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## Chapter 1. Introduction

This thesis reports on a study that investigated the effect of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation and learning of Japanese EFL learners from a process-product perspective. The ‘contact’ was provided in a Japanese university EFL context through the provision of dialogic, oral tasks in which Japanese EFL learners interacted with non-Japanese English-speaking interlocutors. This chapter will briefly outline the rationale to undertake this study. Firstly, I will argue that a Japanese university is a suitable research context as the aim of study is in line with recent developments in education policy. Second, I will describe my personal motivation for the study. Finally, I will introduce the theoretical issues that underpin this research.

### 1.1. Rationale for the provision of inter-cultural contact in a Japanese context

As interconnected as the world today is, there are still pockets of the globe where, because of a mix of political policies, cultural tendencies, and geographic isolation, people have little exposure to individuals from other cultures. This lack of inter-cultural contact can have significant consequences for a host of issues, one of which is how a second or foreign language is learned. There are various arguments one could make on why inter-cultural contact is an important issue in second language acquisition; however, the following three are particularly relevant:

1. *Inter-cultural contact is the primary goal of L2 learning.* The product of L2 learning should be the ability to communicate and understand those people who do not speak the same L1. As Dörnyei and Csizér (2005) point out: “L2 proficiency, by definition, creates the medium of communication between members of different ethnolinguistic communities” (p. 328).
2. *Inter-cultural contact provides opportunities for L2 learning.* Contact provides learners with a rich source of L2 input and creates opportunities for developing language skills, resulting in such benefits as improvement in L2 speaking fluency (Llanes & Muñoz, 2009), more confident language use (Noels & Clément, 1996), and L2 acquisition via acculturation (Schumann, 1978).
3. *Inter-cultural contact is a source of L2 motivation.* Direct communication with members of the target community can act as a powerful stimulus for positive motivational change as

learners gain new perspectives and greater sense of self as speakers of the target language (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005; Rivers, 2011).

The above benefits highlight some severe barriers to successful English learning in EFL contexts where inter-cultural contact opportunities are rare. In this regard – as I will argue in Chapter 2 – Japan presents a unique research context even among expanding circle countries. As the physical boundaries that separate communities of language users are beginning to dissolve, Japan remains relatively cut-off from the English-using world. This has led to unclear goals for English learning, few opportunities for learners to use their language skills, and an inability to for learners to see themselves as potential English-using participants in the global community.

Recently there has been a growing acknowledgement among education policy-makers in Japan that there is a need to more concretely address how English language education can effectively facilitate the country's inter-cultural communication requirements. After years of attempting to implement ineffectual policies aimed at improving learners' communicative English language abilities at the pre-tertiary level, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, and Technology (MEXT) has charged several universities with the task of establishing programs that aim to broaden Japan's global footprint. These ambitious action plans include the *300,000 International Student Plan*, the *Global 30* and *Global 30 Plus* projects, and the recent *Super Global University Project*. These proposals aim to increase the number of international students through the creation of English-medium degree programs, enhance systems for receiving/hosting international students, provide international students with opportunities to learn about Japanese culture, and strengthen relationships with foreign universities in order to send more Japanese students abroad. In broad terms, Japan is currently seeking to add a global or inter-cultural component into its university structure and learning curriculum.

I believe that university-level English education can benefit directly from this recent push to internationalize. However, government-imposed action plans need to be supplemented by localized pedagogical efforts that emerge from teachers and practiced in the classrooms. The research reported in this thesis is congruent with MEXT's initiatives to create an "an academic environment where international and Japanese students can learn from one another" (MEXT, 2014), but takes an English-language learning perspective. The intervention in this research involved the creation of contexts for interaction between Japanese learners of English and English-speaking international students in an EFL classroom. As such, the study has

considerable pedagogical significance. The implementation of this study provides a template of sorts for how university EFL classrooms in Japan can generate inter-cultural contact and the results highlight the motivational and language learning benefits of face-to-face contact.

## **1.2. Personal motivation for the study**

As outlined above, this research is congruent MEXT's educational objectives related to the 'internationalization' of Japanese universities. However, the initial impetus for this study has emerged from a more personal place as an EFL instructor.

My career in language education has been reasonably diverse in that it has spanned multiple countries, age groups, and institution types. After moving from South Korea to Japan eight years ago, I find myself constantly evaluating the Japan teaching context, weighing the social, cultural, and political similarities and differences with other countries, trying to synthesize my experiences in order to inform my teaching practices. I've found that Japanese learners are often very confident in sharing with me how interested they are in learning English. Certainly, students and school administrators alike think of English as a valuable skill – even the nation's push to cultivate a 'global workforce' suggests that Japanese *should* be invested in learning English. However, so often my students' behavior does not reflect this positive attitude. Despite students *wanting* to learn and use English on some level, the reality is: English is not very useful in Japan, personally or professionally. Thus, one important goal for me as a teacher in Japan is finding new ways of making English relevant to my students' lives.

I was fortunate enough to begin my university English career at a rather unique environment – *Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University* in Kyushu, Japan. It was during my tenure here that I began to identify certain environmental attributes that seemed to stimulate students. The students I taught were first-year Japanese university students, who were thrust into a uniquely multicultural environment. At the time that I worked there, almost fifty percent of the student population was made up of international English-speaking students from nearly 100 countries. Furthermore, most of my students were living in a university dormitory where it was policy that Japanese students share a room with an international student. Thus, for all students, coping with regular inter-cultural encounters was an unavoidable part of campus life. From a teacher's perspective, it became clear to me that this environment provided an incredible stimulus for students: English became a necessary communication tool, contact with culturally different others led to friendships, resulting in changes in attitudes and behavior, and a tolerance

for – and even willingness to embrace – differences. Ultimately, this led to students who were engaged in my classroom.

In an effort to provide empirical evidence to support what I believed I was observing, I applied for and received a grant from the Japan Society for Promotion of Science, which funded an investigation that looked at the effect of different campus environments on Japanese students' motivation to learn English. Results of the study confirmed many of my personal observations – that inter-cultural contact plays a significant role in shaping Japanese students' motivation to study English. Specifically