Speaking
Vol. 10:	Theory and Practice in Reading and Writing
Vol. 11:	Lesson Design for Learning EFL
Vol. 12:	Media Use in English Education
Vol. 13:	Language Testing and Assessment

As has been previously mentioned, since 1962, JACET has continued to try to improve English language education not only at the college level but at all levels of the education system. In October 2013, three institutions of English language teaching, LET, JASELE and JACET together announced the following document: “On the revision proposal for university entrance examinations (English) of the Educational Reform Working Committee (August 29th, 2013)”:

> **On the revision proposal for university entrance examinations (English) of the Educational Reform Working Committee (August 29th, 2013)**
>
> The Japan Association for Language Education and Technology (LET, approved on August 8th, 2013)
>
> Japan Society of English Language Education (JASELE, approved on August 10th, 2013)
>
> The Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET, approved on August 29th, 2013)
>
> 1. Introduction
>
> We recognize the need for reform of the university entrance examination system with respect to English.
>
> However, the reform should be in accord with the situation in Japan where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL) and should be the result of evidence-based discussion.
>
> 2. University entrance examinations
>
> (1) The examinations should evaluate the achievement levels stated in the MEXT High School Curriculum Guidelines and the scores should be used for the selection procedure.
>
> (2) The examinations should test the four integrated skills (including speaking and

writing) given in the High School Curriculum Guidelines.

(3) The examinations should have a positive washback effect on high school education and academic achievement.

(4) The examinations should test the English achievement level of the examinees (high school students) in a manner that is reliable, appropriate, fair and practical (including cost concerns).

(5) If possible, the examinees should have several opportunities to take the examination.

(6) The English section of the examinations should be compatible with those of other subjects.

3. On the introduction of TOEFL® and other external tests

Based on the above considerations, the use of TOEFL® and other external tests can be used for some forms of entrance examinations (such as the AO system) but would not be suitable for others, such as the general entrance examination. Another issue is that using only one test to judge the English proficiency of Japanese high school students needs to be carefully examined to find whether or not it is suitable for accurate judgment.

4. Proposal

(1) As a first step, the existing National Center Test for University Admissions (foreign language) should be revised to become an integrated test of the four skills.

(2) The second step would be to develop and implement a four-skill test based on the MEXT Curriculum Guidelines (for example, NEAT, or the National English Achievement Test, adopted by the Republic of Korea).

(3) To develop such a test, research from the fields of second language acquisition, applied linguistics, e-learning (ICT, information and communications technology), and testing should be carefully considered. Also, in order to meet the recommendations

given in Section 2, Item 4 above, the reliability of the test should be examined and the educational measurement and evaluation subjected to careful consideration.

(4) Our academic organizations are ready to actively cooperate in the development of such a test.

Notes

1) The value of using TOEFL® or other external tests at graduation should be considered.

2) Learning another foreign language in addition to English at the high school level is recommended for Japan from a strategic viewpoint.

3) Making test items available to the public should be reconsidered from the viewpoints of item bank accumulation and the reuse of test items to raise test reliability.

4) Consideration should be paid to the testing of examinees with disabilities.

Adaptation in the IT era differs in terms of quality as it is for digesting massive amounts of information and not only accessing Western knowledge and Chinese classics. The population targeted for English education also differs as it is now the mass population and not a selected group. To Japan's rapidly aging society, English education, in particular at the tertiary level, is an urgent problem that must be addressed in the 21st century. In particular, "Global Human Resource" is defined (The Council on Promotion of Human Resource for Globalization Development, 2011, p.9) as follows:

Global Human Resources

Factor 1: Linguistic and communication skills

Factor 2: Self-direction and positiveness, a spirit for challenge, cooperativeness and flexibility, a sense of and responsibility and mission

Factor 3: Understanding of other cultures and a sense of identity as a Japanese

Others: Broad and well cultivated mind and profound expertise, willingness to find and solve problems, team-work and leadership skills (to bring together persons of various backgrounds), public-mindedness, moral sensibilities, and media-literacy.

In order to reply to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology's expectations, the JACET Global Human Resource Development Special Committee has been conducting research in the following three subjects since 2014:

- Group 1: Investigation on the university use of external examinations
- Group 2: External examinations
- Group 3: Proficiency level standards

On August 31st, a special symposium was held on "College English Education for Global Human Resource Development: Findings from the Special Committee on Global Human Resource Development". The panelists were Prof. Naoko Ozeki (Meiji University), Prof. Michiko Nakano (Prof. Emerita of Waseda University), and Prof. Hisako Yamauchi. I moderated the session. The final report will be submitted the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in March 2016.

JACET's Future Directions in a Global Society

Within an ever-changing context, JACET celebrates the 54th anniversary of its establishment. As I assume the office of the 8th president of this historic organization, I would like to share again the *JACET Principles* established by the board of directors in March 2001. The primary principle is that although JACET is an academic research association, it also endeavors to contribute to the improvement of English education through the research of its members on theory and practice. I would like to emphasize the importance of reaffirming that the association is founded on the two wheels of research and teaching with responsibility and ambition to support the next generation through foreign language education. Here, I would like to cite the *JACET Principles* (Table 3):

Table 3

JACET Principles (Translated from The Japan Association of College English Teachers, 2001, p.106)

As we proceed into the 21st century, JACET reconfirms the spirit of its founding principles and our desire to contribute to human society.
Objectives
1. JACET conducts research on theories and practices of English language education and related areas and aims to contribute to the improvement, progress, and development of college English education.
2. JACET regards the 21st century with wide and long-term perspectives and steadily strives to develop activities for Japan and the world.
3. JACET aims to reform college English education and other foreign language education in Japan.
Spirit
4. JACET accepts the responsibility for teaching of the next generation through foreign language education in Japan.
5. JACET is not only interested in research but also in the development of educational materials and teaching practices. Members are always aware of working with and for students.
6. JACET members maintain an enthusiasm and a sense of solidarity to lead the

association in its mission of *Service and Sacrifice*.

Activities

7. JACET cooperates with related domestic institutions to pursue the improvement of foreign language education.

8. JACET collaborates with other overseas institutions in related fields and actively cooperates with the international community for mutual development.

9. JACET members pursue research and teaching in a positive and cooperative manner in association activities based on mutual trust.

10. JACET maintain close contacts among the headquarters and chapters to advance these activities.

March 31st, 2001

With our 55th anniversary at hand, how should JACET realize what is listed in the *JACET Principles*? Recently, the Internet, the World Wide Web and technology have been developing rapidly, and globalization has advanced faster than expected. Because of this, the environment surrounding English has dramatically changed. Improving the four language skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing is still important for smooth communication; however, the required quality has not remained the same. In the digital and business worlds, the ratio of English used by non-native speakers of English has increased. Use of e-mail and the Internet has become a daily routine, presentation and discussion skills are required by society, the dissemination of tablet devices has led to rapid changes in teaching and learning skills required in the classroom. The modes of communication have been shifting.

Faced with these advancements in technology and globalization, what concrete actions should we take based on the *JACET Principles*? Here, as president, I would like to propose a *Standard (basic policy)* and three *Action Plans*.

The JACET Standard (Revising and Rearranging the *JACET Principles*)

Following the philosophy of the *JACET Principles*, let us share and advocate the common understanding that JACET is an evolving research and teaching body that encourages all of its members to raise their awareness as teachers and researchers who work with students and contribute to improving their English abilities and fostering global human resources. Here are three Action Plans that embody JACET's principles:

1. Improve the level of individual and group research and teaching practices,
2. Activate and create venues for collaboration among groups and organizations, and
3. Activate JACET activities.

Action Plan 1: Improve the research level and promote output of research and teaching outcomes

Research: JACET is first a research group and an organization of researchers. We will actively provide places for not only individual research projects but also for research groups and special committees. To begin with, we will publish research outcomes of our research groups online this year and offer the opportunity for them to share their activities via poster presentations at the 54th International Convention at Kagoshima University. During the next international convention in 2016, we plan to organize workshops on writing articles for international journals to help graduate students and young researchers. We also plan a series of *State of the Art* lectures to learn about up-to-date research in selected areas of applied linguistics and language education.

Education: Many JACET members successfully apply research results to their teaching. We will visualize good teaching practices to share and disseminate them among members, with the ultimate aim of contributing to college English education as a whole. As a first step, we will call for presentations on teaching and classroom practices at the next international convention.

Action Plan 2: Activate and create venues for collaboration among groups and organizations

Research: Taking advantage of the fact that our members belong to tertiary educational institutions across the nation, we will promote large-scale survey research. JACET has been conducting surveys on English education at approximately ten-year intervals. To accurately grasp the English abilities of Japanese university students and the English education programs of the universities, we will conduct a questionnaire and interviews. We will also consider reports from our members to comprehensively understand the current situation. We also hope to conduct joint research with supporting institutions and other organizations through industry-academia collaboration. In addition, since last year, associations of applied linguistics in East Asia—JACET (Japan), CELEA (China), and ALAK (Korea)—have collaborated to start AILA East-Asia. The three organizations will take turns holding a symposium at their annual conventions. This year, JACET will hold a symposium at Kagoshima University. We will pursue collaborative work with these affiliated associations and seek to conduct joint research through research groups of the various associations. We will also pursue cooperation with domestic associations as promised at the 52nd International Convention at Kyoto University.

Education: To offer various research outcomes to actual education situations, we will plan government/industry/academia projects so that JACET can offer suggestions not only at the tertiary level but also throughout the education milieu, from primary school to university.

Action plan 3: Activate and clarify activities as JACET

Website: We will renovate our website, the face of the association, to allow us to rapidly transmit information in this globalized era. The new website design is to be introduced at this

54th (2015) International Convention.

Journals: JACET publishes *JACET Journal*, *JACET International Convention Selected Papers*, and the Chapter journals. The first two are classified as JACET International to be recognized, read, and cited by researchers around the world. The Chapter journals are classified as JACET Domestic to increase opportunities for many members, including young scholars, to submit their articles.

Events: The *International Convention*, *Summer Seminar*, and *English Education Seminar* are widely acknowledged as good JACET traditions. We plan to refresh the content of these events to meet the needs of our members in this globalized era. Also, the roles of JACET headquarters and chapters will be clarified to renovate management in order to attract even more participants.

I have briefly reviewed the history of JACET and proposed three Action Plans. Henceforth, we need to develop the details of the plans and implement them. For that to happen, we need active discussion and participation of the board members as well as of each member of JACET. With the continued understanding and cooperation of all members, I will strive to do my best for JACET.

Lastly, by indicating JACET's future direction, I would like to close my Presidential speech with a preview of JACET projects to suggest how to improve the quality and quantity of global human resources by involving JACET members all over Japan.

Concluding Remarks: JACET for Tomorrow

I would like to conclude the present paper by presenting the following four statements to guide JACET's future.

1. We are collecting the results of previous field surveys in response to the MEXT request to suggest comprehensive policies for improving university students' communication skills. The data will be analyzed and presented as a report.

2. JACET is an institution dedicated to research and education. Using both our research database (including ICT and the study of pedagogy) and our nationwide and international network, we will propose achievement goals and curricula for students and departments at universities.
3. JACET will address complex problems at the tertiary level by accessing the insights and efforts of all those involved in English-language education, from the elementary, middle, and high school to the university.
4. We will work in collaboration with other organizations to suggest language policies, such as developing guidelines for university English education, that are well adapted to globalization.

Finally, I wish great happiness, good health, and much success to all JACET members.

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Appendix

（通称「京都アピール」）

教育再生実行会議で提案された大学入試制度（英語）の改革案について

LET(8 月 8 日総会承認)，JASELE(8 月 10 日総会承認)，JACET(8 月 29 日理事会承認)

外国語教育メディア学会(LET) ・全国英語教育学会(JASELE)・

一般社団法人大学英語教育学会(JACET) （順不同）

１．前提

入学試験制度（英語）に改革が必要なことは認識する。ただし，その改革の方向は，日本の EFL（外国語としての英語）教育環境に適したものであるべきで，また，科学的なデータの蓄積に基づいて議論されるべきであるとの立場をとる。

２．大学入試のあり方

(1) 高等学校学習指導要領にそった英語教育の到達度を確認すると共に, その得点情報が選抜目的に利用できる必要がある。

(2) 学習指導要領の方針に基づき，4 技能総合型（話す力，書く力を含む）である必要がある。

(3) 高等学校における教育改善や学力形成につながる波及効果をもたらす必要がある。

(4) 対象学習者（高校生）の英語力測定において, 信頼性と妥当性, 公平性と実用性（費用を含む）のバランスを兼ね備えたものであることが望まれる。

(5) 可能ならば，複数回の受験機会を与える方式を採ることが望まれる。

(6) 英語以外の他教科の入試とも整合性をとる必要がある。

３．TOEFL 等外部試験の導入に関して

以上に示したあり方を満たすためには，TOEFL 等の外部試験の導入を積極的に行うべき入試部門（たとえば AO 入試など）と，そうでない部門（たとえば一般入試）を切り分ける必要がある。また，資格試験の 1 つとして導入するような柔軟な立場をとり得るが，その場合でも，日本人高

校生の英語能力が正しく測定できているのかを検証しておくことが必要不可欠である。

４．提案

(1) 第一段階として，現行の大学入試センター試験（外国語）を 4 技能総合型のテスト形式へと移行させていく。

(2) 第二段階として，学習指導要領の内容と学生の英語力レベルを考慮に入れた 4 技能テスト（たとえば，韓国で導入された NEAT〈国家英語能力試験〉のようなもの）を国が主導して開発し，導入する。

(3) この試験の開発段階においては，言語習得，応用言語学，e-Learning （ICT），テスト研究の知見を十分に活用していく。また，２．(4)を可能にするためには，テスト問題の質保証の観点からもテスト研究等に加えて，教育測定・評価に関する知見が必要になる。

(4) 当三学会はこのような新しいテストの開発に関して積極的に協力する。

追記：

1）大学卒業時に，各大学の学部・学科に応じて TOEFL 等の外部試験を活用することは検討に値する。

2）英語教育だけでなく，英語以外の外国語教育も振興し，高等学校において，英語ともう 1 つの外国語を学ぶような改革を行うことも，我が国にとって戦略的に見て重要である。

3）アイテム・バンク（項目集積）の開発やテスト項目の再利用の観点から，テスト問題の開示の是非を検討する。

4）障がい者などへの配慮・補完措置についても検討する。

Investigating Intercultural Communication in the Workplace: Applied Linguistics as Research on, for, and with Practitioners

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Abstract

This article explains how research on practitioners can be turned into research with and for practitioners (Cameron, Frazer, Rampton, & Richardson, 1992, 22). Methodologically, it draws on two decades of multimethod research and knowledge transformation at the interface of applied linguistics and transdisciplinary action research on professional communication (Perrin, 2013). Empirically, it is based on large corpora of data collected in multilingual and multicultural workplaces. First, the article outlines transdisciplinary action research as a theoretical framework that enables researchers and practitioners to collaboratively develop sustainable solutions to real-world problems in which language and languages play a substantial role. Then, progression analysis is explained as a multimethod approach to investigate text production practices in the workplace. Examples from four domains (education, finance, translation, and journalism) illustrate what value applied linguistics can add to professional practice. For the case of journalism in increasingly global contexts, in-depth analyses offer step-by-step understanding of the trajectory from a real-world problem to a sustainable solution. The article concludes by suggesting empirically-based measures for research that contribute to the development of both theory and practice.

Keywords**:** transdisciplinarity, education, translation, journalism, finance

1. Applied linguistics and transdisciplinarity

In an increasingly globalized and interconnected world, workplace communication entails the transgressing of boundaries between “discourse systems” (Scollon, Scollon, & Jones, 2012) such as linguistic varieties, natural languages, and entire semiotic systems used by discursive cultures rooted in regions, professions, and societal groups. Applied linguists thus find themselves in the comfortable position of being in growing demand not only inside but also outside the classroom. Society-at-large expects us to identify and analyze socially relevant “practical problems of language and communication” (AILA mission statement, www.aila.info) and to contribute to sustainable solutions. Such solutions are considered sustainable because they add long-term value from the perspectives of researchers, practitioners, and society-at-large.

In developing sustainable solutions, applied linguistics can draw on knowledge developed in transdisciplinary research in general (Apostel, Berger, Briggs, & Michaud, 1972) and in the research framework of transdisciplinary action research (TDA) in particular (e.g., Stokols, 2006). TDA aims at facilitating theoretically grounded and systematic collaboration between researchers and practitioners, such as applied linguists and communication researchers on the one hand and teacher educators, financial analysts, translators, journalists, and policy makers, on the other. Not surprisingly, the methodological principles and practices of TDA have included, from the very beginning of TDA, language awareness as the key success factor of a systematic collaboration between practitioners and researchers (e.g., Klein, 2008, p. 407).

If this collaboration succeeds, the TDA research framework enables researchers and practitioners to jointly develop sustainable solutions to complex practical problems of, in our case, language use. In the next section, I describe the methods we have used within the TDA framework to analyze and finally solve problems of communication in increasingly multilingual and globally connected workplaces (section 2). Four examples, from the domains of education, finance, translation, and journalism, illustrate what it means to identify and sustainably solve practical problems (section 3). In-depth analyses from an exemplary project can help us understand the trajectory from the problem to the solution step-by-step (section 4) and the value that such research can add to the development of both theory and practice (section 5).

2. The multi-method approach of Progression Analysis

In all of our research projects, we apply progression analysis, which is a multimethod approach that combines ethnographic observation and interviews (a), computer recording (b), and cue-based retrospective verbal protocols (c). Progression analysis has proven valuable in understanding the writing processes of practitioners such as journalists, communication professionals, financial analysts, and translators. It allows data to be obtained on three levels in order to investigate collaborative writing as a situated activity in organizational and societal frameworks.

a) Ethnographic observation and interviews

The first level of progression analysis considers the writers and the writing situation, including the writers' professional socialization and economic, institutional, and technological influences on the work situation as well as the specific writing task that the writers must accomplish. Data on the writers' self-perceptions are obtained in semi-standardized interviews that focus on their writing and professional experience and their workplaces. Ethnographic data are collected through unstructured participatory observations of organizational practices as well as interviews about them. Findings on this level include, for example, writers' general language awareness in the area of coherence problems.

b) Computer recording

The second level of progression analysis records every keystroke and writing movement in the emerging text with programs that run in the background behind the text editors that the writers usually use, for instance behind the user interfaces of their company's editing systems. The recording can follow the writing process over several workstations and does not influence the performance of the editing system or the writer. The computer recordings provide information about what writers actually do during the text production process, with every movement and revision step representing intermediate text versions in the writing process. Findings on this level can reveal, for example, the writing activities that result in a specific text coherence problem.

c) Cue-based retrospective verbal protocol

The third level of progression analysis, the socio-cognitive conceptualization or reconstruction, draws on verbal data to infer the mental structures that might have guided the writing activities observed on the second level. After finishing a text production process, writers view a playback of their process and watch as their text emerges. While doing so, they are prompted to continuously comment on what they did while writing. An audio recording is made of this verbalization and transcribed in a cue-based retrospective verbal protocol (RVP). The RVP is then encoded with respect to aspects of language awareness, writing and translation strategies, and conscious practices. Findings on this level can provide insights into, for example, a writer's conscious decisions that resulted in a coherence problem in his or her text.

In sum, progression analysis enables researchers to consider all of the revisions to the text as well as all of the electronic resources accessed during the production process; to trace the development of the emerging text; and finally to reconstruct the writers' considerations from different perspectives. The multiple levels of progression analysis allow the strategies and practices that writers articulate in their cue-based retrospective verbalizations to be placed in relation to the situational analysis and the data from the computer recordings. Product features such as coherence problems in final texts become understandable as resulting from situated activity, i.e. as the results of complex writing activities in dynamic contexts.

3. Examples from education, finance, translation, and journalism

In this section, I outline how transdisciplinary research teams have used progression analysis to understand and improve text production in various domains and workplaces. In order to provide comparable examples across research projects and domains, I focus on one narrow subtopic of analysis: the coherence problems in evolving texts. By coherence, I understand the syntactic and semantic, as well as the explicit and implicit pragmatic connectivity within and across text elements of all sizes, ranging from single words to entire paragraphs, texts, and intertextual chains in discourse (e.g., Campbell, 1995; Kehler, 2003, Rickheit, Günther, & Sichelschmidt, 1992).

Aspects of this phenomenon are illustrated in the next four subsections with data from four projects: the MYMOMENT project that tracked children's essay writing in order to improve teacher education (a); the NATIONALBANK project, where the production of financial analysts' recommendations for investors was analyzed to improve stakeholder communication (b); the CAPTURING TRANSLATION PROCESSES project with its focus on the use of information sources and decision-making (c); and the IDÉE SUISSE project, in which journalists' collaborative news production was investigated to foster the Swiss public service broadcaster's contribution to public discourse and understanding (d).

a) MYMOMENT: Tracking writing behavior to improve teacher education

Children perform a variety of writing tasks using computers, with word processing programs quickly becoming their natural writing environment. The development of keystroke logging programs has enabled researchers to track the process of writing without changing the writing environment for the writers concerned. In a research project called MYMOMENT and its follow-up projects (e.g., Gnach, Wiesner, Bertschi-Kaufmann, & Perrin, 2007), hundreds of children in primary school grades one to five were provided with a web-based interactive writing environment for reading and writing stories and for making comments in class and at home. Writing processes were recorded automatically with progression analysis.

In the following example, the 4th-grader Doris (pseudonym) writes a German text entitled “Der Regenbogen” (English: The Rainbow) as a piece of free composition; she was able to determine both the form and the content herself. Extract 1 shows the production of the first 5 (of 30) sentences of Doris’ text. The notation system used in the extract is called S-notation (Severinson-Eklundh & Kollberg, 1996), which marks insertions and deletions and indicates their sequence in the writing process. Wherever the writing is interrupted to delete or add something, S-notation inserts the break-character |n in the text. Deleted passages are in n[square brackets]n and insertions in n{curly braces}n, with the subscript and superscript numbers n indicating the order of these steps.

Doris writes the first two sentences fluently, immediately correcting typos (deletions 1 and 4) and making a conceptual change (deletion 2).

`Als es an einem Sonntag `^{1}`[ndie|`$_1$`]`^{1}` die ganze Zeit regnete und dann wieder die Sonne schien beschloss ich in den Wald zu gehen. `^{2}`[Ich|`$_2$`]`^{2}` Die frische Luft tat mir sehr g4[uet|4]4ut.`

As it rained ^{1}*[nthe|*$_1$*]*^{1} *the whole time one Sunday and then the sun shone again I decided to go for a walk in the wood.* ^{2}*[I|*$_2$*]*^{2} *The fresh air did me a lot of g*^{4}*[oed|*$_4$*]*^{4}*ood.*

Extract 1. First two sentences of a 4th-grader’s composition

She begins the third sentence by saying that she saw a lot of animals. Then she deletes the beginning of the sentence and writes the converse (i.e. she didn’t see as many animals as last week; deletions 5 and 6, insertion 7 in Extract 2).

Ich sah ^{5}[viele Tie|$_{5}$]^{5} nicht so viele Tiere wie let^{6}[s]^{2}|$_{6}$^{7}[z]^{7}te Woche

I ^{5}[saw many ani|$_{5}$]^{5} didn’t see as many animals as la^{6}[z]^{6}|$_{6}$^{7}[s]^{7}t week

Extract 2. Third sentence of the 4th-grader’s composition

Once she writes the third sentence, Doris moves back through the text, correcting the spelling of a word (i.e. letste to letzte). She then continues to write about her experience in the woods (Extract 3). Doris then immediately deletes the last part of the previous sentence and makes what will become a significant turning point in her story (deletion 8).

Aber plötzlich stand ich wie angewurzelt stehen. Ich sah einen ^{8}[toten Igel vor m|$_{8}$]^{8} halb toten Igel vor mir

But suddenly I stood rooted. I saw a ^{8}[dead hedgehog in front of m|$_{8}$]^{8}half dead hedgehog in front of me

Extract 3. Fourth and fifth sentence of the 4th-grader’s composition

The rest of the story is written in the same linear way. The reader learns that the narrator wanted to take the hedgehog home but then decided to leave it because she was afraid of her mother’s reaction. While going home under a rainbow, she felt sad and guilty. But when she came back the next day she saw the hedgehog alive, fully recovered – which was, in her understanding, what the rainbow had promised.

This story only works because Doris changed the description of the hedgehog from dead to half dead. As it turns out, this local change ensures the dramaturgical coherence of the narration. The girl’s decisive conceptual change in revision 8 illustrates epistemic writing: typing is used as a means to understand what she wants (and does not want) to say in her text to make it a coherent story. But in contrast to many adult experienced writers’ behavior, global coherence seems to be established on the fly, while typing, not by planning key elements in advance. The 4th-grader Doris tells her story in a linear way, correcting typos and altering far-reaching dramaturgical decisions by deleting all the characters on her way back to the stretch she wants to change.

All in all, the MYMOMENT project suggests that analyses of text production processes can provide teacher education with detailed empirical information about how children at specific stages of development think, write, and, in this particular case, ensure narrative coherence – and how they are, by doing so, influenced by their writing environment, peers' feedback, and teachers' instructions. The approach fosters both an age-specific understanding of essay writing and the design of writing education in central questions such as how to establish narrative coherence in a text. By doing so, it facilitates communication between generations that have different discursive cultures (linear vs. top-down planning).

b) NATIONALBANK: Analyzing financial analysts' recommendations for investors

Another strand of transdisciplinary projects investigates text production in the domain of finance (e.g., Whitehouse & Perrin, 2015). Because they are constantly writing recommendations for investors, financial analysts can be considered professional writers without a professional writer's background – their professional education mostly focuses on technical knowledge about banking and finance and neglects language awareness and writing skills. In the NATIONALBANK project and its follow-up projects, analysts' text products, writing processes, and workflows in financial institutions such as banks have been investigated in order to raise individual and organizational language awareness and an orientation towards addressee's communicative needs.

In this article, I briefly highlight one particular outcome of this transdisciplinary research: the insight that coherence breaks in text products tend to emerge between phase shifts in writing processes (e.g., Perrin & Wildi, 2012). Put simply, when writers switch from linear progression to jumping back and forth in the emerging text, they risk losing control over their text and its coherence. The correlation between phase shifts and coherence problems is so strong that the latter can almost be predicted from the former. In Figure 1, the two graphs illustrate writing processes with and without such phase shifts.

In both graphs, the x-axis shows the order of deletions and insertions over time, from the beginning to the end of the writing process. The y-axis, in contrast shows in which order these deletions and insertions appear in the final text, from the top to the bottom of the text product. The graph visualizes the progress of a writer working through an emerging text – how she or he moves back and forth in the text produced so far while writing. We have therefore termed this type of visualization a progression graph (Perrin, 2003). In Figure 1, a straight line from the upper left to the lower right in the left graph indicates a completely linear writing process. In the right graph, however, shifts between more linear and more fragmentary phases are visible. This is where text coherence problem tends to occur.

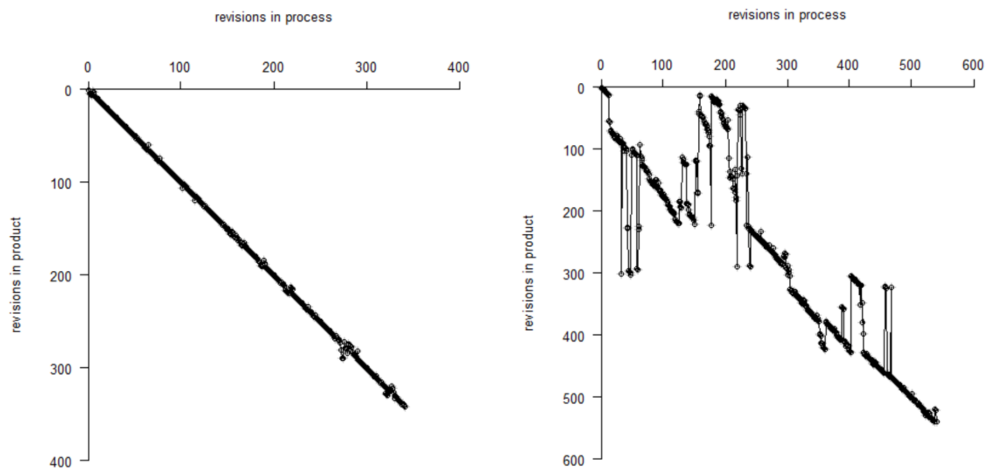


Figure 1. Linear progression (left) and multi-phase progression with phase shifts (right).

Such knowledge can help transdisciplinary research teams design measures for professional writing education for domain experts in institutions such as banks. The goal of the measures in the NATIONALBANK project is to enhance the comprehensibility and comprehensiveness of analysts' recommendations, among other ways by improving text coherence, in order to provide investors with a better basis for their decisions. In other words, such measures can help members of an expert community transgress their discursive culture's boundaries and communicate with lay people. Given the low average financial literacy of investors (e.g., Guiso & Viviano, 2013) and the (polito-)economic importance of investment decisions, improving the communicative potential of analysts' recommendations is relevant not only in an economic but also in a societal context.

c) CAPTURING TRANSLATION PROCESSES: Revealing translators' use of resources

In an extension to progression analysis, eye-tracking can be used in the laboratory to investigate at a micro level how writers confirm or supplement their domain knowledge when working on texts in an unfamiliar area. The focus of attention can be tracked as writers or translators access and read through digital sources and their emerging texts. This is what transdisciplinary projects such as CAPTURING TRANSLATION PROCESSES do (e.g., Ehrensberger-Dow & Perrin, 2009; 2013). In Figure 2, the purple spots show the foci and intensity of attention while a professional translator searched with Google for an acronym that appeared in a text about a military sonar detection system that had recently been banned in the US (see Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2011). The translator was grappling with the task of adequately translating the acronym "MoD" for a German-language target readership that might be unaware of the differences between these two countries' military systems and what relevance a US judge's decision might have for the UK.

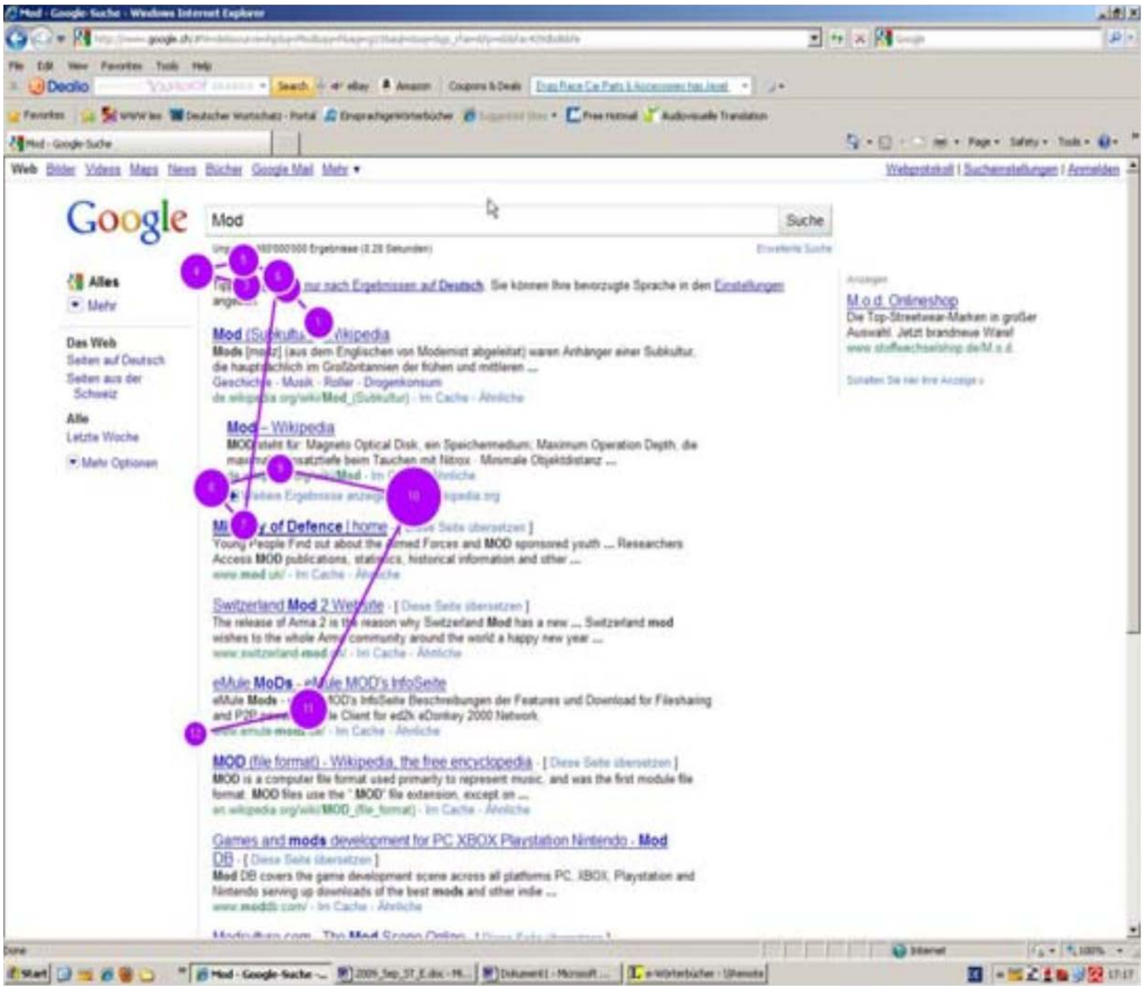


Figure 2. Eye-tracking visualization of a professional translator's use of digital resources.

The eye-tracking visualization shows that the translator skimmed through the first three hits, barely fixating on the descriptions in the snippet texts. The whole process took only 7 seconds before the translator returned to work on the emerging target text. In the subsequent RVP, as he viewed his translation process, he remarked that he actually knew that MoD must mean "Ministry of Defence" in that context but that he had just wanted to check. This purposeful confirmation by the professional is in stark contrast to the behavior of a student translator with much less domain knowledge and experience who seems to have little idea of what to look for and even though her gaze falls on the solution to this particular translation problem in the list of hits that she checks, she fails to recognize it as such (for more details, see Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2011).

Progression analysis provides a framework that allows comparative investigations into the decision-making involved when translators shape their texts to meet the linguistic and cultural needs of their target audiences. Efficient exploitation of the appropriate digital resources is one of many indicators of translation expertise that have been identified in such research, which has fed into empirically-based improvements in the education and professional development of translators (e.g., Massey & Ehrensberger-Dow, 2013).

d) IDÉE SUISSE: Investigating collaborative and multimodal newswriting

The use of digital resources has also become an important aspect of the intercultural communication evinced by multimodal newswriting as journalists work as gatekeepers in increasingly digitized global newsflows. Transdisciplinary research into news production can help the media improve their contributions to public discourse (Perrin, 2013). The IDÉE SUISSE and its follow-up projects (e.g., Zampa & Perrin, 2016) have involved public and private broadcasting and publishing companies as well as media policy makers, although the IDÉE SUISSE project itself focused a public service broadcaster.

Public service broadcasting companies are among the most important broadcasting companies in Europe. In Switzerland, there is only one such company: SRG, previously known as *SRG Idée Suisse*. As a media enterprise, SRG is subject to market and competitive forces. As a public service institution, though, SRG has a federal, societal, cultural and linguistic mandate to fulfill. We reconstructed this mandate from a socio-linguistic perspective as being to promote social integration by promoting public understanding.

Promoting public understanding in a highly multilingual country such as Switzerland means, at first sight, promoting discourse across the language boundaries: discourse between the German, French, Italian and Rumantsch parts of Switzerland. From a sociolinguistic point of view, however, the ‘language boundaries’ concept has to be refined. Urban and rural, poor and rich, lay persons and experts, immigrants and residents – all of these form different speech communities with their own cultures and views of the world, as reflected in their linguistic varieties. Thus, *promoting public understanding* means linking speech communities both between and within the German-, French-, Italian-, and Rumantsch-speaking regions and cultures of Switzerland.

However, the various stakeholders of public broadcasting regulation might not share a corporate view of the societal and linguistic mandate. Our interest in this project was to examine stakeholders' practices to determine how they do what they do and how they want to do it. The findings show that policy makers, management and journalists interpret the mandate in different and partially contradictory ways, in some cases due to a lack of awareness and in others because of specific interests and cultural backgrounds.

According to most media policy-makers under investigation, the mandate of promoting public understanding is a commitment for media in general and SRG in particular; according to SRG managers, it is a commitment for media other than SRG or societal agents other than the media. Managers' statements tend towards the following propositional reconstruction: 'Public media are not the right institutions to solve social and pedagogical problems'. This would suggest that SRG fails to do what it says it will and what it is expected to do – essentially neglecting its mandate. However, by looking more closely at the situated activity, at the writing processes of the journalists under investigation, we were able to identify emerging practices — ways out of the conflicts, towards language use meant to meet both public and market expectations.

We identified these good practices and their most important counterparts, the critical situations. Whereas critical situations denote exemplary findings of which circumstances could lead to a failure to promote public understanding, good practices represent potential success in terms of the journalists', chief editors', managers' and politicians' criteria reconstructed in the project. One example of good practice is what we call the background-recency split which emerged in one experienced journalist's conflict of basic practices. This is explained in more detail in the next section.

4. An exemplary trajectory from the problem to the solution

An in-depth analysis of an exemplary case from the corpus of the IDÉE SUISSE project explains a conflict and its emergent solution. In the UN ELECTIONS case, the journalist is a professional with over 20 years of experience as a foreign correspondent and news editor for Scandinavian and Swiss print media and television. He criticizes the loss of influence of journalists in the newsroom, feels underestimated by his boss and colleagues, and dares to challenge existing policies ("doing forbidden things") if he thinks this will enhance the quality of the news. At the time of the study, he was working for the TAGESSCHAU, SRG's German-speaking flagship television newscast. In the following subsections, the trajectory from problem to solution is demonstrated through the journalist's collaborative text production practices (a), the strategies beyond the practices (b) and the solution that emerged from the situated activity (c).

a) The collaborative text production practices

In the news production process analyzed in detail here, the journalist first viewed the video sources he had at his workplace – most of which were in English – and took notes by hand. He then took the pictures he had chosen to the cutter's workplace and they compiled the video together. Before the journalist started writing, he had a clear idea of how to start – and he counted on getting other ideas for the rest of the text while writing it. His idea of how to start was that he would split the story in an unusual way. The idea and the corresponding practice emerged when the journalist tried to solve the problem of contextualizing recent events with the pictures he had available – as can be seen in the cue-based retrospective verbal protocol (Figure 3).

0076 und was ich jetzt da versuche ist eigentlich die geschichte

and what I’m trying to do here actually is (to give) the story

0077 die schlicht mal einfach eine wahl ist in den sicherheitsrat sozusagen

which is simply just an election to the security council as it were

0078 in den kontext zu setzen

to provide a context for it

…

0092 das sind zwei verschiedene geschichten

there are two different stories

0093 die man da erzählt

to tell here

0094 und mit den bildern

and with the pictures

0095 kann ich natürlich die zweite geschichte schlecht erzählen

I can’t tell the second story very well of course

0096 das sind konkrete bilder

these are the pictures we have

0097 auf denen man den wahlablauf sieht

which show the election procedure

0098 wo die quotes sind

where the quotes are

0099 die sich wohl nur indirekt auf das beziehen

which really only relate indirectly to it

0100 das heisst in der moderation muss ich jetzt versuchen

that means that now in the anchor’s introduction I have to try

0101 den kontext sozusagen zu umschreiben

to sort of describe the context

0102 und weil wir ja sehr aktualitätsbezogen sind

```
      and because we really focus on current topics
0103  muss ich irgendwie schauen
      I have to somehow make sure
0104  dass es eine aktualität hat
      that there is a connection to recent events
      …
0113  chavez das ist noch schwierig in zwei drei sätzen
      chavez this is quite difficult in two or three sentences
0114  für leute die nicht wissen
      for people who don’t know
0115  was chavez für eine rolle spielt
      what chavez’s role is
```

Figure 3. Excerpts of the RVP from the UN ELECTIONS case (original German and translation).

b) The strategies beyond situated activity

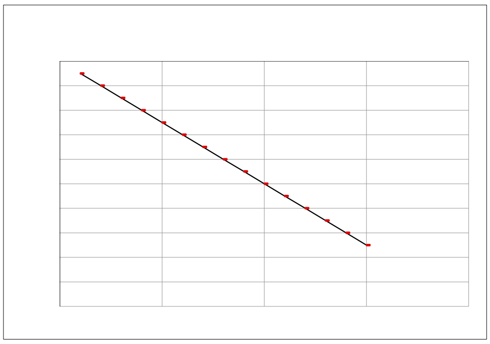
The propositional analysis of the retrospective verbal protocol of the journalist led to the description of the repertoire of the journalist’s conscious activities. In the UN ELECTIONS case, the key activities consist of practices (doing X) and strategies (doing X in order to achieve Y, or doing X because Y is true; e.g., Perrin, 2013, p. 258) that help the journalist deal with background and recent information in a dramaturgically new way we called the *background-recency split*:

– Distinguish between two stories: the recent story and the background story (see Figure 1, e.g., line 92).
– Tell the recent story in the news text because it matches the recent pictures available (e.g., lines 94–99).
– Tell the background story because not all of the audience is up-to-date on this item (e.g.,

lines 113–115).

– Tell the background story in the anchor's text because there are no pictures (e.g., lines 94–95).

Having researched the core sources and decided to split the story, the journalist sees one clear thematic focus for each of the two short stories he will write. This writing can be evaluated visually in the progression graphs of the two writing processes. It becomes visible as he produces the introduction for the anchorwoman first and the news text next. The progression graphs in Figure 4 show that the journalist writes his ideas fluently in the order they will be read or heard. The background story for the anchor is generated in a single linear sweep. The recent story is written in a linear composing sequence followed by a second, revising sequence.



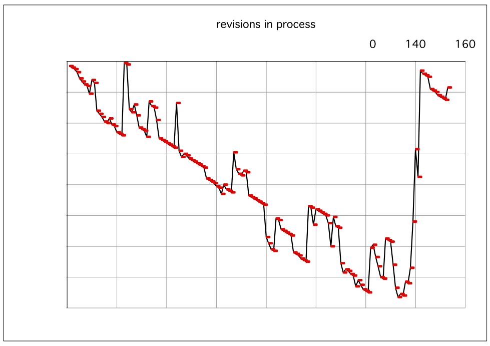


Figure 4. Progression graphs of the background story (left) and the recent story (right).

c) The emerging solution

The *background-recency split* practice emerged in the journalist's conflict with two basic requirements: He had to meet market demands and policy demands at the same time. On the one hand, the pictures he had only covered recent events, on the other hand, he needed to provide background information. However, he decided not to compromise – neither to overburden the pictures with inappropriate text nor to sacrifice background information due to the lack of appropriate pictures.

Instead, the journalist opted for an emergent third way: reaching both goals properly by writing two different texts, each of them internally coherent and contributing to a dramaturgically coherent ensemble. For the text of the news item, he took into account recent events, the market for short and well-illustrated news, and the pictures available. For the anchorwoman's introduction, he supplied the background information he expected to be useful for the less informed of the audience. This is how he practiced *promoting public understanding*.

However, this goes against unwritten policies in his newsroom. Normally, TAGESSCHAU journalists leave most recent information to the anchor and keep the background story for their news items. In another case study from the IDÉE SUISSE project, a journalist explained this policy as enabling the editorial teams to pick up on the latest information in the introduction even immediately before broadcasting. Whereas the item with its complex interplay of prerecorded text and pictures cannot be instantly rewritten and recut, the anchorman or anchorwoman can adapt his or her introduction on the spot to recent developments.

Thus, the *background-recency split* is part of this journalist's tacit knowledge (Polanyi, 1966) that includes collaboration modes, text-picture ratios, storytelling, and combining public and market needs. By allowing the journalist to do what the media policy expects him to do, it belongs to a set of good practices of experienced but isolated professionals, as identified in the IDÉE SUISSE and similar projects. It deserves to be detected and transferred to the knowledge of the whole organization of the media company, as a situational alternative to the widespread practice of always leaving the production of the introduction to an anchor who might have less thematic competence.

5. Organizational learning from tacit knowledge

In our research on, for, and with practitioners, we have analyzed "local" practices (Pennycook, 2010) of text production at workplaces in various domains. Cases such as the UN ELECTIONS in the IDÉE SUISSE project demonstrate how experienced practitioners in the role of "positive deviants" (Spreitzer & Sonenshein, 2004; Pascale, Sternin, & Sternin, 2010) manage to find emergent solutions that overcome the conflict between seemingly contradictory expectations from their environments.

I conclude by suggesting measures for systematic knowledge transformation that allow experienced practitioners' "tacit" knowledge (Polanyi, 1966) to be made available to the entire organization, domain, and society at large. At the same time, they contribute to the development of theory in and across scientific disciplines. The following catalogue groups the measures around the key conceptual aspects of transdisciplinary action research: trans- (a), action (b), and research (c).

a) The trans aspect

Transdisciplinary action research (TDA) transgresses boundaries on three levels: between domains such as science, education, finance, translation, and journalism; between disciplines such as applied linguistics and communication studies; and between institutions such as universities and banks or broadcasting companies. This aspect of TDA is covered by the general methodological principle of integrating instead of excluding relevant stakeholders throughout a project. It is reflected in specific measures such as:

– getting support from the relevant parties – instead of glossing over the work of institutions that structure "the ways in which research is funded, organized, conducted, and evaluated" and that are still strongly rooted in disciplinary paradigms (Pohl, Kerkhoff, Hirsch Hadorn, & Bammer, 2008, p. 417);
– overcoming the apparent incompatibility of goals – instead of over-compromising, perhaps by sacrificing theoretical precision to a customer's interests in practical

solutions (Hammersley, 2004);

– resolving differences in timescales – instead of struggling over them, perhaps by being torn between “quick answers” (Agar, 2010, p. 8) and well-grounded theories;
– fostering communication and mutual learning – instead of neglecting them, perhaps by failing to organize regular workshops for all the stakeholders during a research project.

All the research projects mentioned in the previous sections required a substantial phase of collaborative preparation. The first year of the IDÉE SUISSE project, for example, was used mainly to build trust between the journalists and the researchers and establish a consensus about shared goals. Both the managers and the journalists participated in the transdisciplinary process from the beginning. Editors-in-chief, training managers, and representatives from the newsroom staff were able to bring in their ideas during the project planning phase, and each journalist was invited to discuss the project with the research team before any computer or video recordings were made. From experience with previous similar, albeit smaller research projects, the head of the research team was able to provide convincing evidence that the journalists involved would benefit from feedback sessions about their individual and organizational practices.

b) The action aspect

TDA is oriented to solving practical problems by taking action. Science strives for “true” mid-range theories about situated activity; practitioners look for “authentic” insights into their own circumstances and practices; and society at large aims for “prudent” measures for solving practical problems (Kemmis, 1988, p. 46, based on Habermas, 1974). This aspect of TDA is covered by the general methodological principle of solving problems instead of shifting them. It is reflected in specific measures such as:

– observing organizational power – instead of shifting it, such as by encouraging practitioners to amplify conflicts between management and employees (Jones & Stubbe, 2004);

- motivating practitioners' superiors – instead of threatening them, such as when translating "what was learned from lower levels" (Agar, 2010, p. 12) and "organizational enthusiasm" into "actual and enduring organizational change" that frightens conservative management (Agar, 2010, p. 24);
- collaborating with practitioners – instead of exploiting them, perhaps as cheap sources of scientific data (Davies, 2007, p. 23);
- putting tacit knowledge to use – instead of wasting it, perhaps by destroying positive deviants' incentive to be one step ahead (McNamara, 2010).

In the projects outlined in the previous sections, the problems were solved by carefully mediating between the expectations of the stakeholders, by developing a shared language to reflect on shared goals such as *promoting public understanding*, by identifying crucial tacit knowledge at the bottom of the organization, and by jointly implementing knowledge transfer measures such as coaching and training.

c) The research aspect

TDA, after all, is research, a theoretically-based enterprise. In contrast to disciplinary research, it is oriented towards a "quadrangulation of disciplinary depth, multidisciplinary breadth, interdisciplinary integration, and transdisciplinary competencies" (Klein, 2008, p. 406). This aspect of TDA is covered by the general methodological principle of developing as adequately as possible a multiperspective reconstruction of the interplay between layered structures and situated activity. It is reflected in specific measures such as:

- grasping the complexity of problems – instead of missing it, perhaps by limiting research to "the bleeding obvious" (Harcup, 2012) or by overlooking the diversity of scientific and societal views of questions, problems, and approaches;

– exploiting disciplinary focus – instead of losing it, perhaps by abandoning precise knowledge and rigorous methods (Arber, 1964; Denzin, 2010; Hirsch Hadorn et al., 2008);
– integrating practitioners' views – instead of simply reproducing them, perhaps by uncritically reformulating everyday concepts in more complicated words (Bergman, 2010, p. 11; Kühl, 2008, p. 178);
– generalizing the findings – instead of failing to do so, perhaps by not linking case-specific information to abstract knowledge (Hammersley, 2004).

In all of our research projects, the findings from case studies such as UN ELECTIONS were generalized according to principles of grounded theory (e.g., Perrin, 2013, pp. 181–188) to develop a model of the dynamic system of situated text production. This model contributes to both theory and practice in the field of professional writing by foregrounding the dynamics and complexity of collaborative text production. Most of the earlier models of writing and text production, in contrast, neglected aspects of collaboration since they had been developed in experimental settings where individual writers were told to solve pre-defined problems in individual writing processes – which is quite the opposite of a writing task in natural professional settings (Perrin, 2013, pp. 150–152).

To put it simply, combining applied linguistics with principles and measures from transdisciplinary action research requires communication across discursive cultures of stakeholders – which, on the one hand, raises project workloads and slows down research. On the other hand, TDA-informed research projects allow applied linguists to

– enact their key competence of mediating between languages of academic and professional disciplines and their discursive cultures;
– provide evidence of their societal relevance by finding sustainable solutions to socially

relevant problems in which language and communication play key roles;

– and contribute to the development of empirically grounded theories on language use in an increasingly complex, dynamic and interconnected world.

This yields a threefold benefit. Language matters, more than ever, and we are in an excellent position to do language research that matters – research on, for, and with practitioners.

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JACET Selected Papers Vol. 3 (2016), 52-66

Japanese Students Learning English Abroad in an Era of Globalization

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Abstract

Research clearly demonstrates that study abroad can facilitate language development in every domain, and that it is particularly useful for the development of pragmatic and social interactive abilities. However, most studies reveal important individual differences both in the quality of these experiences and in their outcomes. Much depends not only upon the ways in which learners are received by their host communities, but also upon the personal desires and dispositions students themselves bring to their experiences. This paper will provide an overview of recent research involving Japanese learners of English in Anglophone settings. Most of the outcomes-oriented research examines the development of specific interactive capabilities such as speech act realization or mastery of formulaic language typical of expert English language use, usually defined by default as Native Speaker usage. The limited qualitative inquiry suggests that, like other students, Japanese learners may struggle for access to engagement in local communities. Meanwhile, however, their imagined communities appear to be changing with the times. While some students are very much attached to notions of English as access to specifically Western values and worldviews, others imagine themselves belonging to international, translingual communities where English functions as a *lingua mundi*, and native speaker values or norms do not apply. Strikingly, it is engagement in non-local communities, from which native speakers can in fact be excluded, that is most relevant to these latter students. The paper will conclude with some questions about the definition of expertise in English today, and their implications for research, pedagogy, and the design of study abroad programs.

Key words: Study abroad, globalization, social interaction

Introduction

In the aftermath of World War Two, the celebrated author Shusako Endo was among the first Japanese students to study abroad, leaving Keio University for a sojourn in France. His work of autobiographical fiction, *Foreign Studies* (1965), includes a description of his emotional state at the beginning of his sojourn. Kudo, the protagonist, has been sponsored by a Christian association for a summer stay in Rouen with the devout and very bourgeois Veleaux family whose company would presumably help to enhance his mastery of French and understanding of French culture. Kudo maintains an appearance of patient gratitude as he endures increasingly humiliating episodes at the dinner table. He receives instruction on basic table manners and in return, demonstrates the use of chopsticks, a practice his hosts declare barbaric. When asked to explain whether or not the Japanese do indeed sleep on straw, his limited French proficiency prevents him from describing tatami mats, and his hosts conclude that his compatriots behave like animals in barns. Like many other students entering a new society as guests, Kudo longs for the ability to defend his identity, his home and its culture, but as yet cannot do so, and is occasionally overwhelmed with suppressed anger.

Endo's story is in some ways an artifact of its time, a period piece that should be read as such. Since the mid-20th century, the practice of study abroad has certainly changed, with globalization exerting a profound impact on the qualities of students' experiences. Now that individuals control their own communicative environments to an unprecedented extent, one's actual location has become far less relevant than it once was. Now that travel has become relatively reliable and accessible to most middle-class families, even a distant relocation of one family member does not spell complete separation, and "helicopter parents" often interpret their children's travel as an occasion for their own. With the rise of neoliberalism and consumerist approaches to education, students like Kudo might appeal to the notion of "customer service" to be reassigned to a more impartial host family. Yet, at the same time, the story illustrates the perennial difficulties experienced by novice interactants in study abroad settings. When students do in fact enter into discussions of culture or identity with their hosts, has globalization reduced the likelihood that they will encounter ethnocentrism, bias, or prejudice? Has globalization expanded students' own tolerance of difference and ability to adopt an analytical rather than a judgmental stance? The contemporary literature suggests that the Veleaux families of today are not necessarily better informed than those of yesterday; for example, in an ethnographic study of Chinese students in Britain (Jackson, 2008), one of the host families did not know the difference between Hong Kong and Japan, and continually assigned the wrong nationality to their guest. In Kinginger (2008), I illustrated the tendency of some American students to recoil into a sense of national superiority whenever they were queried about their political opinions. Clearly, the problems illustrated in Endo's story are still to be addressed and, whenever possible, overcome.

The expansion of study abroad as an educational practice has been accompanied by a parallel growth in the amount and variety of associated research. Today, the literature on this phenomenon includes both a significant body of work aimed at documenting outcomes, and a considerable investment in ethnographic and other qualitative scholarship intended to illuminate the nature of the experience. In a nutshell, the outcomes-oriented literature shows that study abroad can have a positive impact on every domain of language learning, whether focus is on global proficiency, on specific aspects of communicative competence, or on skills such as speaking or reading (Kinginger, 2009, 2011). Much of the learning that takes place during study abroad is situated outside the classroom, in interactions with genuine consequences; this means that, in comparison to instructed learning, study abroad exhibits significant potential to enhance the development of social or interactive abilities such as sociolinguistic, discursive or pragmatic awareness, and performance. At the same time, findings of this research typically reveal important individual differences in achievement. Qualitative research has begun to reveal some of the sources of these differences both in the variable ways in which students can be received and in the range of dispositions students themselves may adopt when they encounter challenges such as Kudo's.

In this paper, I provide a specialized update on the state-of-the-art in research on language learning in study abroad, focusing on materials in which the outcomes or qualities of Japanese students' study abroad are featured and that have been published since the completion of my general review (Kinginger, 2009) After a brief consideration of changing demographics, namely the decline in the number of Japanese students opting for study abroad, I first review selected studies examining outcomes, including fluency, writing ability, speech act repertoires, and proficiency. I then examine selected recent studies of language learning processes in classrooms, homestays, and social networks.. In conclusion, I offer some reflection on pedagogical implications, and the role that study abroad might play for Japanese students in an era of globalization, including the spread of English as lingua mundi and the decreasing relevance of native speaker norms.

Demographics

Citing figures from the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT), Lassegard (2013) examined the recent decline in study abroad by Japanese students. Whereas the number of incoming international students and the number of outgoing Japanese students was approximately equal in the year 2001, since that time there has been a steady rise in the former population and a remarkable decline in the latter. The most recent figures available at the time showed that 66,833 Japanese students went abroad in 2008, 11 percent fewer than in 2007, and 20 percent fewer than the peak of 82,945 students in 2004.

In an initial attempt to explain this phenomenon, Lassegard takes into account larger demographic and economic issues, corporate characteristics, institutional factors, and student attitudes, none of which suffice on their own to provide an adequate explanation. For example, one of the most frequently cited reasons for the decrease in study abroad is the overall decline in the general population; however, total enrollment in tertiary education has continued to grow, and Japan has one of the highest university matriculation rates in the world. The worldwide economic downturn may certainly have affected students' motives, but the number of Japanese students abroad began to decline even when the economic outlook was positive. The traditional practice of corporate recruiting during students' third year of study no doubt contributes to the decline, as does the relative difficulty of credit transfer from universities outside Japan. Finally, Lassegard notes that media portrayal of Japanese youth as "inward thinking" and "risk averse" has made its way into popular discourse.

To achieve a more systematic understanding of student attitudes, Lassegard administered a questionnaire to 328 non-language majors at a large medium-academic university in the Tokyo area. In this study a surprising majority of students (56%) indicated some interest in study abroad. Thirty-nine percent of the respondents specifically desired to pursue a sojourn abroad. However, a number of factors limit these students' ability to undertake such a sojourn. Chief among these is lack of financial resources (64%), followed by the perception of low language ability (34%), insufficient grades (26%), delayed graduation (21%), and fear of difficulties in searching for a job (16%). Thus, at least in this sample, the most significant obstacle to study abroad is not lack of interest, but insufficient funding. The author therefore argues for a "nuanced and balanced vision of university internationalization … which both values and supports the international study experiences of domestic students" (p. 377).

Recent Studies of Linguistic Outcomes

What, then, can be learned from the recent literature about the language-related achievements of Japanese students learning English abroad? This section reviews four studies examining fluency, writing ability, speech act repertoires, and overall proficiency. The study of fluency has traditionally been carried out using various quantitative measures of performance, such as speech rate or pause length, applied to samples of learner speech. More recently, in examining fluency, applied linguists have begun to profit from the findings of corpus linguistics, specifically the realization that both speech and writing are to a large degree formulaic in nature. According to Boers and Lindstromberg (2009), "one thing that distinguishes native speakers and highly proficient learners from less proficient learners is their mastery of a large stock of semi-fixed lexical phrases, also known as ‘chunks’” (p. 1). For example, the English expression “to take someone by the nose” is not such a semi-fixed phrase and would therefore require a literal interpretation, whereas “to lead someone by the nose” is such a phrase with a commonplace metaphorical meaning. In order to explore the role of study abroad in the development of fluency via formulaic language, Taguchi (2013) recruited 64 Japanese students enrolled at an English-medium university. The researcher designed a computerized oral Discourse Completion Task specifically eliciting routines, such as “I’m just browsing/ looking” in response to a salesperson’s offer of help. The participants included four groups: students with low proficiency and no experience abroad, students with high proficiency and no experience abroad, students with both high proficiency and one academic year in an Anglophone environment, and native speakers, to provide baseline data. The findings of the study are not surprising: students of high proficiency who had studied abroad outperformed the others, in part because, as the author noted, many routines “have a strong association with specific cultural situations” (p. 117).

Sasaki (2011) is a longitudinal study examining the effects of study abroad on writing skills and motivation, reconsidered in this project as “imagined communities” within which students could anticipate successful interaction. The study followed 37 Japanese students over three and a half years, during which 28 of the participants spent between 1.5 and 11 months in English-speaking countries. The findings show that all of the students’ writing abilities improved over time, but study abroad participants outperformed their classmates who remained in Japan. Furthermore, only study abroad led to the development of imagined communities of English users with whom students could identify. Four months or more spent abroad conveyed a significant advantage, but only eight months or more led to the formation of intrinsic motivation and wholly voluntary writing practice.

The domain of speech acts is explored in another longitudinal study by Matsumura (2007) involving 15 Japanese students at a private university in Kyoto. Data were collected before, during, and up to one year after the eight months that these students spent learning English in Canada. The study's main instrument was a multiple-choice questionnaire in which the participants were to imagine offering direct or mitigated advice to persons of higher, similar, or lower status than their own. During their time in Canada, where direct, unmitigated advice is commonly offered to superiors, the participants improved their ability to perform in native-like ways. However, one year later, back in Japan, they adapted their responses to local norms and no longer proposed to give direct advice to anyone above them in a hierarchy. The author argued that this decrease in native-like performance does not represent a loss of pragmatic capability. Rather, study abroad had increased the flexibility of learners' repertoires, as well as their adaptability to and perception of variation in social situations.

Another notable recent study of outcomes is Yashima and Zenuk-Nishde (2008), an investigation of high school students' proficiency and international posture. The study was carried out in a high school offering a content-based EFL curriculum focusing on global studies. A total of 73 participants were enrolled in an entirely content-based program, while the remaining 88 were in a program with a focus on grammar, translation, and explicit preparation for university entrance examinations. All of the participants were required to include a short-term sojourn abroad in their study plan, and 16 spent an entire academic year abroad. The main constructs informing the study were: 1) second language Willingness to Communicate (WTC); 2) proficiency as measured by TOEFL scores; and 3) international posture. This third construct was proposed by the authors as an alternative to the classic notion of "integrative motivation" more suitable for learners of English for international communication. International posture is defined as "a tendency to see oneself as connected to the international community, to have concerns for international affairs, and a readiness to interact with people other than Japanese" (p. 568). The overall findings show a significant advantage for study abroad, which fosters higher TOEFL scores, more WTC, and more international posture. However, a cluster of students, mostly from the entirely content-based program, displayed a profile similar to that of the study abroad veterans, a finding the authors attribute to the school's efforts to foster imagined international communities within its local program.

Recent Studies of Learning Processes

In addition to research on the outcomes of study abroad, recent scholarship includes a number of qualitative studies illuminating both the advantages and the challenges that Japanese students may face in school, at home, and in informal interaction when they venture abroad. Churchill (2006) focuses on the varieties of school- and classroom-based experiences for high school students in the United States for a short-term visit. The cohort that Churchill observed was divided into two groups, with one group hosted by a small, elite, private school ("St. Martin's") and the other by a much larger public school ("Belleville High"). At St. Martin's the Japanese students' arrival had been prepared well in advance, with photos and names of the individual students posted in a highly visible area, and a schedule arranged for each student based upon their interests and backgrounds. Each student was also assigned a local companion upon whom they could rely for guidance, and with whom that could begin to interact in English immediately. In the classroom, Japanese students were encouraged to shine despite their limited proficiency in English, for example through invitations to publically solve math problems well beyond the level of their local classmates. At Belleville High, no such welcome had been arranged, and the visitors were instructed to choose a local student at random and follow that student's schedule throughout the day. In the classroom, the presence of the Japanese guests did not occasion any changes in business as usual; in fact, because they were often confused, they tended to consult with each other during class, a behavior that was interpreted as disruptive.

Churchill (2009) later carried out a case study of an individual student within the same cohort. Since the language-focused school curriculum attracted a majority of female students, until the group went abroad "Hiro's" male gender had appeared to be a disadvantage, isolating him from his classmates. At St. Martin's, however, Hiro was immediately invited to participate in the track and field team, and even to compete on behalf of the school. During practice sessions and on bus trips to track meets, he quickly developed a wide circle of friends with whom to interact in English in informal settings. He also became a broker of social relationships between the Japanese group and their teenage hosts, especially when the young men he met wished to be introduced to Hiro’s female classmates. Although Hiro’s English speaking proficiency was among the lowest in the group prior to this experience, by the end of the stay he was performing at the same level as the most accomplished female students. Churchill’s studies are both quite intriguing for the ways in which they portray the influence of social class and gender on study abroad experiences.

A recent study of Japanese students’ experiences in an American university setting was conducted by Sato and Hodge (2015). The project involved semi-structured interviews with eight students, of whom four were male and four female. Among the main sources of difficulty cited was the expectation that students display critical thinking rather than rote memorization both in class and in written work. The participants also commented on the qualities of teacher-student relationships, noting that American professors do not adopt any sort of parental role and do not dispense advice about personal matters or guidance on questions of morality. Furthermore, the norms for classroom interaction appeared to these students to sanction and even to encourage public arguments with professors. Had the authors delved a bit more deeply into the local interpretation of these last two perceptions in particular, they might have come closer to the source of intercultural misunderstanding in this case. Firstly, American professors occasionally do provide moral or personal advice, but only if this advice is explicitly requested or if they enjoy long-term, trusting relationships with students. Otherwise, laws protecting student privacy might easily appear to have been violated, with potentially quite negative consequences for teachers interpreted as having inappropriately overstepped the boundaries of their professional role. Secondly, American students, especially in classes of small size, are routinely graded on the quality of their in-class participation. Participation can include proposing novel interpretations or offering counterevidence to claims made by authority figures such as textbook authors or teachers, with knowledge itself construed as an emergent process taking place through interaction.

Another setting that has been scrutinized in recent research is the homestay family dinner table. Pryde (2014) conducted a longitudinal study involving 19 Japanese students of pre-intermediate proficiency in English spending an entire year living with host families in New Zealand. To study the quality of the interactions taking place at home, and its evolution over time, Pryde collected recordings of informal conversations involving students and hosts at 5 weeks, 5 months, 7 months, and 11 months into the sojourn. Findings indicate that these interactions were not and never became particularly conversational in nature. Rather, all parties adhered to classroom-style interactional norms, including both the infamous IRE (Initiation-Response-Evaluation) turn structure and a significant proportion of display rather than referential questions. We can see an example of this interaction in the example below, from Pryde's unpublished data. Here the student Miki is instructed by her host father (HF) to name the foods in plain view on the table in a way that cannot be considered entirely appropriate for interaction with a young adult. Following a series of Initiations and Responses, Miki is explicitly evaluated as a "good girl" and overall performance assessed as "very good."

HF: what are we having for dinner, today?

Miki: meat pie

HF: meat pie, yes

HM: ((laughs))

HF: meat pie, not meet the pie

Miki: mince pie

HF: good girl, yes, and

Miki: carrot

HF: yes

Miki: potatoes

HF: and

Miki: broccoli

((two response tokens))

HF: very good

Most alarming among Pryde's findings is the absence of change of over time in these interactions. All parties appeared to have good intentions, with the hosts hoping to teach and the students to learn. However, " 'conversations' were progressively reduced to formulaic patterns on common topics that were initiated and controlled by the parents and in which students gave short responses, did not elaborate on their responses, and may even have expected their responses to be evaluated" (pp. 502–503). Moreover, the data became progressively difficult to collect as the study proceeded, because students gradually withdrew from family interactions and host parents grew weary of transforming their dinner hours into tedious instructional sessions. Pryde's study offers considerable insight into the potential reasons for modest achievements in proficiency gain during some homestays.

Tanaka (2007) examined the extent to which Japanese students abroad enjoy contact with English in informal settings outside the classroom. Twenty-two students taking 12-week courses at a private school in New Zealand were interviewed post-sojourn, and five of these also provided written diaries. Most of the participants reported limited opportunities to interact with native speakers, and a strong preference for "cozy Japanese" environments (p. 50) where they could express their feelings and find support for their attempts to learn English. Opinions about the value of the homestay were mixed, with some students claiming to have enjoyed many occasions to learn, and others disappointed in their experience. Although the author notes that the sojourn may have led to enhanced confidence in using English for many of the participants, overall Tanaka's study suggests that, just like students of other origins, Japanese students abroad struggle to foreground their language-learning agenda.

Summary and Conclusion

What can we conclude about the role of study abroad for Japanese learners of English in an age of globalization? The outcomes-oriented research suggests that, to the extent that learners' goals continue to include emulating native speaker norms, study abroad offers unique opportunities, for example to acquire semi-fixed lexical phrases appropriate for everyday settings. In general, study abroad can enhance pragmatic performance and awareness, change students' language-relative motives, and upgrade their international posture. However, it may not be strictly necessary to send students to an Anglophone country if imagined international communities are available at school or in other settings (e.g., social networking). Further, study abroad in so-called "inner circle" English speaking countries (Kachru, 1986) is not necessary if the goal is to develop language ability for international communication. Qualitative inquiry reveals that the challenges Japanese students face while abroad are similar to those of other sojourners (Kinginger, 2013). They can be received in various ways by host families; even when these families' intentions are good, these intentions do not necessary translate into productive learning environments. They struggle to understand local norms and academic practices, interpreting these through their own, home-based ideologies. They often find it difficult to access local social networks, and sometimes, in any case, prefer the company of their own co-nationals over the vagaries of intercultural communication in English.

Several practical implications emerge from this review of selected literature. First, program choice and design should include careful consideration of the ways in which students are likely to be received by the institutions they frequent and the families whose homes they visit. In the case of well-intentioned host families, there is a potential need to provide some information about language learning processes and how to foster these during everyday communication. Secondly, to the extent possible, students should be informed about the local meaning of host country practices they are liable to encounter, such as norms for classroom interaction and associated values. If this information cannot be provided prior to a sojourn abroad, ideally students will have access to mentoring and guidance to help them to maintain an analytical rather than a judgmental stance as they explore these practices. Thirdly, since from the point of view of language learning, the principle advantage of study abroad is exposure to non-pedagogical social interactive practices, students should develop awareness that these practices are an important component of language ability. Some practice in non-pedagogical communication prior to study, for example through the use of telecollaborative pedagogies, may ease the transition to informal communication while abroad. Finally, and most importantly, educators should be aware of the relationship between English as a Lingua Franca and related constructs, such as "international posture" (Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008) orienting students toward openness toward linguistic and cultural difference.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Michael Pryde for graciously sharing some samples of his unpublished data. This research is funded by the United States Department of Education (CFDA 84.229, P229A020010-03), through CALPER (Center for Advanced Language Proficiency Education and Research), a National Foreign Language Resource Center at the Pennsylvania State University. However, the contents do not necessarily reflect the policy of the Department of Education and one should not assume endorsement by the federal government.

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Selected Papers

Higher Education Internationalization Needs a New Instructional Focus, New Attitudes and New Curricula for the Teaching of English

Siusana Kweldju

SEAMEO-RELC

Abstract

Higher education internationalization in Kachruvian expanding circle countries faces linguistic challenges that never take place in inner circle countries. The term language branding is coined in this paper to describe the competitive identity of English in HEIs. WhatsApp interviews were conducted to discover parents' perceptions about place branding and language branding. To participate in international mobility, more often than not students and scholars from expanding circle countries have to demonstrate evidence of an adequate level of native-speaker-based conceptions of proficiency**.** This requirement is fast becoming a norm even for short-term international academic exchange programs/events. Based on the analysis of the 2015 international short-course academic flyers available online, this paper classifies four major types of English proficiency requirements specifications for short-term academic mobility: the stated condition, the minimum mandatory, the implied condition, and the ultimate preferential condition. If this norm persists, HEI in EC countries tends to benefit mainly English-major students and the privileged minority. This will not adequately equip a new generation of productive and resourceful citizens who are ready to solve domestic issues. This paper, therefore, questions the validity of this requirement, and highlights the importance of new attitudes, a new instructional focus, and a student-driven approach to curriculum.

***Keywords**:* English as a lingua franca (ELF), Higher education institution (HEI), language branding, expanding circle countries

Introduction

In globalization a country cannot afford competitiveness without promoting their higher education institutions' (HEIs') competitiveness. HEIs in both developed and developing countries become more concerned with the future of their graduates, especially in their effort to create modern knowledge-based society. They have to prepare their graduates to function effectively in a research-based and innovation-based economy. Compared to other sectors, HEIs have to be more open to cross-border relationships and global flows of people, information, and knowledge. Global student mobility and academic mobility become more important than ever.

Internationalization has led to the interconnectivity of universities around the world for sharing the ideals of intellectual freedom (Marginson, 2007), and English has become the branded language. When HEIs are connected, it has ushered in the practice of bench-making and university ranking around the world. Since global ranking began in 2003 by the Shanghai Jiao Tong University, HEIs worldwide have increasingly consulted ranking indicators for improving their performance. As each country wants to have a certain number of world-class universities, all prestigious universities within each country are competing to have desired places in the ranking list. Rankings and accreditations are key factors of the university status and strategic priorities when it comes to brand reputation. In regard to this trend, faculty members today receive more constraints to compromise to the criteria and the norms set by the national and world university ranking agencies. Along with this, English proficiency becomes a greater requirement for academics.

The DGHE in Indonesia, for example, facilitates universities to take part in THE-QS World University Ranking, which uses four indicators as the pillars of wold class universities: research quality, teaching quality, graduate employability and international outlook. It is true that not all universities have the capacity to maximize their performance to meet the criteria of world class universities, but all universities want to internationalize themselves. One strategy is promoting mobility and building extensive international collaboration. In Indonesia, thousands of academic staff and more than five thousand students each year obtain national and provincial government grants and scholarships to go overseas for short-term and long-term academic activities.

This paper discusses about the challenges faced by Universities in Kachruvian Expanding Circle Countries (henceforth, expanding circle universities) regarding the position and the influence of English language in HE internationalization, and proposes potential solutions to the problem. In 1982 Kachru pioneered and classified speakers of English around the world in his three-concentric-circle model. The first is The Inner Circle, which is made up of those speakers who are native speakers of English, such as those living in the UK, USA, Canada, New Zealand and Australia. They are traditionally used for English norms by the speakers of the other two circles of countries. The Outer Circle countries refer to the former colonies of the members of the inner circle; for examples, Singapore, Brunei Darussalam, Nigeria, the Philippines, Bangladesh, and Kenya. Most of those countries were the colonies of the UK or the USA. Finally, the Expanding Circle countries are those where English plays no historical or governmental role, but it is learned as a foreign language for its importance in business, science, technology and education. It is the largest circle which includes countries such as Japan, Indonesia, China, Denmark, and Iran.

English: The Branded Language in HE Internationalization

English is a necessary entry qualification for academic internationalization. It is an important element for HEI branding--a function of showing how well an HEI performs in meeting the needs of its clients (Temple, 2006, p.17). As most universities venture to internationalize themselves, HE internationalization is an important contributor to the strengthening of the privileged position of English.

English Language is an advantage for inner circle HEIs, but it is a challenge for Expanding Circle ones. HEI internationalization brings in revenue for inner circle universities, but a cash outflow and a challenge for the expanding circle ones. HEI internationalization does not only depend on place branding (Reketye & Pozsgai, 2014), but also language branding--a term coined in this paper. Due to the advantage, inner circle HEIs become very expansive in introducing themselves abroad. The most recent strategy is establishing offshore campuses around the globe for earning higher reputation and generating income. The theme of the advertisement is that they give full training and teaching in English, a marker of the process of globalization (Cenoz & Gorter, 2008, p. 57). Students can learn both content and English in their universities. This theme of advertisement also strengthens the branding of English as the academic lingua franca, and the most common second and foreign language world-wide.

There is a two-way relationship between English as academic lingua franca and the reputation of inner circle HEIs. According to the nation branding theory, individual products/corporate brands enhance the image of the overarching nation brand, and vice versa. As long as HEIs are concerned, English has enhanced inner-circle universities, and inner-circle universities have also enhanced the global use of English in the academic life (Dinnie, 2008). This position causes a great challenge for expanding circle universities in their practice of HE branding.

As an important branded language, English plays an important role for HE Internationalization and HEIs branding. English becomes the academic lingua franca in conferences, publications, courses for international students, professional development, cross national comparative studies and different kinds international education and research projects. HEIs in Francophone countries, on the contrary, are seriously under-represented partly due to the language barrier (Bashier, 2007). Inner-circle countries are aware of their advantage position. Therefore, they invest largely in their HE trading. The United Kingdom, Australia, the United States and Canada are the main countries exporting their HEIs through this mode. ……English language skill is one of the main causes of financial and linguistic challenges for HEIs in expanding circle countries. Scott (1998) indicates that globalization makes some universities become the subjects, while the others become the objects or the victims. Regarding English, the inner circle universities are the subject, and the expanding circle ones are the victims, or the market to be exploited. English is one of the main obstacles for the faculty members and students from expanding circle universities to participate in international exchanges, including the short-term ones. Most academic staff and students find that the requirement of English for short courses is discouraging. Intelligent and established academic staff, especially, who can function with subtleties and details in his own native language, suddenly has to submit the results of their English proficiency test, and to speak English correctly with native-like proficiency.

University Branding, Language Branding, Nation Branding, and Parents' Views

A brand or a reputation of a university is a tool to differentiate itself from its competitors. English is a powerful brand for a university, while university branding also strengthens nation brand. Nation-brand identities are found in successful branded exports (Dinnie, 2008, p. 48). One important export today is education. Education export is a way of nation branding strategy to strengthen national identities and to transform national identity into intellectual property (Gade, 2014). In other words, promoting HEIs is a strategy to cultivate the positive image of symbolic soft power of a country, especially the sustainable competitiveness of a nation in the domain of innovation and scientific discoveries.

Brand state or the outside world's ideas about a particular country, and good branding strategies give a major edge for international recognition (van Ham, 2001). This is naturally enjoyed by inner circle universities to reach out to the global market. A brand is not only a name; it is a psychological phenomenon that resides in the customer's mind, thoughts, feelings, perceptions, beliefs, attitudes and behaviour (Webster & Keller, 2004). Consumers will tell each other about a brand. For expanding circle countries, to launch a university brand to this direction, English is the basic component in the reputation management, especially in the online world for a high degree of internationalization.

The branding of a university is also closely related to its place. The place also indicates what language is used, and what opportunities and life style are offered. Indonesian parents, for example, considered that Japan and China with their modern cities are promising destinations for their children. Besides English is already adopted as the medium of instruction in international programmes, studying in China or Japan helps their children to learn Chinese or Japanese language outside the classroom. This linguistic experience will give their children more opportunities for their long term career development. Today cities and countries are branding themselves. A country or a city which has its own unique characteristics is also an important factor to attract international students. This magnet-like vision creates place branding (Widler, 2007). A brand city or a brand country can make a university more attractive (Popescu, 2012), and vice versa.

Branding today is not only concerned with the concrete and functional properties of products and services, but also with experience and lifestyle (Klein, 2000). Place branding is very close to experience and lifestyle. The use of English is also part of experience and lifestyle. The uniqueness of a university's location has the potential to create a positive image to the university and to make it stand out and a destination in the global place-product market (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2005). In the case of Singapore, for example, place branding and language branding merge together. As an outer circle country, English is the medium of instruction in all universities, the first language taught in school and the main language used in the workplace. In terms of place branding, Singapore is also known for its business environment, its fame as a garden city, and as a modern city with excellent public transportation and infrastructure. Singapore was confident to launch The Global Schoolhouse project in 2002, and it has attracted over 86,000 international students. There is a correlation between countries that have produced strong brands and those that are strong brands themselves (Fan, 2005, p.9).

To know parents' responses to language branding and place branding, WhatsApp interviews were conducted to 70 college-educated employees of a foreign company which employs 14 thousand people in East Java, Indonesia, to discover how place branding and language branding influenced their choices for the destinations of their children's overseas studies. Those parents were, among others, doctors, dentists, accountants, lawyers, and engineers. Twenty-six (26) of them preferred the USA, 22 Japan, 12 China, 8 UK, and 2 Thailand. Although USA was still the most favourable destination, expanding circle countries such as Japan, China and Thailand were also preferable, because those countries also provided courses taught in English. Japan was a good option because of its high technology, discipline and politeness, and a lot of Japanese corporations are found in Indonesia. China was an alternative because of the discipline, lower cost, ease to obtain visas, oriental medicine, and business opportunities. Thailand was also an option because of the close distance and business opportunities.

Inner Circle Countries: Education Exports and English

As a matter of fact, all inner circle countries are developed countries with English language environment. International students are attracted to study in inner circle countries because of the English environment, the reputation, standard of living, and the courses to offer. One main activity of internationalisation for them is exporting education to developing countries (Bennell & Pearse, 1998). They even internationalize the curricula and adapt them to the needs of the importing countries. The goal is to keep attracting much greater numbers of foreign students to their campuses. Besides building off-shore campuses, they keep finding university partners in outer and expanding circle countries to set up double degree and twinning programmes. Various kinds of short-term tailored partnership programmes with expanding circle universities are established to generate bench fees and tuitions fees. This promotion has persisted unchallenged, and it has reinforced and strengthened the position and the use of English. This irresistible expansion made Phillipson (2013) give his readers a reminder about the opportunities and the threat of English expansion to HEIs in Europe and many other parts of the world, especially for linguistic and cultural diversity, social and political stability, social engineering, and social class hierarchy.

Top research universities today are still dominated by USA and UK. University rankings have officially made those world-class universities enjoy high level of acceptance. The UK and USA combined have over a third of all international students in the world. When all inner circle countries are combined together they account for around 46% of all international students (Graddol 2006, p.76). In fact, about 70 percent of the world's most prestigious universities in 2015 are still in the inner circle countries, i.e. USA, UK, Canada, and Australia. University rankings have strengthened those countries' nation branding, their position in the HE domain, and the perceived quality of those universities.

In UK English has made a huge contribution to the British economy. This is the reason why Britain continues to support new and long-established British schools and colleges to operate overseas, and to continue to promote ESL training. In the USA, the export of American HEIs becomes more important because of the declining American economy. President Obama emphasized the need of more goods and services to export. Following this policy, one of the targets is to double the export of US education to $26.2 billion for tuition and fees by 2020; about 1.38 million international students will be attracted to US accredited institutions. Presently HE is the US's fifth largest export, and is more important than exporting entertainment such as Film, TV, and arts (Douglas et al, 2013). In 2013 international students contributed about USD 22 billion to the US economy (Farrugia, 2014). In Australia, HEIs contribute at least A$2.0 billion per annum. It is the third largest source of income for the country. The amount exceeds the total value of wheat exports, which have traditionally been one of the country's staple exports. The funds are used to employ staff, to fund research and to invest in new buildings and infrastructure. As reported by the Group of Eight in March 2014, education export also generates significant spill-over benefits including job creation, increased tourism and a key source of skilled migration.

HE Internationalization in Expanding Circle Countries and Short-Term Academic Mobility

According to place branding for HE internationalization, there are two kinds of expanding circle countries. One is the developed, high-income expanding circle countries, and the other is the developing, lower-income expanding ones. The former mainly has a challenge with language branding, but they do not have a problem with place branding, like Japan and European countries. As long as they can cope with language branding, such as setting up programmes in English, they have an advantage to attract international students. The lower income expanding countries have the challenge for both the place and language branding.

To internationalize the students and the academics, however, both types of HEIs of expanding circle countries have to face the linguistic challenge. However short the academic mobility the students and the academics plan to participate in, they have to submit the results of the English proficiency test.

HE Internationalization in the High Income Expanding Circle Countries and in the Developing Ones

According to the IAU 4th Global Survey (2014) the main obstacle for advancing HE internationalization in 131 countries was the limited funding. One reason is because internationalizing a university is almost identical with recruiting students from a wide range of cultures and nationalities (Ritzen, 2004, p.36). The challenge of limited funding faced by developing expanding countries is certainly more intense than the developed ones. The developed expanding countries may not have any problem with their place branding. The only problem they have is to overcome the challenge of language branding. Equipped by their financial advantage, English-Medium Instruction (EMI) programmes can relatively be easy to offer as one of their main strategies (Altbach & Knight, 2007). When they find that they do not have enough English speaking faculty members to teach in English, they can hire lecturers from inner-circle countries to deliver the lessons. They also have more facilities to help their students to develop their English proficiency.

For example, although Japan has its nation brand for the advancement of science and technology, it cannot fully attract international students without offering EMI programmes. Although more Japanese young people speak good English today, the story of Toshihide Maskawa proves that without being equipped with English and having a passport before, one in Japan can be a Noble prize winner for physics. However, to attract more international students to study in Japan, part of Education Ministry’s policy is to encourage universities to begin to offer courses in English. Japanese proficiency is not a requirement any more. Lecturers and professors are trained to teach their classes in English (Hino, 2011).

HEIs in OECD countries also offer their courses in English to attract more international students, and to avoid using a wide range of European languages (Doiz et al., 2011). This trend makes Brumfit (2004) claim that English has become the language of higher education and has replaced Latin. This is also confirmed by UNESCO (Tilak, 2011). Even a country like France, which always domestically safeguards the use of the French language, should consider the use of EMI in HEIs. Salomone (2013), for example, lamented “*The End of French*” in one of her articles, because the French Assembly was about to vote for the legalization of the use of English in French universities. In the Netherlands, more than 75% of their 1,500 international study programmes available are offered in English. The Netherlands has the highest number of postgraduate degrees taught in English. Denmark, the second highest number in Europe, has more than 25 percent of master's degrees taught in English. German HEIs also set up international programmes taught in English medium and provided job opportunities for international students. Without considering the use of English in HEIs, no matter how impressive the quality of the education, the career opportunities, and the socio-cultural environment a country can offer, HEIs cannot be successful enough to attract international students and to raise the profile of the institutions (Doiz et al, 2011).

Most universities in developing expanding countries have to face the challenge of place branding and language branding. In spite of good marketing efforts, even the most ready universities in developing expanding countries have a problem to attract international students. Pajajaran University in Bandung, Indonesia, for example, is mainly successful to attract international students for the medical and pharmacological departments, in spite of its efforts to attract more international students for other departments. One of the main reasons is the high cost of attending medical and pharmacological schools in their countries.

Native-like Proficiency Requirement should not be Stringently Imposed on Applicants for Short-Courses: They are not Absolute Beginners

Basically all academics and students know some English. They are not absolute beginners. Although they may fail to initiate and expand difficult conversation, at least they can understand simplified language, ask and answer questions. They have learned English as a compulsory subject in school through the major part of their schooling years. In some countries students start to learn English from primary school, and in some others from junior high school.

International mobility is believed to enhance academics and students with new ideas and to help them to be more aware of various perspectives of domestic and international issues. Therefore, more funding and grants are provided for international mobility and exchange programmes. However, only a small proportion of HE academics and students can use them, because even short courses, training, seminars and workshops require them to submit their English proficiency test results. This is the linguistic challenge faced by academics and students in expanding circle countries. The impacts of this requirement is that, first, English Department students and teaching staff have more opportunities to participate in international activities as long as they can meet other program requirements. Second, those who have obtained a degree in inner-circle or outer-circle countries have repetitive chances to participate in the mobility. Third, only a small minority coming from elite, upper- and middle class families can apply for the activities, because their parents are wealthy enough to afford enrichment bilingual education programs for their children, or to provide long-standing and intensive tuition in English language teaching centers.

In the mid-1980s HE internationalization was dominated by long-term study abroad. Today, in the 21st century, HE has put more focus on short-term academic mobility. A wide range of international activities are advertised every day (Marginson & Sawir, 2005; Knight, 2008). This paper proposes that the English proficiency requirement for attending short courses or short-term international activities should be different from attending degree programs, because to attend short-courses the participants do not need to make a special adjustment to host country norms and institutions. It is universally agreeable that one of the entry requirements for all applicants to a degree program conducted in English is the submission of internationally-recognized English proficiency test results. This is to ensure that the applicant's English proficiency is sufficient for him to follow lectures, write exam answers and essays, and take part in discussions and seminars. However, there are only less than 1 percent of students and academic staff worldwide planned to study for a complete degree program overseas, and to equip themselves with internationally recognized English Proficiency test results. The rest 99 percent are educated in their home countries. Today, when the acceleration of the internationalization of higher education and research for world rankings and accreditations spurs short-term academic staff and student mobility, the 99 percent home grown staff and students also need to improve themselves through their active participation in international conferences, workshop and training. They might not speak fluent English, but they compensate it with their considerable knowledge. They may have written books and articles containing a great deal of professional values in their own language.

Having an excellent command of English is an unfair requirement for applicants of short-term activities. According to Hakuta et al. (2000) non-native children learning English in the immersion programme in the inner-circle countries need 3 to 5 years to develop their oral proficiency and it takes 4 to 7 years to develop their academic English proficiency. Learning English in expanding circle countries can be a lot harder and take considerable work and full-time study. Students have already had a host of school pressure and time constraints to learn content subjects in a crowded curriculum. No matter how much time is invested, essentially it is very difficult for one to develop high-level competency of two languages. Even balanced bilingual can also be problematic because sometimes a speaker can only have a low level of competence in the two languages.

According to the World Bank (2000) half of today's higher education students live in developing world, and they also have the urgency to participate in HE mobility. They are aspired young people who need to develop their professional knowledge in their own fields of studies. In spite of their limited English, their HE mobility can still inspire their innovativeness to create knowledge and to make patriotic transformation at home.

English has been a lingua franca of the academic world. It is true that native-like proficiency is ideal, but it is not necessary to require all dedicated scholars from expanding circle countries to show a high score of English proficiency test to participate in short-term international activities. All academics and students understand the facilitative role of English in the academic world. Most of them know some skill of reading English textbooks and journal articles. They also have the access to international digital library providers. Even when they have to present a paper—in spite of initial obstacles--through proper practice, rehearsal and prepared notes, they can improve their PowerPoint presentation performance.

Scholars do know some English. They have learned it from primary school. For examples, in Taiwan English is officially compulsory from Grade 3. When they reach universities they have learned English for at least 10 years. In Japan students learn English from Grade 5, in Iran and Indonesia from Grade 7. Totally, they have learned English from 6 to 12 years before they go to universities. When they are in universities English courses are still offered and compulsory for all students. In Indonesia, for example, English courses are offered for at least 1 semester, 2-6 hours a week. In Thailand English is also offered for at least 2 semesters.

That students have the problem of speaking skill is because that the teaching of English is more focused on reading skill. Both in Indonesia and in Thailand English reading skill is taught at least twice as much as the speaking skill. What the academics and students need is a practice to use the language in real oral communication, and the need to overcome the feeling that that they have little command of the language, and suffer from foreign language anxiety syndrome. Actually they may understand sophisticated academic and technical vocabulary in their field of study, and be able to understand basic conversations. However, they have problems when they have to be involved in using high level of proficiency required by those pursuing academic degrees.

If we need to give all academics and students more opportunities to play their roles as citizens of global academic world in spite of their limited English, it is not necessary to use the near-native standard to screen them out. To be involved in short-term international activities they need not have the proficiency to speak with high accuracy and fluency in a lengthy conversation on various topics in formal and informal settings.

English Proficiency Requirements for International Short-Term Academic Activities: Four Types of Conditions

English is used as the main international official language. English proficiency requirement is not only for visiting academic staff and students entering English speaking countries, but also for entering non-English speaking countries, where the people do not speak English themselves in their normal day-to-day activities.

Analyzing the 2015 international short-course academic flyers available online, almost all international short courses require English language skills. This paper classifies four major types of English proficiency requirements specifications: the stated condition, the minimum mandatory/recommended condition, the implied condition, and the ultimate preferential condition, as follows:

(a) The Stated Condition: English proficiency is required to attend a conference but key performance indicators are not defined as the mandatory minimum such as:

- The International Youth Conference 2015 in Pakistan; although a score of English Proficiency Test is not stated, but it is clearly stated that the applicants' level of English proficiency will play a role in the selection process. The complete flyer is available at: http://www.edu-active.com/conferences/2015/ may/28/international-youth-conference-2015-pakistan.htm.
- A 2015 one-week workshop on climate applications for food security conducted in Niamey, Niger; the workshop is conducted by the Abdus Salam International Centre for Theoretical Physics (ICTP), Italy, in collaboration with the AGRHYMET Regional Centre, Niger. The submission of English proficiency test result is not required, but stated, "*All lectures and training sessions will be held in the English language and proficiency in English is a requirement for selection.*"

(b) The Minimum Mandatory/Recommended Condition: Minimum Scores of English proficiency requirements or recommendations are definitively provided. Various short-term international activities require applicants' English proficiency scores. They can vary greatly from Japanese Studies to acting, bioinformatics to agricultural engineering.

- In the Japanese Study course delivered in English, offered by Rikkyo University, for example, non-English native speaker applicant is required to have a TOEFL score of PBT 500 or iBT61 or TOEIC score of 700 or higher. The complete flyer is available at http://english.rikkyo.ac.jp/support/ international/foreigner/ special/programme.
- A score of 89 on the TOEFL New Internet-based is required for the two-month 2015 training in Israel on Agricultural Challenges in a Changing World. The complete flyer is available at http://embassies.gov.il/nairobi /mashav/Documents/ Mashav%202015%20 Course%202.pdf.

Another version is that although a test score is not required, it is still recommended to be submitted. It can be exemplified by the two-week 2015 Frontier Market Scouts Training, Middlebury Institute of International Studies at Monterey. It is stated that "*While test scores are not required, non-native English speaking FMS candidates should be proficient in English to fully benefit from the certificate training,*" It is continued with recommended minimum of TOEFL score: "*Internet-based test: 79, writing sub-score: 23, and no sub-scores below 19*"; available at http://www.miis.edu/academics/ short/frontier-market-scouts.

(c) The Implied condition: The straightforward requirements of English proficiency are not stated, but there is an implied condition as suggested in the paper writing guideline. One example is the requirement of English in the 8th International Conference of the World Council for Psychotherapy Asia 2015 in Kuching, Sarawak, Malaysia. The requirement of English proficiency is not stated, but it is printed, *"Abstract body is limited to 300 words…. Abstracts are to be submitted in English only."* The complete flyer is available at http://counselingmalaysia.com/

(d) The Ultimate Preferential Condition: English proficiency is not written as a required condition, but a higher working skill is expected as indicated by the ultimate preferential result:

- One example is the requirement of English to attend the 2015 International Conference on Learning and Teaching (ICLT 2015), Singapore. English proficiency requirement is not stated, but attractive outcome that requires English proficiency is offered: *"Conference papers can be selected and published according to the paper theme in the following journals: International Journal of Learning and Teaching (IJLT)."* The complete flyer is available at http://www.conferencealerts.com/show-event?id=141513.
- Another example is the ASEAN 2015 International Joint conference on Nursing Science at Chulalongkorn University, organized by Universitas Gadjah Mada, Indonesia, and Chulalongkorn University, Thailand. English proficiency requirement is not stated, but it is stated that *"Committee facilitates publication of full papers in an International Journal indexed by Doaj, Google Scholar, Ulrich Web, Scopemed, index Copernicus. The complete flyer is* available at http://www.inc.nurs. chula.ac.th/

English Proficiency Screening: J-1 Exchange Visa and Grant Applications

The English proficiency requirement for academics and students to participate in short-term international activities is also formalized as one of the requirements for visa and grant application. For instance, J-1 exchange visitor visa to enter the USA is mandatory for all prospective visiting academic staff—short term scholars, research scholars, lecturers and professors. To obtain the visa, an applicant has to complete an English proficiency form, in which they are given the options to demonstrate the results of various recognized tests, i.e. TOEFL-iBT/IELTS/PTE/TOEIC/CAE/CPE/Berlitz test of speaking skills. The minimum required score for TOEFL-iBT is 80, and IELTS is 6.5, which are considered to be the objective and transparent standards to become exchange visitors in the USA.

This requirement is also formalized in the grant or other funding application opportunities, including for activities conducted in non-English speaking countries. One example is the requirement of TOEFL iBT score of 79 or above, for applying for the International Conference Travel Support offered by Kyoto University Asian Studies Unit to young researchers, i.e. students in a doctoral degree programme, post-doctoral research fellows, assistant professors, part-time lecturers, and teaching assistants. The activities are preferably in Asian countries although countries in other continents are also possible.

Short-Term Mobility: Attitude Change toward the Requirement of Idealized Notion of Native-Based Proficiency

International mobility is part of the effort for improving university performance according to the performance indicators issued by university rankings and accreditation agencies. However, if there is a rigid requirement of native-like proficiency, international mobility cannot be optimized. To solve this issue, attitude change is necessary.

Changing the Ideal of the Past

There are many reasons why non-native speakers are expected to speak as correctly as the native speakers. One reason can be traced back to the past. Only the children of the educated and the elite minority received education and spoke English. Historically, in India and in many places in the world, English proficiency is a measure of socio-economic status, intelligence, and a source of pride. Later, initiated by the Ford Foundation and the Danforth Foundation starting from 1964, all non-native speakers of English should successfully pass the TOEFL to obtain the post-war scholarships. English is always associated with the educated and has to be spoken correctly. In Indonesia, for example, Balinese vendors along Seminyak Beach and Kuta Beach are always successful to use English for making transactions, but their pidginized English is regarded as a variety of lower degree which will not be spoken by educated people, and will not be used by learners in school.

The customary aspiration of speaking like the native speaker is one of the reasons why learners of English are always judged to fail to speak English. In Japan, for example, where culturally people are not supposed to make mistakes or being embarrassed in public, the expectation of correctness makes learners not to try to speak the language.

Learning Goals: Focus on Oral Communication and Vocabulary Development

English is taught in expanding circle countries because of its functional role such as in education, business and scientific exchanges. Therefore, the learning and teaching of English in formal educational institutions should primarily lead to academic and occupational purposes, although it starts from social English of everyday communication. Occupational English, which covers the students' knowledge in content areas, is the skill emphasized by the US Department of Labour as the essential skills for career development in the 21st century; that is how to effectively research, conceptualize, organize and present ideas and arguments.

One reason why the teaching of English in expanding circle countries does not help learners to speak was because vocabulary was not properly taught and learned as a productive skill. General Service vocabulary alone is not enough for Academic English. Students need to develop their academic and technical vocabulary, as well. Also, vocabulary is not identical with the collection of individual words. It includes idioms, proverbs, expanded phrases, and lexico-grammatical units that students have to internalise as individual items. One effective way to teach a foreign language is lexically-based (Kweldju, 2004).

Another main reason why students were hesitant and lost to speak is because oral communication was not the focus of the teaching of English. As a matter of fact, oral language is a major platform from which literacy skills develop for interaction, transaction and performance. Without giving a greater focus on oral communication and developing students' oral skills at the initial stage, students will experience the frustration of the feeling that after learning English for 10 years, they cannot use the language in a real situation. Students in expanding circle countries usually have sufficient reading skill but they may fail in using the language for loosely structured discussions.

In the past the focus of foreign language teaching was to improve reading skill, and later it was shifted to the four skills which were taught in a balance. Regarding the former, the way English was taught was more for the convenience of the institutions or the instructors, than for the outcome or the success of the course. This is mainly because in the past there were limited resources for oral English, and students had a lack of opportunities to be exposed to oral English. Today video sharing websites, such as YouTube, online videos, and other internet-based resources and children's e-books provide students with abundant supply of resources to help them develop their oral communication skills.

Because of time constraint, all skills cannot be taught in a good balance, and priority has to be made. Since it has been well documented that oral language has an important role in the development of literacy skills (Scarborough, 1998), oral communication skills should be used as a good grounding for the teaching of the overall oral and written communication skills in a better balance. Ugla et al. (2013), for example, also stress the importance for shifting the focus of the teaching of English to oral communication before students were exposed to the integrated four language skills. It does not mean, however, that written form should be completely absent from the classroom, because oracy in the classroom does not develop in a vacuum. It is still inextricably intertwined with the other language skills (LeLoup & Ponterio, 2005). Another priority to make is what aspect of oral skills to be developed first and in which context. It is hardly the case that one can make his both languages well developed across various contexts. Singapore—an outer circle country—for example, although generally all Singaporeans are fluent speakers of English, only 20 percent (at least) are expected to attain a high degree of proficiency in English, They belong to the tier which is not different from the best speakers in the English speaking countries (Ministry of Education, Singapore, 2010). Rarely will a bilingual be equally competent across all situations (Fishman, 1971). To select what is more useful and urgent to teach, Academic English for presentation can be the first priority to teach.

The oral communication focus must be implemented as early and as frequent as possible both for daily conversational and academic related aspects of language competence. Show and tell activities which are common in first language learning are very useful for both children and adults to learn English as a foreign language. When students cannot bring in the real objects to the classroom, they can bring the pictures or they can use power point slides. Older children and adults usually like to share their experience and ideas instead of showing special items. They can use posters or videos to demonstrate their most recent progress or developments.

Developing Academic Skills for Mobility

To prepare students to be involved in academic mobility, oral presentation skills should be the focus of the teaching of English in expanding circle countries, before a better balance of all four skills of English are taught to the students. Mahfoodh (2014) discovered that oral presentation skills in English were one of the main challenges faced by international students in Malaysian Universities.

Even English Department students still need a lot of improvement in their oral academic skills such as oral class presentation. Kawasaki (2008), for example, discovered that 95 percent of the English Department students in Thailand had poor presentation skills. Cheng et al. (2004) showed that the most difficult but important skills for non-English speaking students in Canadian Universities were—according to the order of difficulty: (a) giving talks, seminars and presentations, (b) leading class discussions, (c) participating in class discussions (d) discussing issues with peers in small-group discussions, collaborative projects, or out of the class study group, (e) understanding classroom interactions, and (f) understanding small group discussions.

At the HE level the teaching of English should be focused on what is important but procedurally too difficult for students to learn without teachers' special guidance in academic environment, such as the need to learn how to research, to express their opinion, to provide evidence, to interpret and to provide current, accurate and relevant information. This skill is not easy to attain, especially when students are prepared for international academic activities which may cover a wide range of topics and subjects.

Through this process they can also discover their individual long-term goals, priorities and experiences that they want to pursue, and what they are really interested in and are good at. The teaching of academic English, then, will truly establish self-sufficiency and independence to help students to solve local problems that interest them, and develop their oral communication skills to internationalize themselves. The curriculum that guides students to learn independently this way is called by Ananyeva (2014) as the student-driven ESL curriculum. Pigeonholing students to one activity without considering students' long term goals and interest cannot help them to participate in the rapid-changing world. Student-driven learning revolves around identifying problems that they believe are important to solve and creatively find ways to solve them.

Conclusion

Most of the top global universities in the world rankings are located in countries and cities which are well-known for their country brands and place brands. Mostly they belong to Kachruvian inner circle countries, which operate in English. University branding is inextricably intertwined with English. Developed expanding circle countries like Germany, The Netherlands, and Japan, which have developed their place brands, should still offer programmes and courses in English to attract international students. As reported by the 70

Indonesian respondents, there was no more concern for them as to which country the children wanted to study, even to the expanding circle ones, because outstanding universities in the world offer courses and programmes in English. Place is a brand, but it is insufficient to attract international students. Regarding this, this paper coins the term language branding which is used as a strategy in HE internationalization.

Internationalization for inner circle universities is similar to education export which significantly contributes to their economy. In contrast, it is a cash outflow for developing expanding circle countries, especially for building a great deal of collaborations with well-known universities in the world, and for promoting mobility for their academics and students. However, only to participate in short-term academic mobility, the academics and students have to submit the results of their English proficiency tests. This paper proposes that unlike for those who are pursuing a degree, it should be unnecessary for those who plan to participate in short term academic mobility to submit their English proficiency test results. Actually they know some English. English is taught in all schooling systems in the world. Generally they have learned English from 6 to 12 years before entering universities, and continue learning it for a few years at universities. They can be intelligent and established faculty members who can function very well in their own mother tongues. When strict selection based on English proficiency level is enforced for participating in short-term activities, this will widen the class disparity of universities in the world, because it is more likely the same few scholars can repeatedly take advantage of the mobility programmes. Change of attitude is a step to solve the problem.

Analysing the 2015 international short-course academic flyers available online, the English proficiency requirement for academic short courses seems to be prevalent. There are four major types of specifications: the stated condition, the mandated condition, the implied condition and the ultimate preferential condition. The English proficiency screening is also administered to an exchange scholar, lecturer or professor to obtain USA J-1 Exchange visa.

Another solution is to improve the way how the language is taught. English is taught in expanding circle countries for its importance in science, technology and business. With respect to this goal, the focus of the teaching of English should be on oral communication first before it shifts to the integrated four skills. Fluency must come before accuracy, and English should be taught lexically-based. As students are prepared to participate in international mobility, the teaching of English at the tertiary level should be focused on developing the students' oral presentation skills, and the instruction should be student-driven.

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The Relationship Among Students' Spontaneous L2 Utterances, Uptake, and Interaction in Class: A Study of a Corpus Approach

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Abstract

This study examined the relationship among students' spontaneous second language (L2) utterances, uptake, and interaction in class when a corpus approach to teaching English is used. The materials for the analyses are based on: a) a part of the classroom corpora compiled by Ohashi (2014); and b) uptake data gathered from participating students completing a student uptake questionnaire. Correlation and regression analyses identified a close relationship between the students' spontaneous L2 utterances and the teachers' L2 feedback. Following on from the results of this study, further investigations were undertaken to determine whether the amount of students' uptake varied according to the amount of teacher feedback given. Kruskal-Wallis H tests and Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted to compare students' uptake among classes where the amount of feedback from the teachers was different. The results indicated that the more feedback given by the teachers, the more English sentences students tended to remember. Qualitative considerations showed that the feedback with teachers' scaffolding as well as students' collaboration might possibly help students to spontaneously speak up.

Key words**:** feedback, interaction, students' spontaneous L2 utterances, corpus

Introduction

The importance of global communication in English has been discussed and consequently more attention has been paid to the application of better methods for teaching English. One of the aims of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology-Japan is to foster more Japanese people capable of using English and communicating well in a globalized society. To communicate well using English, junior and senior high school students are required to learn to speak up in class using practical knowledge. However, they tend to be passive about speaking up in class. Observing the classroom corpus compiled by Ohashi (2014), the token of students' initiated talk is low and the amount of teacher talk is much larger than students' talk, which means that even now, speaking English in classes is mostly initiated by teachers. If students are expected to communicate in English internationally, they need to learn to actively utter the target language in class so that they can practice communicating in English. Thus, this study explored what can contribute to an increase in the students' spontaneous second language (L2) utterances through interaction in class when a corpus approach is used.

Literature Review

The possibilities of connecting corpus techniques with language education are pointed out in Ishikawa (2008) and Akano, Hori, and Tono (2014). Ohashi (2014) implied that the context in the classroom influences students' learning and showed the classroom context by corpus approach. The contextual factors are: teacher talk; student talk; interactions; activities; and languages. Teacher talk is comprised of teachers' core utterances in class such as grammar explanation or instruction, and discourse functions involving feedback, questions, and directions. If the teachers and students share the same native language (L1), native language, teachers tend to use both languages.

Ellis and Shintani (2014) stated that 'teaching speaking' is closely related to interaction, which implies that interactions occurring in class have a role in students' speaking. With reference to Ellis (2015), Figure 1 shows the structure of what is happening after interactions occur. Interactionally-modified input occurs “when learners signal their failure to comprehend – for example, by requesting clarification – the input may be modified to accommodate them” (Ellis, 2015, p.145). Through this process of interaction, the teachers try to simplify their own instruction so that the learners can comprehend the instruction. Additionally, Ellis (2015) stated that learners are given the opportunity to speak up in the course of interaction. Their output is unmodified if there are no signs of the learners’ attempt to modify their own utterances. Modified output, Ellis explains, “often occurs following some kind of feedback” (2015, p.145).

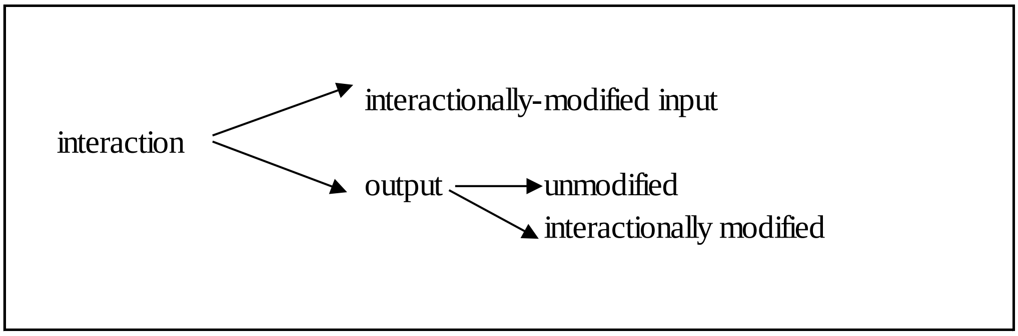

Figure 1. Interaction constructs that Ellis (2015) introduced.
Adapted from “Understanding Second Language Acquisition,” by Ellis. R., 2015, p.144.

Rhonda and Philp (2014) described interaction in class as a vital part in pedagogy. They introduced features of interactions contributing to students’ learning. Showing the examples of interaction that actually happened in class, Rhonda and Philp (2014) pointed out the importance of students’ scaffolding for their learning. Swain (2005) also highlights the importance of students’ collaboration as a source of pushing each other to express themselves correctly in the target language. Gass and Mackey (2007) defined the process of learners’ learning through interaction as an “Interaction Approach”. In this approach, as learners are given input, they engage in interaction and receive feedback, and they are helped to produce output. As Gass and Mackey (2007) stated, interactions in class involve teachers’ feedback, which is classified by Ellis (2009) as ‘positive feedback’ and ‘negative feedback’. According to Ellis (2009), positive feedback affirms learners’ response, such as ‘good’ or ‘great.’ Positive feedback provides affective support for the learners but it is said to be ambiguous. On the other hand, negative feedback can signal that the learners' statements have errors and provide opportunities to correct their statements. Ellis (2009) described negative feedback by teachers as techniques contributing to language learning. Negative feedback types are explained by Ellis (2008) as negotiating strategies. They are: a) request for clarification; b) confirmation check; c) recast; d) repetition; e) metalinguistic feedback; f) elicitation; and g) explicit correction. Request for clarification, confirmation check, recast, and repetition are described as implicit feedback types, while others are explicit feedback types. Using these strategies, teachers can provide input or promote output from students. Table 1 shows the negotiation strategies and description of each type introduced by Ellis (2008).

Table 1

Negotiation Strategies Introduced by Ellis (2008)

Negotiation strategy	Description	Implicit / Explicit	Negotiation type
Request for clarification	An utterance that elicits clarification of the preceding utterance	implicit	output-prompting
Confirmation check	An utterance immediately following the previous speaker's utterance intended to confirm that the utterance was understood.	implicit	input-providing
Recast	An utterance that rephrases the learner's utterance by changing one or more components	implicit	input-providing
Repetition	An utterance that repeats the learner's erroneous utterance highlighting the error.	implicit	output-prompting
Metalinguistic feedback	An utterance that provides grammatical comments, information, or question to the learners' utterances	explicit	output-prompting
Elicitation	A question aimed at eliciting the correct form after a learner has produced an erroneous utterance	explicit	output-prompting
Explicit correction	An utterance that provides the learner with correct form	explicit	output-prompting

Ohashi (2013) examined what type of corrective feedback can facilitate students' talking. The results implied that teachers' elicitation and confirmation check facilitated students' L2 speaking the most, supporting Walsh's (2002) statements that confirmation facilitates students' utterances. Although these studies focus on the interactions between teachers and students, few studies focus on the entire classroom context which could be the factors of eliciting students' speaking the L2.

There is a variation in the classroom context among classes (Ohashi, 2014) and the amount of each contextual factor might influence learners' attitudes as well as their speaking opportunities. As Rhonda and Philp stated, "some teachers may not like their students talking during class time, others will actively plan for students to talk as part of their lessons" (Rhonda & Philp, 2014, p. 3). Observing students' learning attitudes in Ohashi's (2014) study and comparing these with an earlier study by Kaneko's (1991), which involved classroom observation, Japanese students' passive attitudes still remain, although in some classes, students' initiation was seen. Students' participation is what should be noted in class for learning (Kaneko, 1991; Scrivener, 2005; Mohr and Mohr, 2007). Referring to Weaver and Qi, "students who actively participate in the learning process learn more than those who do not" (2005, p.570). It is important to examine what kind of approach, or which type of input, can help students get motivated to speak up in class. Thus, to explore what kind of input, especially interactions, can actually help students speak up in class, this study conducted quantitative as well as qualitative research making use of the corpus compiled by Ohashi (2014). A classroom corpus provides classroom data such as a whole amount of utterances seen in class, making it possible to conduct a variety of studies such as examining the relationship between students' understanding and the classroom context. Based on the compiled corpus, Ohashi (2015) suggested that teachers should use the target language more because it can facilitate students' vocabulary uptake and sentence uptake. Following the results of that study, an examination was undertaken of the difference in uptake quantity according to the features of input in the classroom context, which influence students' spontaneous L2 speaking.

The term 'uptake' has several definitions. For example, the learners' moves or responses after having feedback are described as 'uptake' (Ellis, 2008; Lyster & Ranta, 1997). 'Uptake' used in the present study refers to Allwright's (1984) and Kaneko's (1991) definition, which means what students claim to have learned after class.

This study aimed to investigate the following two research questions (RQs) by the corpus approach.

RQ 1: What can facilitate students' spontaneous L2 utterances in class?

RQ 2: Does the amount of students' uptake vary according to the factors that influence the amount of students' spontaneous L2 utterances?

Method

This study is based on: a) some elements of the classroom corpora compiled by Ohashi (2014); and b) uptake data gathered from participating students completing a students' uptake questionnaire. The numbers of tokens in the compiled classroom corpora were used for the analysis. Ohashi (2014) recorded twenty-two EFL (English as a foreign language) classes in Japan and transcribed all those classes. All the utterances in the transcription were classified into the same category, which constitutes classroom context. Those categories include teachers' L1, L2 utterances, and mixed utterances as well as students' L1 or L2 utterances. Each of those utterances also have the subcategories: 'read aloud'; 'translation'; 'explanation'; 'presentation'; 'practice'; 'warm up'; and 'others.' There are ensuing subcategories comprised of 'question'; 'response'; 'feedback'; 'direction'; and 'repetition.' Each utterance has tags attached depending on the type of utterance. Figure 2 shows an example of tagged utterances. All the utterances were compiled into classroom corpus in Ohashi (2014). Tables 2 and 3 show the tokens used for the analysis of the present study referred from Ohashi's classroom corpora.

To count the tokens of each utterance, the freeware corpus analysis tools, AntConc, Version 3.4.3. (Anthony, 2014); and KH Coder, introduced in Higuchi (2014) were used. AntConc was used to count the tokens of English utterances and KHCoder was used to count the tokens of Japanese utterances. Because the author hoped to use a variety of tools, these different tools were used to count English utterances and Japanese utterances.

```
<direction>
<teacher>
<eng>
<s>ok, let's make pairs. Ok, practice these, 3 minutes.</s>
</eng>
</teacher>
</direction>
<student>
<eng>
<s>can you read?</s>
<s>yes, I can.</s>
<s>Can you swim?</s>
<s>yes, I can.</s>
<s>can you speak Japanese?</s>
<s>yes, I can.</s>
<s>Can you write?</s>
<s>yes, I can.</s>
</eng>
</student>
```

Figure 2. Example of tagged utterances.

In the context of classroom corpus, the teachers' L2 utterances token; the teachers' mixed utterances token; the teachers' L1 utterances token; the teachers' question utterances token; and teachers' feedback utterances token were extracted to explore what can facilitate students' spontaneous L2 utterances.

Because the purpose of this study was to examine which type of utterance can facilitate students' spontaneous L2 speaking, this study used the tokens of 'spontaneous' L2 utterances both from teachers and students for the analysis. Thus, reading aloud, repetition utterances tokens were extracted from the teachers' and students' total L2 utterances because in 'read aloud' activity, students and teachers were just reading sentences written in the textbook and those utterances do not occur in natural conversation. Table 4 shows the tokens used for the analysis. Overall total tokens, which were not used for the analysis, cover both spontaneous and nonspontaneous utterances. Tokens of each category in teacher talk shown in Table 4 were used to explore what can account for students' spontaneous L2 utterances as a dependent variable. The tokens of teachers' L2, L1 and mixed utterances; teachers' feedback; and teachers' question were used as independent variables.

Regarding the students' uptake, the author asked the teachers of the twenty- two classes involved in the study to have students fill in the uptake questionnaire sheet after each class. To examine students' uptake quantity, students were required to write their answers in three parts: a) write the vocabulary you think you learned in class; b) write the sentences you learned in class and remember after class; and c) write the grammar points you think you learned in class. The total numbers of words or sentences written in each question were counted as vocabulary uptake, sentence uptake, and grammar uptake.

Table 5 shows the example of a part of an excel sheet used to count the frequency of students' uptake in one class. There were thirty-three students in this class. Table 5 shows the data of eight out of thirty-three students and it shows the number of vocabulary, sentence and grammar points that students wrote in the questionnaire sheet, which was counted as uptake frequency. For example, as student number one wrote five words as vocabulary uptake, the corresponding number in vocabulary uptake frequency is 5. For the analysis, total uptake numbers of all students in each class were used. Regarding students' uptake, Ohashi (2014) conducted 'uptake check tests' and showed that what students wrote as their uptake turned out to be their learning. Also, what students wrote correlated with what they understood.

Table 2
Type and Token of Direction, Question, Feedback, Response, and Initiation in Junior High School Classes

			Overall Totals		Read aloud		Direction		Question		Feedback		Response		Student initiation	
	Speaker	Language	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token
Junior Class 1	Teacher	English	530	1269	96	363	182	398	68	122	29	49	1	1	0	0
	Student	English	203	803	92	454	0	0	1	2	0	0	39	76	0	0
	CD	English	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	136	263	0	0	25	34	28	38	5	5	2	2	0	0
	Student	Japanese	64	93	0	0	0	0	6	6	0	0	13	15	0	0
	Teacher	mix	173	314	0	0	0	0	21	29	11	13	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Junior Class 2	Teacher	English	224	660	80	356	70	128	36	76	11	12	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	94	514	45	393	0	0	0	0	0	0	38	75	0	0
	CD	English	25	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	171	258	0	0	34	44	49	63	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	32	37	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	17	0	0
	Teacher	mix	41	49	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Junior Class 3	Teacher	English	74	102	15	22	4	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	38	51	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	CD	English	182	632	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	396	1403	0	0	87	128	45	53	0	0	18	20	0	0
	Student	Japanese	43	46	0	0	0	0	7	7	0	0	30	33	7	7
	Teacher	mix	137	192	0	0	8	8	32	35	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Junior Class 4	Teacher	English	678	1407	2	2	186	532	126	277	50	73	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	147	460	48	124	0	0	0	0	0	0	167	277	0	0
	CD	English	164	610	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	372	726	0	0	29	40	21	28	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	3	4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	mix	153	248	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Junior Class 5	Teacher	English	246	628	96	284	33	46	13	25	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	163	453	92	333	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	0	0
	CD	English	20	25	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	370	949	0	0	91	155	81	129	10	15	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	40	71	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	24	25	0	0
	Teacher	mix	119	192	0	0	30	38	0	0	17	17	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Junior Class 6	Teacher	English	586	1342	66	235	192	426	77	159	13	13	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	158	493	107	318	0	0	2	2	0	0	21	30	5	5
	CD	English	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	199	441	0	0	64	95	35	51	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	91	143	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	25	0	0
	Teacher	mix	155	274	0	0	36	52	31	38	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Junior Class 7	Teacher	English	187	591	65	360	60	96	28	58	0	0	8	8	0	0
	Student	English	92	608	46	527	0	0	8	8	0	0	15	37	2	2
	CD	English	25	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	154	188	0	0	25	28	25	32	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	27	31	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	19	22	0	0
	Teacher	mix	47	65	0	0	0	0	32	59	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Junior Class 8	Teacher	English	32	35	0	0	14	14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	10	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	CD	English	230	557	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	435	609	0	0	84	120	39	49	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	29	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	12	0	0
	Teacher	mix	145	193	0	0	0	0	65	79	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Note. Type = a word form; Token = an occurrence of any given word.

(continued)

	Speaker	Language	Overall Totals		Read aloud		Direction		Question		Feedback		Response		Student initiation	
			Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token
Junior Class 9	Teacher	English	591	1372	9	13	161	479	125	298	33	60	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	273	498	59	160	0	0	0	0	0	0	81	111	0	0
	CD	English	120	421	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	320	703	0	0	34	46	10	10	5	5	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	mix	135	222	0	0	0	0	7	7	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Junior Class 10	Teacher	English	211	402	22	42	11	11	67	166	10	17	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	78	242	31	171	0	0	0	0	0	0	22	70	0	0
	CD	English	42	174	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	455	922	0	0	152	337	83	153	7	13	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	29	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	20	21	0	0
	Teacher	mix	81	152	0	0	0	0	14	17	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Junior Class 11	Teacher	English	685	1591	59	167	165	457	151	332	39	60	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	375	643	47	82	0	0	0	0	0	0	93	146	0	0
	CD	English	112	421	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	391	879	0	0	20	25	8	10	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	mix	140	232	0	0	11	17	0	0	8	8	0	0	0	0
	Student	mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

Table 3
Type and Token of Direction, Question, Feedback, Response, and Initiation in Senior High School Classes

	Speaker	Language	Overall Totals		Read aloud		Direction		Question		Feedback		Response		Student initiation	
			Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token
Senior Class 1	Teacher	English	138	262	92	152	11	19	15	15	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	120	197	92	152	0	0	0	0	0	0	4	4	5	5
	CD	English	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	599	1229	0	0	54	72	139	231	31	36	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	54	65	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	47	55	0	0
	Teacher	Mix	191	370	0	0	0	0	39	59	6	6	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	3	0	0
Senior Class 2	Teacher	English	51	51	22	22	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	120	252	28	47	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	CD	English	109	555	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	194	410	0	0	62	115	11	11	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	11	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Mix	95	151	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senior Class 3	Teacher	English	343	696	99	212	26	28	30	55	11	13	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	81	170	24	54	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	9	0	0
	CD	English	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	614	1817	0	0	124	215	104	158	11	11	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	60	114	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	12	12	0	0
	Teacher	Mix	91	160	0	0	15	15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senior Class 4	Teacher	English	755	1993	212	615	71	133	126	216	36	47	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	417	1991	208	1567	0	0	0	0	0	0	67	87	0	0
	CD	English	205	390	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	21	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	32	44	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senior Class 5	Teacher	English	174	438	15	33	17	22	33	57	21	32	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	59	108	17	33	0	0	0	0	0	0	21	32	0	0
	CD	English	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	813	1781	0	0	71	115	90	175	1	1	10	14	0	0
	Student	Japanese	33	48	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Mix	128	228	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

(continued)

			Overall Totals		Read aloud		Direction		Question		Feedback		Response		Student initiation	
	Speaker	Language	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token	Type	Token
Senior Class 6	Teacher	English	821	2191	232	618	102	199	129	309	76	106	50	63	0	0
	Student	English	368	2760	232	1904	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	CD	English	226	445	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	8	9	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	22	32	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senior Class 7	Teacher	English	36	74	0	0	0	0	0	0	5	5	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	24	27	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	15	18	0	0
	CD	English	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	469	1362	0	0	36	65	37	68	1	1	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	36	47	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	16	0	0
	Teacher	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senior Class 8	Teacher	English	47	77	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	26	26	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	17	21	0	0
	CD	English	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	418	1184	0	0	54	106	29	43	8	10	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	11	11	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	8	8	0	0
	Teacher	Mix	44	55	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senior Class 9	Teacher	English	420	1226	112	178	60	80	128	279	6	7	45	73	0	0
	Student	English	160	349	103	228	0	0	1	1	0	0	28	32	0	0
	CD	English	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	577	1344	0	0	45	65	60	70	0	0	46	62	0	0
	Student	Japanese	95	144	0	0	0	0	26	49	0	0	16	16	7	8
	Teacher	Mix	76	116	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senior Class 10	Teacher	English	380	654	86	138	29	39	94	187	18	22	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	169	389	91	273	0	0	0	0	0	0	44	65	0	0
	CD	English	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	628	1160	0	0	95	154	113	177	10	15	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	184	255	0	0	0	0	25	28	0	0	37	54	0	0
	Teacher	Mix	75	96	0	0	8	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Senior Class 11	Teacher	English	232	534	232	529	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	English	349	1260	349	1260	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	CD	English	129	204	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Japanese	365	658	0	0	158	340	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Japanese	193	351	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Teacher	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
	Student	Mix	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0

The analyses were conducted in two phases. In each phase, different materials were used for the analysis. In the first phase, tokens gained from the compiled corpora were used. The first analysis was to explore what can facilitate students' spontaneous utterances. Using the token figures gained by the corpus, correlation analysis and regression analysis were conducted. In the second phase, students' uptake frequency was used. Kruskal-Wallis H nonparametric tests were conducted to explore the difference in the amount of students' uptake, depending on the amount of input types that facilitate students' spontaneous L2 utterances.

Table 4

Tokens of Items in Junior and Senior High School Classes Used for the Analysis

		JH1	JH2	JH3	JH4	JH5	JH6	JH7	JH8	JH9	JH10	JH11	SH1	SH2	SH3	SH4	SH5	SH6	SH7	SH8	SH9	SH10	SH11
Overall totals	Teachers' L2	1269	660	102	1407	628	1342	591	35	1372	402	1591	262	51	696	1993	438	2191	74	77	1226	654	534
	Students' L2	803	514	51	460	453	493	608	11	498	242	643	197	252	170	1991	108	2760	27	26	349	389	1260
Dependent variable	Students' spontaneous L2 utterances	349	121	51	336	120	175	81	11	338	71	561	45	205	116	424	75	856	27	26	121	389	0
Independent variables	Teachers' spontaneous L2 utterances	906	304	80	1405	344	1107	231	35	1359	360	1424	110	29	484	1378	435	1573	74	77	1048	516	5
	Teachers' L1 utterances	263	258	1403	726	949	441	188	609	703	922	879	1229	410	1817	26	1781	9	1362	1184	1344	1160	658
	Teachers' mix utterances	314	49	192	248	192	274	65	193	222	152	232	370	151	160	0	228	0	0	55	116	96	0
	Teachers' L2 feedback	49	12	0	73	0	13	0	0	60	17	60	0	0	13	47	32	106	5	0	7	22	0
	Teachers' L2 question	122	76	0	277	25	159	58	0	298	166	332	15	0	55	216	57	309	0	0	279	187	0

JH = Junior high school class; SH = Senior high school class.

Table 5

A Part of Excel Sheet from Senior High School Class 1

student ID	Vocabulary uptake	Sentence uptake	Grammar uptake	Vocabulary uptake frequency	Sentence uptake frequency	Grammar uptake frequency
1	spin, playground, complete, axis, equator	He does love old women.	関係代名詞非限定用法 強調のdo, does	5	1	2
2	actually		強調のdo, does	1	0	1
3	pole	He does love old women.	関係代名詞非限定用法 強調のdo, does	1	1	1
4	right, on the other hand, distance		強調のdo, does	3	0	1
5	spin, playground, though, ride, complete, notice		強調のdo, does	6	0	1
6	actually, North pole, South pole, fling	the earth did spin	強調のdo, does	4	1	1
7	notice, North pole		関係代名詞非限定用法 強調のdo, does	2	0	1
8	fling, distance, pole, right	No matter where we are, we can know the position.	強調のdo, does	4	1	1

Correlation and regression analyses were chosen to examine the relationship between students' spontaneous utterances and teachers' input types, and also to examine what can actually influence students’ speaking up among those teachers’ input types. The author also wanted to compare the difference in students’ uptake amount among the classes with different amounts of teachers’ input, which is considered one of the variables eliciting students’ spontaneous L2 utterances. Nonparametric tests were chosen with the results of normality tests (p =.000), which indicated that all students’ uptake data (vocabulary, sentence, and grammar uptake) were non-normal in distribution.

Results

Correlation and Regression Analyses Results

Correlation analysis and regression analysis were conducted using the token numbers of dependent and independent variables in Table 4 to explore what can mostly facilitate students’ spontaneous L2 utterances. Table 6 shows the relationship between students’ L2 utterances and teachers’ input types observed from correlation analysis.

On the one hand, positive correlations were seen between students’ L2 utterances and teachers’ spontaneous L2 utterances, teachers’ L2 feedback, and teachers’ questions in the L2. On the other hand, negative correlation was seen with teachers’ L1 utterances. This implies that the more teachers use the L1, the less students tend to utter the target language spontaneously. Following these results, stepwise regression analysis was done to examine whether types of teachers’ input which showed the positive correlation could be the factors influencing students’ spontaneous L2 utterances.

Table 7 shows the regression analysis results. Stepwise regression excludes variables that have little effects on the dependent variable, that is, students’ spontaneous L2 utterances. As a result, four variables were excluded: the teachers’ spontaneous L2 utterances; the teachers’ mixed utterances; the teachers’ L1 utterances; and the teachers’ questions given in the L2. The table also shows that the predictor, that is, the teachers' L2 feedback, accounted for the significant amount of the dependent variable, students' spontaneous L2 utterances by

78 % (*R2* = .78, *F* (1, 20) = 76.47, *p* < .001). The results imply that teachers' feedback given in the L2 mostly influences students' spontaneous L2 utterances. While a strong correlation between teachers' L2 utterances and students' spontaneous L2 utterances was observed, regression analysis results showed that the amount of the teachers' L2 utterances was not a predictor. The results could imply that even though students are exposed to a significant amount of the teachers' L2 utterances, teachers' L2 utterances with little amount of feedback might fail to elicit students' L2 utterances.

Table 6

Correlation Between Students' L2 Utterances and Input Types

Scale	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Students' spontaneous L2 utterances	-					
2. Teachers' spontaneous L2 utterances	.827**	-				
3. Teachers' mixed utterances	.091	.237	-			
4. Teachers' L1 utterances	-.449*	-.208	.220	-		
5. Teachers' feedback	.763**	.883**	.168	-.214	-	
6. Teachers' questions in the L2	.810**	.934**	.127	-.296	.841**	-

** *p* <.01 (2-tailed).
* *p* <.05 (2-tailed).

Table 7

Stepwise Regression Analysis Results

	B	*SE B*	β	*t*	*p*	R^2
Teachers' L2 feedback	6.4	.731	.890	8.745	.000	.782
Teachers' Spontaneous L2 Utterances	-.001	.132	-.004	-.010	.992	
Teachers' mixed Utterances	-.149	.217	-.075	-.685	.503	
Teachers' L1Utterances	-.060	.046	-.150	-1.298	.213	
Teachers' L2 question	.337	.514	.188	.656	.521	

Dependent variable: Students' Spontaneous L2 Utterances.

Students' Uptake Influenced by Teachers' Feedback

The correlation and regression analyses results showed that the amount of students' spontaneous L2 utterances were influenced by teachers' L2 feedback. The second purpose of this study was to examine whether the amount of students' uptake varies depending on the variable that mostly influences students' spontaneous L2 utterances. Therefore, nonparametric tests were done to examine whether the amount of the students' uptake is different depending on the amount of the teachers' L2 feedback. First, all twenty-two classes (see Table 4) were classified into three groups. Classes with a large amount of the teachers' feedback are Group 1; classes with no feedback are in Group 2; and classes with little amount of feedback are included in Group 3. Tables 8 and 9 show descriptions of all groups. Each student's vocabulary, sentence, and grammar uptakes were counted in all groups (following the way shown in Table 5) and Kruskal-Wallis H tests were conducted to compare uptake amount among the groups. While there was no significant difference in vocabulary uptake among three groups (H =.620, χ^2 (2, N = 534) = .620, p =.734), differences were seen in both sentence uptake and grammar uptake, (H =. 76.240, χ^2 (2, N = 534) = 76.24, p = .000; H =. 26.538, χ^2 (2, N = 534) = 26.54, p = .000).

Following these results, Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted in order to observe between which groups differences exist in sentence and grammar uptake. Table 10 shows the results. For sentence uptake, significant differences were observed between groups 1 and 2 (Z = -8.161, p = <. 01) and between groups 1 and 3 (Z = -7.233, p = <.01), while no statistical differences were seen between groups 2 and 3 (Z = -1.076, p = .282). The results signify that the amount of sentence uptake in group 1, classes with a large amount of feedback, was larger than other two groups. About grammar uptake, statistical differences were also seen between groups 1 and 2 (Z = -4.667, p = <. 01) and between groups 1 and 3 (Z = -4.647, p = <.01), while no significant differences were seen between groups 2 and 3 (Z = -.041, p = .967).

Table 8

Class Classification for the Analysis

	Group 1	Group 2	Group 3
Junior high school	Classes 1, 4, 9, 11	Classes 3, 5, 7, 8	Classes 2, 6, 10
Senior high school	Classes 4, 6	Classes 1, 2, 8,11	Classes 3, 5, 7, 9, 10

Group 1: Classes with a large amount of feedback; Group 2: Classes with no feedback; Group 3: Classes with little feedback.

Table 9
Group Description

Uptake	Group	*n*	*M*
Vocablary uptake	Group 1	123	260.69
	Group 2	200	265.29
	Group 3	211	273.56
Sentence uptake	Group 1	123	365.39
	Group 2	200	230.55
	Group 3	211	245.46
Grammar uptake	Group 1	123	211.70
	Group 2	200	284.07
	Group 3	211	284.33

Group 1: largest feedback; Group 2: no feedback; Group 3: little feedback.

Table 10

Mann-Whitney U Tests Results

	Group 1 and 2	Group 1 and 3	Group 2 and 3
Sentence uptake	U = 6062, p = .000, r = -.46	U = 7174, p = .000, r = -.40	U = 19947, p = .282, r = -.05
Grammar uptake	U = 8943, p = .000, r = -.26	U = 9469.5, p = .000, r = -.26	U = 21056, p = .967, r = -.02

Group 1: classes with largest feedback; Group 2: classes with no feedback; Group 3: classes with little feedback.

Looking back the results implied by Ohashi (2015), students' uptake amount is influenced by the main language used by the teachers. Considering the language variable that could influence students' uptake, the author picked up classes where the main language used by the teachers was the same and reexamined whether students' uptakes vary depending on teachers' feedback amount with the same way and same procedures. Then, to exclude other variables affecting students' uptake, two classes were chosen for the analysis: junior high school Class 6, and senior high school Class 6 (from Table 1 and 2). In these two classes, the main language used by the teachers was the same, L2, but the feedback amount given to students was different. A large amount of feedback was seen in senior high school Class 6, while low amount of feedback was seen in junior high school Class 6. Table 11 shows class descriptions and Mann-Whitney U tests results are shown in Table 12.

Significant difference was seen in only sentence uptake, (Z = -5.783, p <.01), which shows senior high school Class 6 (with larger feedbacks) had larger sentence uptake. No significant differences were seen in vocabulary and grammar uptake. In the former analysis (shown in Table 10), all classes where the main language used by the teachers varied were used. The results also indicated that students' sentence and grammar uptakes were higher in the class with a large amount of teachers' feedback. Considering the results shown in Tables 10 and 12, it can be implied that whichever language is mainly used by the teachers, students' sentence uptake could be more facilitated by teachers' feedback.

Table 11
L2 Classes Description

Uptake	Class	*n*	*M*
Vocabulary uptake	J. Class 6	30	23.48
	S. Class 6	17	24.91
Sentence uptake	J. Class 6	30	15.77
	S. Class 6	17	38.53
Grammar uptake	J. Class 6	30	24.40
	S. Class 6	17	23.29

J. Class 6 = feedback amount low (junior high school, Class 6)
S. Class 6 = feedback amount large (senior high school, Class 6)

Table 12

L2 Classes Mann-Whitney U Tests Results

	U	*p*	*r*
Vocabulary uptake	239.500	.725	-0.05
Sentence uptake	8.000	.000	-0.84
Grammar uptake	243.000	.752	-0.05

Discussion and Conclusion

The first research question was to examine the factors that could facilitate students' spontaneous L2 utterances. Positive correlation was observed between the students' spontaneous L2 utterances and the teachers' spontaneous L2 utterances; the teachers' L2 feedback; and the teachers' L2 questions. However, the stepwise regression analyses results showed that the only predictor that showed significant relationship with the students' spontaneous L2 utterances was the teachers' L2 feedback. Considering these statistical results, the answer to this question is "It is the teachers' feedback given in the L2 to the students that can most influence the amount of students' spontaneous L2 utterances."

This study supported the statement conducted by Ohashi (2013), which qualitatively suggested that the teachers' elicitation and confirmation check have possibilities in regard to facilitating students' speaking the target language. Additionally, the results of this study imply that the students' sentence uptake could also be facilitated by the teachers' L2 feedback.

Statistically, the teachers' feedback is considered to facilitate the students' spontaneous L2 utterances. As well, there are also some features seen in the transcription, which could qualitatively elicit the students' spontaneous L2 utterances. They are: a) the interactions involving topics that students can get interested in; b) the interactions including topics that can make students laugh or the topics all students in class can share together. In those interactions, the teachers were trying to use the L2, such as giving example sentences in English.

In beginner classes, helping students speak up is sometimes difficult even though teachers try to elicit their utterances using feedback techniques. Whether teachers can elicit students' L2 utterances or not depends on the teachers' techniques of talking. Rhonda and Philp (2014) pointed out the importance of scaffolding between the students' as well as the teachers' scaffolding. They introduced the concept of the teachers' questions serving as a scaffold in that those questions helped students describe what they wanted to convey.

Supporting the statements by Rhonda and Philp (2014), this study also focused on the teachers' role of eliciting the interactions with feedback or questions that can lead to the students' willingness to utter the L2. Depending on students' proficiency level, the teachers' scaffolding in addition to feedback could be effective. Moreover, among Japanese classroom settings, the teachers' feedback also facilitates the students' scaffolding. Excerpt 1 shows students' scaffolding in the course of interaction.

Excerpt 1

Teacher: MOSHI ANATAGA 'I did like you.' TO IWARETARA URESHIIKA URESHIKUNAIKA?

(If you were said 'I did like you.' are you happy or not?)

Student A: URESHIKUNAI. (I'm not happy.)

Student A: He do like a TOSHIUE. (elder women)

Teacher: What? He…..? (elicitation)

Student A: He likes.

Teacher: He, DO JYANAKUTE. (not 'do')

Student A: He likes? He…

Student B: does.

Student A: He does likes?

Teacher: Oh, he does like a young, beautiful girl! (recast)

Students A: No, he does like old woman.

In this interaction, student A was helped by another student's scaffolding in addition to the teachers' feedback.

The results of the present study also imply that even though teachers frequently use the L2, the teachers' random talk will not lead to students' spontaneous L2 utterances. Accurate and appropriate interactions are necessary to foster the students' own willingness to speak up. Thus, the teachers need to manage their classes so that they can establish an atmosphere that fosters the students' willingness to use the L2 and actively speak up in class.

The second research question concerned whether or not factors which influence students' spontaneous L2 utterances might affect the amount of students' uptake. The examination has two phases: the analysis using all classes, and the analysis using the classes where the main language the teachers used was almost the same. The results of the first analysis using the Kruskal-Wallis H tests showed that higher sentence uptake was observed in the classes with the largest amount of teacher feedback compared with the classes with no teacher feedback or the classes with little amount of teacher feedback. Regarding grammar uptake, classes with little amount of teacher feedback had a higher uptake than other classes. The second analysis was conducted to compare the amount of students' uptake, excluding the classes where the main language used in classes was different. This was because the language used in class could be considered the variable which influences students' uptake. The results using the Mann-Whitney U tests on the classes where the L2 was mainly used, showed that higher sentence uptake was seen in the class with large amount of feedback than in the class with little amount of feedback. No significant difference was seen in grammar uptake. It could be acknowledged that regardless of the language mainly used in class, the more feedback in the L2 the teachers give to students trying to elicit their spontaneous L2 utterances, the more English sentences students tend to remember as uptake.

Statistically, the teachers' feedback only influences the students' sentence uptake. However, qualitatively, it might influence other types of uptake as well. Excerpt 2 shows the interaction with the teachers' feedback, which led to the students' vocabulary uptake.

Excerpt 2

When' NARATTA DESHO? (You learned 'when' didn't you?) What's the meaning?

S: ITSU.

T: ITUS? SOREJYA NAI YATSU. (Different one.)

T: Well, for example, the big earthquake, do you remember?

S: Yes.

T: I was in the teachers' room then. I was in a teachers' room when the earthquake happened.

S: Ah, JISHIN NO TOKI? SYOKUINSHITU NI ITANO? (You were in a teachers' room when the earthquake happened?) I see!

T: What about you? You were….? (elicitation)

S: I….I am..

T: You were…..? (recast)

S: You were?

T: I….. (elicitation)

S: I was in a ROUKA. (I was in a hallway.)

T: I was in a hallway (recast)….earthquake….? (elicitation)

S: I was in a hallway when?

T: Yes. When?

S: Earthquake…..happen.

T: KAKO DAKARA (It should be the past form.) happened. (Explicit correction)

This class is a 'L1 and L2 mixed class,' where the teacher used almost the same amount of both Japanese and English. In this class ten out of twenty-seven students wrote 'earthquake' and five students wrote 'hallway' as vocabulary uptake. Also, eight students wrote a sentence including 'when the earthquake happened' as one of their sentence uptakes. In other classes as well, students tended to write vocabulary or sentences which occurred during interactions with feedback.

Ellis pointed out controversies concerning corrective feedback (CF) and one of those was 'whether CF contributes to L2 acquisition' (2009, p.2). The results of the present study showed positive effects on students' uptake, which could provide the possibilities that the teachers' feedback influences the students' learning processes. These implications show that although there could be other variables affecting the students' uptake, the teachers' feedback works to facilitate students' sentence construction. Also, vocabularies included in the sentence might stay in the students' memory as uptake.

One of the limitations of this study to be concerns the students' uptake data. Despite Ohashi 's (2014) statement that the students' uptake correlated with what they showed they understood in the check-tests results, what students write as 'uptake' in the uptake questionnaire might vary. For example, some students might write only the vocabulary in one English sentence they learned without writing a whole sentence, or, some might understand the vocabulary included in the sentence uptake, which would not be counted as vocabulary uptake unless it is written as vocabulary uptake. There could be some other variables which might influence the students' uptake. Further research needs be conducted to provide an accurate definition of students' uptake.

Looking at the transcription, students' spontaneous L2 utterances can be considered to be closely related to students' uptake, which supports Kaneko's (1991) statement. For example, in some classes, students noticed their own errors while talking, and that noticing led to the uptake of several students in class as well as the speaker's uptake. Also, students might pay more attention when their classmates are talking than teachers' talking. In some senior high school classes, during students' talking, another student' scaffolding led to their uptake.

If the teachers' feedback contributes to both the students' spontaneous L2 utterances and their uptake, it is suggested that teachers should try to enhance interactions with L2 feedbacks in their classes. Suggestions considering the results are: a) teachers are encouraged to give students feedback in which other students' collaboration occur, which might lead to students' talking and learning; b) the teachers' feedback sometimes works as scaffolding, helping students notice and correct their own mistakes; c) with sufficient L2 input, teachers should try to elicit students' talking by mixing explanation, questions, and feedback; d) it is necessary to find topics that all students can share in class or issues that they can get interested in; and e) teachers need to develop interactions where not only one but other students can participate.

The present study pointed out the importance of teachers' using feedback to help students willingly talk and the possibilities of students' spontaneous L2 utterances leading to uptake. The importance of classroom context should also be noted in the classroom context could influence the students' performance, including their wiliness to talk in class as well as their learning. Depending on the goal in each class, teachers should manage classes appropriately considering what input or feedback should be given to the students, or how they can provide interaction that can interest students.

It is worth conducting further corpus based studies study to explore the relationship between what is happening in class and students' performance. In compiling a classroom corpus, it is possible to observe a whole context in class including the amount of teachers' or students' talk, or what interactions occur during class. Further studies can be possible by making the existing classroom corpus larger, which the author hopes would contribute to teachers' choice of statements or activities to carry out in class.

Acknowledgement

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to the anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments and suggestions to improve this paper. Also, I would like to thank Professor Yukio Tono, who gave me valuable advice and assisted me in compiling a corpus used in this paper.

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JACET Selected Papers Vol. 3 (2016), 123-152

The Ideal Intercultural Self Framework: A Way to Motivate Students to Develop Intercultural Communicative Competence

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Abstract

Researchers and educators have argued that successful intercultural communication requires individuals to possess intercultural communicative competence (ICC). These individuals have the mindset, flexibility and cognitive skills to construct meaning for understanding other and self. However, a popular question is how can foreign language educators effectively develop the ICC of students within the classroom? To answer this question, this paper will introduce the Ideal Intercultural Self (IIS), a unique concept and framework developed by the authors of this paper. This framework was created from ICC research and recent developments in L2 motivation. It approaches intercultural development as an individual endeavor that requires learners to create and set their own intercultural aims and hopes. Achievement relies on the learner's ability to close the gap between their present self and future IIS. To test this theory, the framework was used to develop and teach an intercultural training program at a Japanese university. This paper will present the theories, findings and limitations of using the IIS framework as a practical way for educators to develop the ICC of university students.

Key Words: Intercultural Communication Competence, English Learning, Japanese English Education, Teaching in Higher Education, Intercultural Education

Introduction

In recent years, the Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) has created several incentives revolving around themes pertaining to intercultural communication and intercultural development within the Japanese tertiary educational system. The central aim of these programs has been to nurture university students who can think, work or act within a global context. However, how can foreign language educators achieve these ambitious aims within the constraints of one or two semesters? Also, what theories, models or classroom approaches can influence such a syllabus or curriculum? The concept of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has produced various theories and models to understand intercultural development and foreign language proficiency, and it has the potential to achieve the foundations of MEXT's objectives. Yet, developing the notions put forward in ICC is not an easy task for learners or educators. For example, Diaz (2013) describes the gap between theory and practice in language and culture pedagogy to be "…unbridgeable at times" and this continues to "…mystify theorists and practitioners" (p. xiii).

Therefore this paper attempts to bridge the gap between theory and practice by introducing the Ideal Intercultural Self (IIS) framework. The framework brings together the fields of ICC, L2 Motivation and the concept of self to give learners a unique way in creating their own intercultural and foreign language goals, and to also understand the responsibilities involved in reaching them. The main outcome of the framework is to give learners the momentum needed to achieve their own intercultural and foreign language goals long after the period of training has finished. It uses the theory of ICC (i.e., Byram, 1997, 2008, 2012; Deardorff, 2006, 2009; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013) as an understanding of intercultural development and the various traits needed for successful intercultural communication. In addition, ICC literature highlights the importance of individuality within intercultural communication, this is an essential starting point for learners to become aware, understand

and appreciate (i.e., Byram, 1997, 2012; Corbett, 2010; Deardorff, 2006, 2009; Gregersen-Hermans & Pusch, 2012; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). This has raised the need to use the concept of self in the IIS framework, as a way for learners to comprehend individuality. This will be explained in more detail in the literature review.

The L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei & Hadfield, 2013; Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014), self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) and possible future selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986) are applied to the IIS framework as a motivating classroom approach to let learners visualize and create not only their own foreign language goals, but also their own intercultural development goals. As the IIS framework continues, learners reflect on their initial goals and understand the various responsibilities involved to achieve their own goals. Learner motivation arises from the need to close the gap between their present state and their future goals. Motivation has been cited as a vital factor in many ICC models (Spitzberg & Changon, 2009), however relatively little studies in Japanese EFL have emphasized intercultural development from a motivation point of view.

The IIS framework is designed for use over a two-semester period, however this paper introduces an on-going pilot study and the results achieved from the first semester. To begin with, the influential literature that allowed the development of framework will be presented. Following this, a deeper explanation of the framework will be explained. The final sections of this paper present the classroom approaches, data collection methods, findings and suggestions on how to improve the framework. The main research question of the study was if the IIS framework could allow participants to develop some ICC traits over a one-semester period. Furthermore, the main implication of this framework is that it could allow foreign language educators to develop syllabi or curriculums to meet the requirements of MEXT initiatives with intercultural development or intercultural communication themes.

Literature Review

ICC offers an understanding of the various factors involved in intercultural development and foreign language proficiency, whereas theories connected to L2 motivation offer an approach for creating and achieving one's intercultural and language goals. The definition of ICC used for this paper is that ICC is a collection of various factors that an individual needs in order to be effective and successful within intercultural situations. This was derived from considering ICC literature that approaches learners as individuals and that also acknowledge the internal factors related to cognition, behavior and attitude as being fundamental towards development (i.e., Byram 1997, 2008, 2012; Deardorff, 2006, 2009; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). Also, consideration of individuality is important as it allows learners and educators to understand and appreciate the personal nature of intercultural development and also the various personalities, emotions, social and cultural identities involved within intercultural encounters.

First of all, Byram's (1997) theories and models of ICC have primarily influenced the IIS framework. Byram bases ICC on the awareness, understanding and development of *cognitive* (knowledge), *behavioral* (skills) and *affective* (attitudes) dimensions. Acquiring ICC results in the individual becoming an "intercultural speaker", a person who is able to bridge linguistic and cultural boundaries in whatever situation they find themselves (Byram, 1997, 2008). Essentially, the intercultural speaker needs to gain a critical cultural awareness of self and the ability to handle different interpretations of reality from different perspectives (Coperías-Aguilar, 2007). *How* and *where* ICC is acquired is another important consideration for the IIS framework. Byram (1997) outlines that learners develop ICC in three specific ways "classroom, fieldwork and independent learning" (p. 65). The teacher's responsibility of a learner's ICC development steadily decreases within each of these contexts, however the teacher's role is a flexible one that adjusts between supervisor, meditator and guide. Also, independent learning plays a vital role on classroom learning as (inter)cultural experiences allow one to comprehend the concepts presented within intercultural development training programs (i.e., Byram 1997; Coperías-Aguilar, 2007; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). Therefore, a meaningful intercultural training program needs to encourage learners to reflect, contemplate and value previous (inter)cultural experiences. As a result of all of this, the consideration of *how* and *where* ICC is acquired has influenced the structure of the IIS framework and syllabus design for this study.

In addition, the point of view that ICC is a continual life-long process where no peak can be reached (i.e., Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2006, 2009, 2011), is also an essential component of the IIS framework. This ongoing notion of development encourages individuals to become aware of how past, present and future are all interrelated in their development of ICC. These points are best represented by the circular nature of Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of Intercultural Competence (Figure 1). This model also offers an understanding of which ICC factors to consider in the IIS framework.

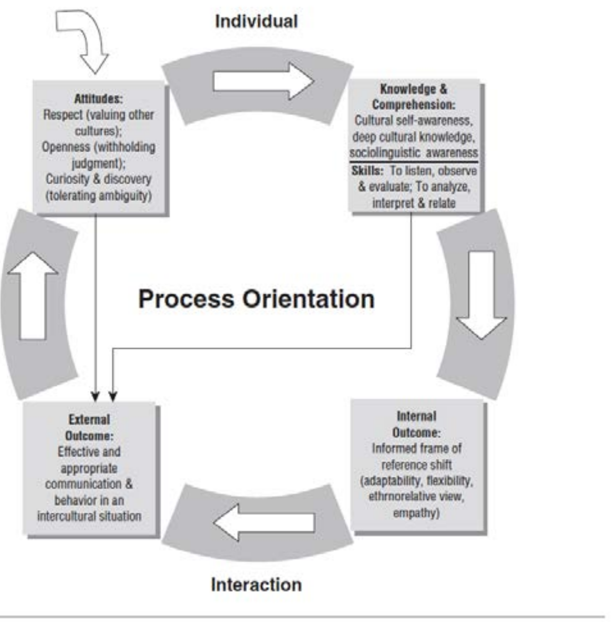


Figure 1. The Process Model of Intercultural Competence. Adapted from "Identification and assessment of intercultural competence as a student outcome of internationalization,". by Deardorff, D.K, 2006, *Journal of Studies in International Education*, *10*(3), p. 256. Copyright 2006 by Deardorff, D.K.

The following points explain the influence of Deardorff's model on the IIS framework:

- The circular representation demonstrates the continual nature of reflection and growth involved in intercultural development.
- The model focuses on *first* understanding self (Individual), *then* other (Interaction). This distinction of internal and external outcomes explicitly shows how internal factors have a fundamental influence on the ability to produce effective communication. This is significant for the foreign language educator, as traditional approaches to language learning often focus on first developing language output and skills (i.e., pronunciation, fluency, accuracy etc.).
- This model also recognizes cognitive, affective and behavioral factors on intercultural development. However, attitudes are shown as the starting point of ICC development. This significance highlights the interdependent relationship that exists between affective factors and second language acquisition (Dörnyei & Hadfield, 2013).

The nature of ICC infers a learner-centered approach towards intercultural and foreign language development. An educator that has developed a certain amount of ICC can act as a role model or authoritative figure for learners on *how* and *where* ICC is acquired. However, as ICC is an individual and personal endeavor that has already started before the training period and it is expected to continue after, learners need the chance to create and understand how to achieve their own goals. Thus, research related to the field of motivation and self has influenced a motivating classroom approach to developing ICC. This is the focus of the following sections.

Motivation, Self and the Link to ICC

Motivation and its relation to second language acquisition has been the center of several studies (i.e., Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Williams & Burden, 1997), however relatively little has been written specifically connecting motivation and ICC. This section will describe how

L2 motivation theories can be applied to intercultural development and how they have influenced the IIS framework. As the IIS framework considers the notion of individuality as a multifaceted, dynamic and interdependent on context, the sense of self is presented to learners, in order to gain awareness and a better understanding of self and other (i.e., Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014; Williams, Mercer, & Ryan, 2015). Three main views of self are considered for the IIS framework. First, individuals have a relatively stable set of self-perceptions that they believe about themselves, i.e. likes, dislikes, talents, roles (Adler & Rodman, 2006). Second, individuals do not have a single self-concept, but several for different contexts (Williams et al., 2015). Thus, self is partly co-constructed from interactions and influences from the surrounding environment (Dörnyei, 2009). Lastly, all individuals have possible future selves, and these possible selves have a strong motivational impact on an individual (Dörnyei, 2009; Markus & Nurius, 1986).

This last point is the driving force behind the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2009) and the main inspiration behind the approach of the IIS framework. Dörnyei's notion draws from Markus and Nurius's (1986) belief of possible future selves, where individuals are able to imagine three different states of reality for themselves in the future; what we might become; what we would like to become and what we are afraid of becoming. Also, the L2 Motivational Self System is inspired by self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) as Higgins shows an individual's self-concept to consist of three domains – the actual self, ideal self and ought-to self. The gap between the ought-to self and the ideal self causes the individual to have positive or negative emotions, behaviors and attitudes. This results in the individual being motivated to close the gap and achieve their ideal self. The L2 Motivational Self System consists of a learner creating their own future L2 goals (the Ideal L2 Self), and then becoming aware of their own obligations to achieve their future goals (the Ought-to L2 Self). The immediate learning environment (the L2 Learning Experience) also affects the ability to achieve the Ideal L2 Self. However, the L2 Motivational Self System centers on L2 acquisition and does not explicitly mention intercultural development. The next section will explain how the L2 Motivational Self System is applied to the IIS framework.

The IIS Framework

The IIS framework combines the concept of ICC (Deardorff, 2006; Byram, 1997, 2008, 2012) with the motivation related research (Dörnyei, 2009; Higgins, 1987; Markus & Nurius, 1986) to provide a motivational approach for learners to create their own intercultural development and foreign language goals. The complexities involved are gradually comprehended over a two-semester period. In addition, the main implication of this framework is that it can be used as the basis for an intercultural development themed syllabus or curriculum. However, the purpose of the IIS framework is to give learners the momentum needed towards achieving their own intercultural and foreign language, rather than trying to achieve a standardized goal or reach a certain level of ICC.

The IIS framework combines the notion of the intercultural speaker (Byram, 1997) with the Ideal L2 Self (Dörnyei, 2009) to form the concept of the "IIS". This is defined as an individual's future vision of personal goals and hopes related to becoming an intercultural speaker. Also, the IIS follows the point of view that developing intercultural competence is a life long task where no peak can be reached (i.e., Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2006, 2009; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). Therefore, the "ideal state" implies a state that one is continually reviewing and seeking to attain. This highlights the understanding and valuing of the intercultural development process, rather than trying to achieve the final product of the ideal self. Self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987) and future possible selves (Markus & Nurius, 1986) also inform the notion of Ought-to-Self and the IIS in the IIS framework, where motivation occurs by the learner trying to close the gap between these two concepts. Dörnyei's (2009) concept of L2 Learning Experience is expanded to take into account the local, national and global socio-cultural factors that influence a learner. Lastly, the IIS framework recognizes that past (inter)cultural experiences will affect an individual's current interests and needs, which will also affect their future vision of self. The IIS framework (Table 1 below) is based on Dörnyei and Hadfield's (2013) six component motivational program.

Table 1

The IIS Framework

Key strategy	Classroom approaches & methods	Internal outcomes	External outcomes
1. Create the vision *Semester 1* 2. Revisit the vision *Semester 1*	Learners first visualize their IIS. Next, reflect and revisit goals and objectives. The focus is on raising awareness and knowledge of the various internal or individual aspects of ICC.	Understand how one develops self. Acquire/evolve affective and cognitive factors to develop one's IIS.	Become aware that the development, or lack of, internal outcomes has a fundamental effect on external outcomes.
3. Verify the vision *Semester 2* 4. Keep the vision alive *Semester 2* 5. Self-evaluate the vision *Semester 2*	Learners concentrate on challenges, potential complications and realizing their goals and objectives (ought-to-self). Contemplate one's IIS after the course has finished.	Understand the significance of ought-to-self. Analyze and evaluate self in relation to other.	Understand the concept of "other" within communication. Understand and practice skills, and abilities to communicate effectively.

The IIS framework (Table 1) has five steps for use over a two-semester period. Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of ICC (Figure 1) is used to distinguish internal and external outcomes of ICC and for learners and educators to understand what areas of ICC should be acquired first. Therefore, the first and second step of the IIS framework is related to the Individual stages of the Process Model of ICC. These steps focus on developing learners' attitudes, curiosity discovery, cultural self-awareness and sociolinguistic awareness. The final steps concentrate on how to analyze, evaluate and create self in relation to other within intercultural situations, these steps are based on the Interaction sections of the Process Model of ICC. At the first step, learners visualize their IIS. After a semester of intercultural training and language development, they revisit it at the second step. This allows the learners to reconsider their original aims and hopes, and by creating a reevaluated vision they are able to witness their own development. The third, fourth and final steps are done in the second semester and they are based on the Ought-to-Self, as these steps focus on the responsibilities and obligations required to achieve the IIS. Step five (self-evaluate the vision) combines Dörnyei and Hadfield's (2013) fifth and sixth components of keeping learners' visions alive and counterbalancing their vision with undesired future selves. Moreover, revisiting earlier steps in the IIS framework is encouraged in order to continually reflect and re-evaluate learner's IIS. This is in accordance to the circular nature of Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of ICC.

Considering the validation of the IIS framework, Dörnyei and Hadfield (2013) provide a wealth of classroom approaches and methods for their six component motivational program and describe it as "...[an] effective way of motivating learners to enable them to create an attractive vision of their future language self" (p. 5). They also argue that the program provides the opportunity for L2 learners to visualize strengthen, substantiate, and maintain their initial future visions. Dörnyei and Kubanyiova (2014) accompany the theoretical principles involved in the six component motivational program with evidence of research practice involving visual research, interviews and student journals. Furthermore, recent intervention studies offer some validation of the link between imagery and motivation (i.e., Fukada, Fukuda, Falout, & Murphy, 2011; Magid & Chan, 2012), where the authors reported that visualization tasks to create future self-guides allowed participants to be more invested in language learning. Furthermore, studies using Dörnyei's concept of the L2 Self Motivational Self System within the Japanese EFL context have shown the benefits and implications of using the idea of L2 Self for second language acquisition (i.e., Apple, Da Silva, & Fellner, 2013; Kojima-Takahashi, 2013). However the authors of this paper are not aware of previous studies that have evolved the L2 Motivational Self System to also incorporate intercultural development.

Method

Objectives of the Study and Procedure

This study focused on testing the hypothesis of step one and two of the IIS framework. To do this, a case study was made by focusing on one group of participants over a sixteen-week period (one semester). Results were collected at the start and end of the course. The participants would visualize their IIS at the start of the course, and revisit that vision after receiving one semester of classes aimed at increasing attitudes, openness, curiosity and flexibility - the Individual components of Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of ICC (see Figure 1). The intention of the case study approach was to allow the researchers to comprehend more deeply about the process of intercultural development and gain a better understanding to developing intercultural themed syllabi. Thus, allowing further revisions of the IIS framework for future studies. As the authors are not aware of previous studies within Japanese EFL offering a motivational approach framework to develop foreign language proficiency *and* intercultural development, this pilot study intends to fill that gap. The main research question of this study was:

RQ. Is it possible to see students develop some of the traits of ICC by using the IIS framework?

Participants

The participants for this study were 10 undergraduates (5 female and 5 male) studying at a Japanese university where one of the authors of this paper currently works. All students were third grade economics students and agreed to participate in the pilot study. A non-compulsory English course was used to conduct the study and it was promoted as an intercultural training course. No pre-requisites for registration were given, but all of the students already had an intermediate level of English. To understand the backgrounds of the participants better, all of them filled out a simple questionnaire to find out about their latest TOEIC score, length of time learning English and experiences of visiting other countries. Their questionnaire answers are shown in Table 2 below. Each participant is given a single letter as a pseudonym to protect his or her privacy.

Table 2

Participants of the Study (N= 10)

Name	Country of Origin	Gender	Latest TOEIC score	Learned English since	Number of countries visited	Length of the longest trip
A	Japan	M	565	JHS	1	Less than a week
B	Japan	F	565	ES	1	2 weeks
C	Japan	F	720	ES	4	1 month
D	Japan	F	680	ES	2	1 month

E	China	F	615	JHS	2	More than two years
F	Japan	M	585	JHS	4	Less than a week
G	China	M	565	ES	1	More than three years
H	Japan	M	890	Kindergarten	0	Not applicable
I	Japan	F	700	ES	4	2 weeks
J	Japan	F	565	JHS	3	2 weeks

All of the participants had taken the TOEIC test a few months prior to this study. Also, except for one participant, all of them had studied or traveled abroad for various reasons and amounts of time. Both of the Chinese participants referred to their study in Japan as their longest trip abroad. Also, participants B, H and I were planning on studying abroad the following semester. Everyone else had the desire to study, work or volunteer in other countries after graduation. The study lasted for one semester (sixteen 90-minute sessions) and the intention was to continue the framework for the second semester with the same group of participants, except B, H and I. In addition, all of the participants borrowed an ipad mini for the semester. This was for completing the research tasks, required homework assignments and presentations for the class. The syllabus and classroom approaches will be introduced in the next section.

Syllabus Design

A syllabus was created to develop participants' ICC and self-awareness, whilst using the motivating approach outlined in the IIS framework section. Participants were graded on class participation, homework and a presentation to introduce their IIS. In addition, the participants were asked to complete research tasks in order to assist with the data collection for this study. These are introduced in the next section. The units of the syllabus were designed around intercultural development topics in textbook "*Identity*" (Shaules, Tsujioka, & Iida, 2004). This textbook was chosen as it is learner-centered and encourages intercultural development by balancing language development with cultural awareness. Extra content was also created to bring awareness of attitudes, curiosity, flexibility, open-mindedness and other ICC traits associated to the Individual sections of Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of ICC. Also, several classroom tasks were adopted from Dörnyei and Hadfield (2013) to let participants visualize and periodically re-visit their future goals. The syllabus is shown below.

Table 3

The Syllabus Created for This Study

week	Topic	week	Topic
1	Introductions	9	Unit 3: Culture Shock
2	About motivation and self	10	Unit 4: Culture in Language
3	Visualize your IIS	11	Unit 4: Culture in Language
4	Unit 1: About Identity	12	Unit 5: Body Language and Customs
5	Unit 1: About Identity	13	Unit 5: Body Language and Customs
6	Unit 2: Values	14	Unit 8: Communication Styles
7	Unit 2: Values	15	Unit 8: Communication Styles
8	Unit 3: Culture Shock	16	Revise your IIS

In the first class, the class syllabus and key themes were introduced and different activities were done to create better group dynamics. In the second class, the concept of motivation was explained in more traditional terms associated with L2 Motivation (i.e., Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Williams & Burden, 1997). Motivation was described in terms of inside (intrinsic), outside (extrinsic), integrative and instrumental for the participants to gain an awareness and a certain degree of understanding involving the needs, attitudes and behaviors discussed within foreign language learning. In addition, the dynamic view of self that was presented in the literature review was also explained, and homework was given for further reflection on participants' motivation and self. Motivation and the concept of self were periodically mentioned throughout the semester. In the third class, participants created their IIS by visualizing their existing intercultural and foreign language goals in relation to what they had learned in classes one and two. From class four until the penultimate class, the different factors involving the IIS were taught by adapting various units from the *Identity* textbook (Shaules et al., 2004) and adding extra materials to raise awareness of self and the Individual components of Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of ICC. Also, Units 6 and 7 of the textbook were left out in favor of Unit 8 (Communication styles) as this unit gave an opportunity for participants to be introduced to ICC factors associated with the Interaction areas of the Process Model of ICC.

Several resources were adapted to create pedagogical approaches and homework tasks (i.e., Byram, 1997; Berardo & Deardorff, 2012; Corbett, 2010; Dörnyei & Hadfield, 2013; Shaules et al., 2004). For example:

- The activities in the *Identity* textbook (Shaules et al., 2004) allowed participants to practice and develop their writing, reading, listening and conversation skills in group or pair work.
- Participants visualized their IIS, then drew and wrote their visions. This will be further explained in the data collection tools section.
- Classroom and homework reflective tasks were designed to primarily raise awareness and understanding of previous experiences and the influence on their present self. Also, these tasks aimed to raise awareness of previous local, national or global intercultural experiences, so that the participants could realize the importance of informal learning on the ability to develop ICC. Homework journals were also used for participants to regularly comment on their IIS goals and to encourage review, time scales and action plans to achieve their goals.
- Intercultural critical incidents were designed to increase awareness and understanding of the vital factors of ICC for step one and two of the IIS framework i.e. attitudes, curiosity, flexibility, cultural self-awareness and open-mindedness.

Data Collection Tools

The authors of this paper are not aware of established templates that specifically analyze intercultural development using theories involving the L2 Motivational Self System. This led the authors to consult various sources for a suitable approach to collect and analyze the data. A mixed-methods approach was deemed advantageous, as researchers have commented it allows a way to understand the various phenomena involved within intercultural development (i.e., Corbett, 2010; Deardorff, 2009, 2011; Gregersen-Hermans & Pusch, 2012). Also, as this study is essentially trying to understand development from a complex point of view (dynamic view of self, the various affective, cognitive and sociocultural factors and ICC development), Dörnyei (2007) suggests a multi-level analysis allows investigators to obtain data about both the individual and the broader societal context.

Surveys have influenced various qualitative studies related to the L2 Motivational Self System (i.e., Apple et al., 2013; Dörnyei, 2009), however visual and narrative methods were preferred as this would encourage visualization of the IIS in a more creative, interesting and complex way. Visual methods include image-based and graphical methods, and can combine writing and drawing to inform the research questions (Wai-Ling Packard & Conway, 2006). Also, Ruvolo and Markus (1992) suggest that visual methods are suitable in understanding and analyzing possible selves theory put forward by Markus and Nurius (1986). Furthermore, Wai-Ling Packard and Conway (2006) state that narrative methods are useful and frequently used for studying possible selves. These methods let participants to freely write about the topic in question and give greater control to express their future selves. Wai-Ling Packard and Conway also recommend coding rubrics as a way to analyze data collected from narrative methods.

Therefore a visual and narrative method was used as a qualitative data collection tool for this study. In the third class, participants were asked to visualize their IIS, and then produce a one or two page document explaining their vision. This involved an initial reflection and brainstorm of their IIS in terms of past experiences, ways of thinking, cultural and personal identity, communication styles, behavior and motivations for learning and any other factors they deemed important to themselves. In small groups, the participants further discussed their visions to gain an awareness of other class members' IIS. Then, using the technique of visualization (Dörnyei & Hadfield, 2013), a prepared script was read to the participants to encourage and guide their thoughts for creating their vision of IIS. Finally, the participants were asked to express their vision through words and images by using the Notability application on their borrowed ipad mini. At the time that this study was completed, the Notability application was available to download free of charge from the Japanese iTunes application store. This application allows users to freely draw, write and insert media (own photos, internet images, videos). They were asked to complete this task and email it as a pdf to the instructor before the next class. This was their first IIS pdf. For step two of the framework in the final class of the course, the participants were asked to revisit and reassess their original IIS pdf and produce a second IIS pdf to show their reassessed IIS. The participants were explicitly told that these research tasks would not contribute to their course grade.

By comparing the participants' first and second IIS pdf, the main purpose of this data collection method was to try and find signs of ICC development related to Deardorff's (2006) Individual sections of the Process Model of ICC (see Figure 1). In order to analyze the IIS pdfs, a four-point scale rubric (see appendix) was designed by using the Individual criteria of ICC with descriptors for each category reflecting the progression of development from lack of awareness to awareness, then understanding to deep understanding. Both researchers analyzed the pdfs' words and images by checking the appropriate rubric category in turn. If a participant's pdf did not show any evidence related to a specific category, they were awarded the lowest score (1). The use of a second marker hoped to bring a degree of objectivity, as they were not familiar with the group of participants. To construct the rubric, the Assessment of Intercultural Competence (Fantini & Tirmizi, 2006) and the Intercultural Knowledge and Competence VALUE Rubric (Association of American Colleges & Universities, 2009) were mainly consulted as a guideline for constructing the questionnaire items. The rubric scores were collected and analyzed using SPSS.

Results

From the ten participants, only eight produced eligible first (3rd class) and second (16th class) IIS pdfs that could be analyzed. The results of all participants are shown below. Both researchers independently analyzed the pdfs' words and images by checking the appropriate rubric category in turn. The scores of both researchers are shown below in Table 4. The average of first pdfs and last pdfs are calculated in order to prove reliability of this study.

Table 4

Researcher 1's Evaluation

	Required Attitudes						Knowledge and Comprehension				Desired internal and external outcomes					
	Respect		Openness		Curiosity and discovery		Cultural self-awareness		Knowledge of cultural worldview frameworks		Empathy		Flexibility		Average	
	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last
Student A	3	4	3	4	2	4	2	3	2	3	2	3	2	4	2.3	3.6
Student B	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	1	2	2	3	2	2	1.9	2.6
Student C	3	3	2	4	3	3	2	4	1	3	2	3	3	3	2.3	3.3
Student D	3	3	4	4	3	3	3	4	1	2	3	3	3	4	2.9	3.3
Student E	3	3	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	3	2.1	2.7
Student F	2	3	2	3	2	3	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	3	1.7	2.4
Student G	2	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	2	3	2	2	1.6	2.1
Student H	3	3	3	3	3	4	2	3	3	3	3	4	3	4	2.9	3.4

Table 5

Researcher 2's Evaluation

	Required Attitudes						Knowledge and Comprehension				Desired internal and external outcomes					
	Respect		Openness		Curiosity and discovery		Cultural self-awareness		Knowledge of cultural worldview frameworks		Empathy		Flexibility		Average	
	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last	First	Last
Student A	3	4	3	4	3	4	2	3	1	2	3	3	3	4	2.6	3.4
Student B	2	2	2	2	3	2	1	2	1	2	2	2	2	2	1.9	2.0
Student C	3	4	2	4	4	4	2	3	1	3	2	3	4	4	2.6	3.6
Student D	3	3	3	4	3	3	3	3	1	2	3	3	3	4	2.7	3.1
Student E	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	3	3	3	2	3	2	3	2.1	2.6
Student F	2	2	2	3	2	3	1	2	1	1	2	3	2	3	1.7	2.4
Student G	2	2	1	2	2	2	1	2	1	1	2	2	2	2	1.6	1.9
Student H	2	3	3	3	3	4	2	3	2	3	3	4	3	4	2.6	3.4

In order to assess inter-rater reliability, the authors of this paper independently scored the IIS pdfs. Researcher 1 had no prior contact with the participants and Researcher 2 was the instructor. A Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient test was performed. The inter-rater correlation (r = 0.94, p = .001) indicated that both researchers evaluated the pdfs with similar scores. These scores demonstrate reliability and Researcher 2's familiarity with the participants did not cause bias in the results. In addition, both researchers' scores for the participants' first and last IIS pdfs were used. A one-tailed paired-sample *t*-test was conducted to evaluate whether the post-test mean (M = 2.87, SD = .6) was significantly higher than the pre-test mean (M = 2.21, SD = .46). The result was significant, t = 7.16, d.f = 7, p < .01. These results indicate that after the intervention of the classes, most of the participants had developed the Individual traits of Deardorff's (2006) Process model of ICC.

Analyzing the Participants' IIS pdfs

All of the participants expressed their IIS visions in slightly different ways. Some participants preferred using images of themselves, famous people, places or icons. Others chose to express themselves using the first-person narrative, but with a variety of verb tenses. Due to space limitations, the results for participants A and C will be shown as they especially produced IIS pdfs rich with data, and they were indicative of the general trends in the results. Their original pdfs with highlights of the researchers comments are presented in this section.

In addition, the reasons for some participants achieving relatively lower scores (i.e. participants B, F and G) were a) Participant B and F's pdfs lacked data, they seemed to have hastily made their pdfs, b) Participant G misunderstood the instructions and produced a pdf that was more abstract, therefore challenging to analyze with the rubrics, c) Participant B had the lowest English proficiency of the group and expressed their IIS with simple sentences.

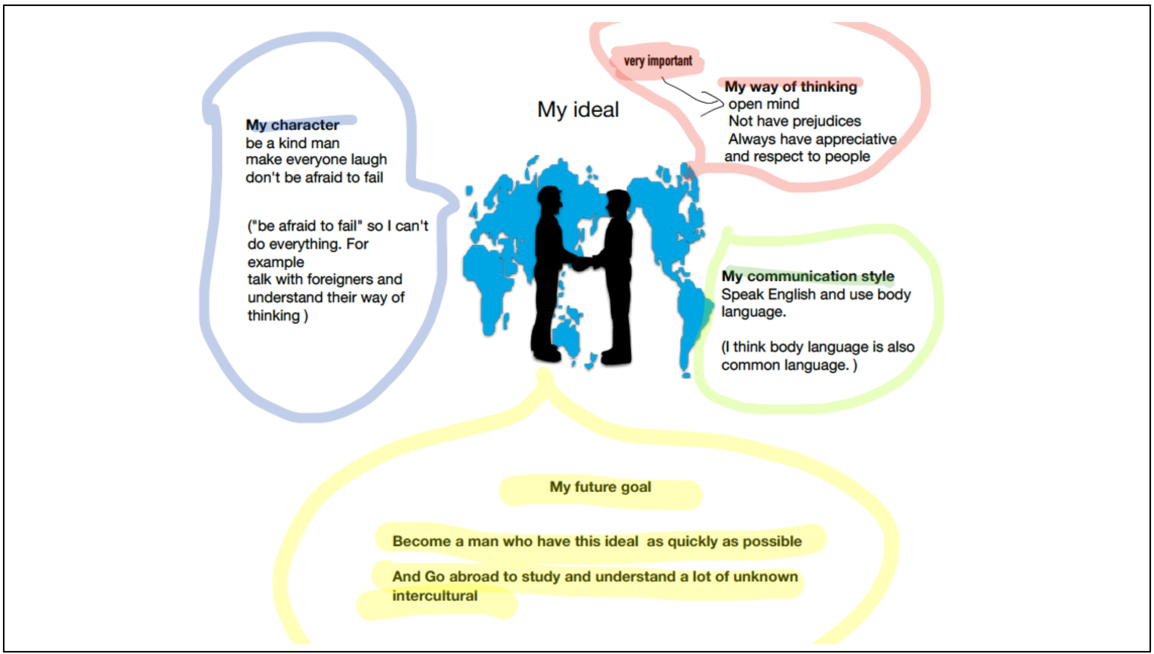


Figure 2. Participant A's First IIS Pdf.

Figure 2 shows participant A to have already developed an amount of ICC at the start of the course. Both researchers gave the same scores for the categories of Respect (3); Openness (3); and Flexibility (3). Examples of this are:

- "Open mind/not have prejudices/always have appreciative and respect people"(sic)

- The whole pdf shows that they are willing to develop in order to adapt or change certain parts of their self (Respect and Flexibility).

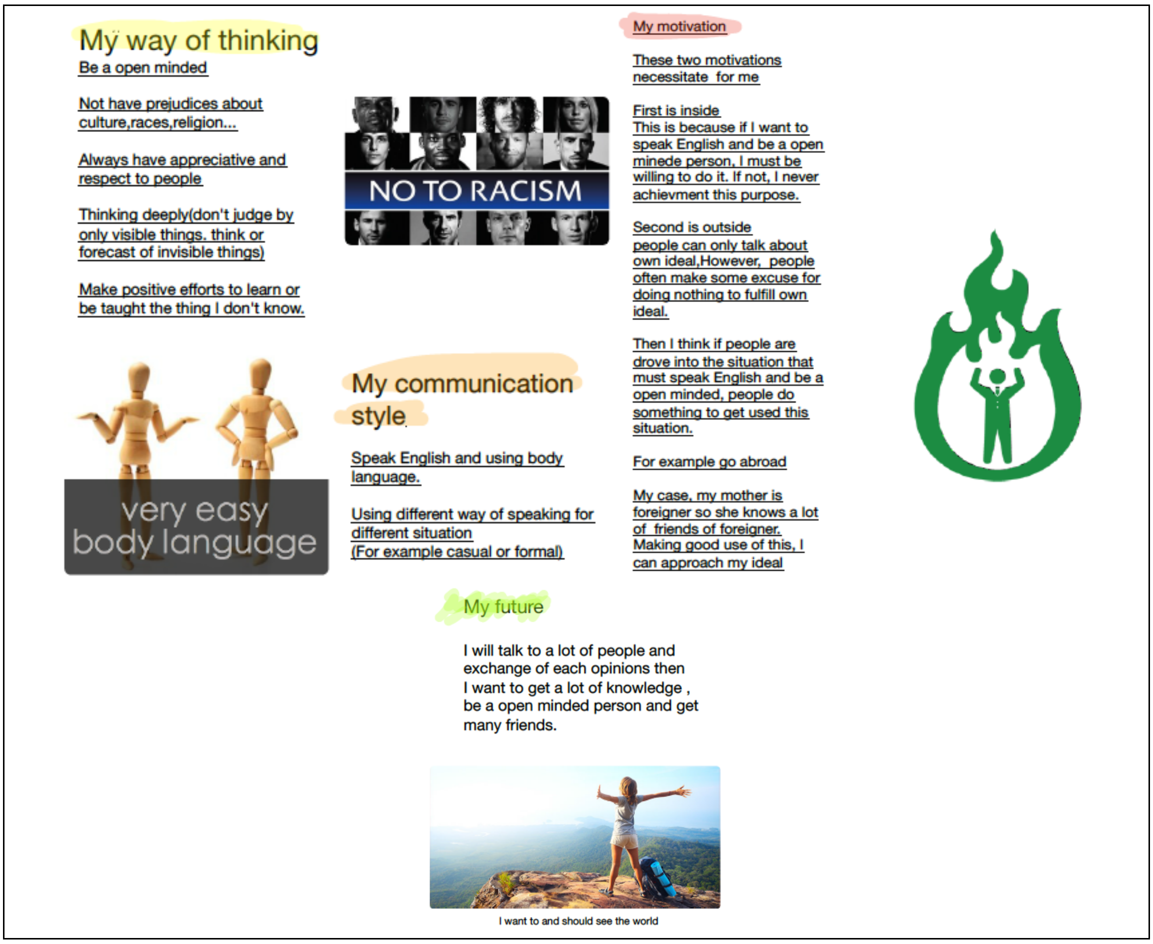


Figure 3. Participant A's Second IIS Pdf.

In the second pdf, participant A shows an overall development in all categories. Both researchers gave the same scores for the categories of Respect (4); Openness (4); Curiosity & Discovery (4) and Flexibility (4). Visually, we can immediately see a development due to the pdf containing more images and words related to intercultural development. The image "No to Racism" demonstrates their understanding to suspend judgment of stereotypes or generalizations of others who are culturally different, hence an ethno-relative view (Respect and Openness). In addition, they showed evidence of developing Curiosity & Discovery "Make positive efforts to learn or be taught the thing I don't know" and Flexibility "…if I want to speak English and be a open minded person, I must be willing to do it. If not, I never achievement this purpose" (sic). Next, participant C's results are shown.

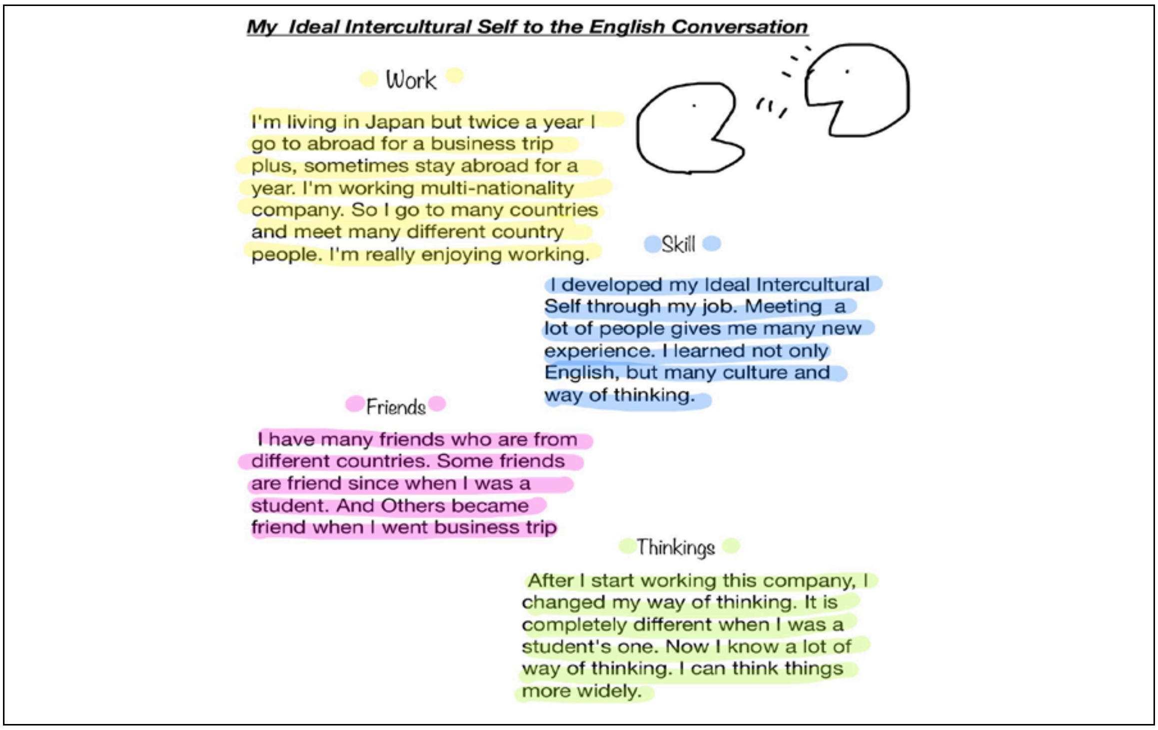
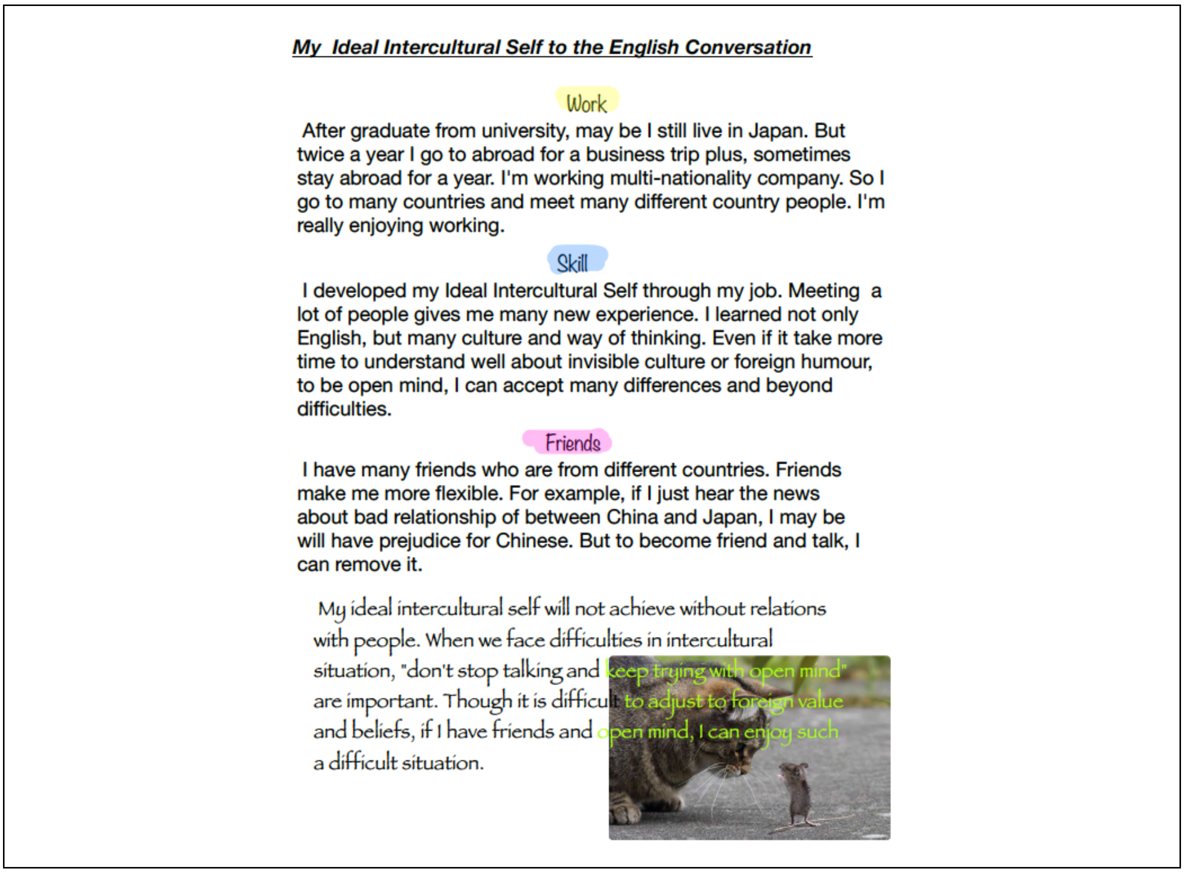


Figure 4. Participant C's First IIS Pdf.

In the first pdf, the researchers agreed the same score for the following categories; Openness (2); Cultural Self-Awareness (2); Knowledge of cultural worldview frameworks (1) and Empathy (2). Examples of this are:

- "After I start working this company I changed my way of thinking…I can think more widely"(sic). This demonstrates the participant's development of the right attitude to become more open-minded (Openness).
- "Meeting a lot of people gives me many new experience. I learned not only English, but many culture and way of thinking" (sic). Participant C infers an awareness (perhaps implicit) of how other cultures may have different values and beliefs that cause different ways of thinking in intercultural encounters (Cultural Self-Awareness).



My Ideal Intercultural Self to the English Conversation

Work

After graduate from university, may be I still live in Japan. But twice a year I go to abroad for a business trip plus, sometimes stay abroad for a year. I'm working multi-nationality company. So I go to many countries and meet many different country people. I'm really enjoying working.

Skill

I developed my Ideal Intercultural Self through my job. Meeting a lot of people gives me many new experience. I learned not only English, but many culture and way of thinking. Even if it take more time to understand well about invisible culture or foreign humour, to be open mind, I can accept many differences and beyond difficulties.

Friends

I have many friends who are from different countries. Friends make me more flexible. For example, if I just hear the news about bad relationship of between China and Japan, I may be will have prejudice for Chinese. But to become friend and talk, I can remove it.

My ideal intercultural self will not achieve without relations with people. When we face difficulties in intercultural situation, "don't stop talking and keep trying with open mind" are important. Though it is difficult to adjust to foreign value and beliefs, if I have friends and open mind, I can enjoy such a difficult situation.

Figure 5. Participant C's Second IIS Pdf.

In the second pdf, the researchers agreed the same score for the following categories; Curiosity and Discovery (4); Cultural Self Awareness (3); Knowledge of cultural worldview frameworks (3); Empathy (3) and Flexibility (4). An example of curiosity and discovery is:

> - "Even if take more time to understand well about invisible culture or foreign humor, to be open mind, I can accept many differences and beyond difficulties" (sic).
>
> The participant shows an understanding of the endeavors, benefits and values related to intercultural development.

In relation to Knowledge of cultural worldview of frameworks, participant C demonstrates self-awareness about how political and historical matters influence and relate to themselves. This is demonstrated in "…Bad relationship between China and Japan, I may have prejudice for Chinese" and "…relations with other people".

Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to see if the IIS framework could develop Individual ICC traits associated to Deardorff's (2006) Process Model of ICC. Also, to see if the motivational approach influencing the IIS framework was an effective method to allow participants to visualize their own personal aims and hopes related to intercultural and foreign language development. The result findings showed that the post-test mean (*M*=2.87) was higher than the pre-test (*M*=2.21) and this shows a slight ICC development from thirteen classes of instruction. A higher development cannot be expected due to this length of time being relatively short and ICC development is acquired other the period of one's lifetime (i.e., Byram, 1997; Deardorff, 2006; Liddicoat & Scarino, 2013). The higher post-test standard deviation (*SD*=0.6) compared to the pre-test (*SD*=0.46) also suggests that the participants developed ICC at different rates and this is to be expected due to the complexity of their individuality and the influence it has on their rates of development (i.e., cognition, affective and socio-cultural factors, past intercultural experiences, wide range of knowledge etc.). In addition, the participants' first and second IIS pdfs showed a general lack of awareness or development in terms of a complex understanding of elements associated to different cultural frameworks across the world and how it is related to their self. This could be due to participants having had relatively few and short travel abroad experiences, or a lack of opportunities in their lives to gain a wide range of experiences and knowledge. However, as Byram (1997) points out an interdependent relationship exists between formal and informal learning, and the informal component is essential for ICC development.

Moreover, this pilot study also correlates with previous L2 Motivational Self System studies that note the positive effects of learner development and motivation to achieve learners' goals (Apple et al., 2013; Kojima-Takahashi, 2013; Magid & Chan, 2012). This study demonstrated that the notion of the IIS pdfs allowed the participants to create their own intercultural and foreign language goals, and by reevaluating their IIS at the end of the semester, they started to close the gap between present and future self. However, as the concept of Ought-To-Self was not introduced in the first and second step of the IIS framework, a firm claim cannot be made at this stage if the participants were aware or understood the obligations and responsibilities involved in achieving their IIS. This was a limitation of the study, and a recommendation for further study would be introduce the notion of Ought-To-Self before the third, fourth and fifth steps of the IIS framework. Other limitations include the validity of the claims made by the participants in the narratives of the IIS pdfs. Firm examples of evidence to back up their claims of ICC development are needed and a recommendation would be to have the participants explain further through either a semi-structured interview or in writing.

Conclusion

The purpose of this pilot study was not to try and fully develop the participants ICC or for the participants to reach a standardized goal. Instead, it was to demonstrate the potential of the IIS framework as a practical way to create and teach an intercultural training program for undergraduates at a Japanese university. The pilot study showed promising results that the IIS framework could be used as a motivating approach for students to develop the traits of ICC, but as this is an on-going pilot study a firm conclusion cannot be given at this stage. Thus, the main implication of this study is that the IIS framework could be used for students to create their own intercultural development and foreign language goals. The wider implication is that IIS framework could create a curriculum based on developing global human resources, or as the basis for a pre-departure course to prepare students for studying or working abroad. The discussion section highlighted the main limitations of the pilot study and the structure of the IIS framework, however with any new or unique teaching approach or method, there will always be challenges to overcome. Least of all is asking a learner to adapt and have faith in teaching approaches or methods that they may have not experienced before. However, if the objective of Japanese tertiary education is to produce undergraduates that can think, work or act within a global context, then new ideas, approaches and methods to education will be needed. Therefore, it is the hope that the research produced from this study can help to evolve the IIS framework and also help to make a contribution to intercultural and foreign language development programs at Japanese universities.

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Appendix: Rubric to Assess the IIS pdf

Required Attitudes	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Respect (valuing cultures, cultural diversity)	Shows little awareness of cultural diversity and little awareness of own culture. Negative towards cultural diversity and interacting with other.	Shows a surface level understanding of cultural diversity and own culture. Has little interest of valuing other cultures. Tolerates cultural diversity.	Shows an explicit understanding and, respect or appreciation of cultural diversity and own culture. Has a mostly positive attitude towards cultural diversity and interacting with other.	Shows a deep understanding, appreciation or respect of the cultural diversity and own culture. Has a positive attitude towards cultural diversity and interacting with other.
Openness (to intercultural learning, does not have judgement)	Has an ethnocentric view of intercultural learning (i.e. close-minded, judgemental of other). Uses stereotypes and generalisations of other.	Shows a potential to become more open-minded towards other. Still has difficulty to suspend judgement of culturally different others. Evidence of a willingness to change.	Shows an open-mind with almost all that are culturally different. Understands that others are individuals, and is mostly able to suspend judgement with culturally different others.	Suspends judgement of any stereotypes or generalisations of others who are culturally different. Understands others are individuals too. Shows an ethno relative attitude.
Curiosity and discovery (is willing to learn new things, ok with uncertainty)	Demonstrates an unwillingness to learn or discover new things (about self or other). Shows they are not comfortable with different cultural values, beliefs, customs or	Shows they can learn or discover new things, but they do not know the values or benefits to self. Not comfortable with some different cultural values, beliefs, customs or	Mostly understands the benefits and values of learning from different cultural values, beliefs, customs or culturally different situations. Mostly understands how curiosity and	Understands the benefits and values of learning from different cultural values, beliefs, customs or culturally different situations. Shows evidence that they are able to continually learn and discover independently

	culturally different situations.	culturally different situations.	discovery can benefit self. They are mostly OK in uncertain situations.	and are OK in uncertain situations.
Knowledge & Comprehension	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Cultural self-awareness	Shows minimal self awareness of own visible and invisible kinds of culture.	Identifies some visible and invisible cultural self awareness.	Is able to see new perspectives and opinions of their own visible and invisible culture.	Recognizes how visible and invisible culture has helped to influence their perceptions of the world and expectations of others.
Knowledge of cultural worldview frameworks	Demonstrates a surface understanding of elements associated to different cultural frameworks across the world and how it is related to their self (i.e. politics, economics, history, communication styles).	Demonstrates a partial understanding of elements associated to different cultural frameworks across the world and how it is related to their self (i.e. politics, economics, history, communication styles).	Demonstrates a better understanding of elements associated to different cultural frameworks across the world and how it is related to their self (i.e. politics, economics, history, communication styles).	Demonstrates a complex understanding of elements associated to different cultural frameworks across the world and how it is related to their self (i.e. politics, economics, history, communication styles).
Desired internal and external outcomes	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**
Empathy ***(internal)***	Unable to understand the world through the eyes (and way of thinking) of the other.	Able to understand the world through the eyes (and way of thinking) of the other, but still uses own thought processes and worldview to reach conclusions.	Able to understand the world through the eyes (and way of thinking) of the other and their own eyes. Able to use own thought processes and feel what the other thinks too.	Able to understand the world through the eyes (and way of thinking) of the other and their own eyes. Able to use own thought processes and feel what the other thinks too. Also understands individuality, and the many ways to view the world. Able to think and act appropriately.
Flexibility ***(internal)***	They show an inability to think (cognitive), feel or behave (affective) another way than the cultural norm.	They can think, feel or behave in another way than the cultural norm, but still find it uncomfortable.	They understand the need to think, feel, or behave in different ways than the cultural norm.	They understand the benefits and values associated with thinking, feeling or behaving in other ways than the cultural norm.

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JACET International Convention Selected Papers, Vol. 3

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   - 3.3 Leave margins of 2.5 cm on all sides of every page (A4 size, 210 mm × 297 mm or 8.27 in × 11.7 in). There are 26 lines to a page.
   - 3.4 Do not justify right margins.
   - 3.5 Do not use running heads.
   - 3.6 Create a paper without the author name(s).
   - 3.7 Include the title, an abstract in English (no more than 200 words), and key words (no more than 5 words).
   - 3.8 For pagination, use Arabic numerals placed in the upper right-hand corner of each page.
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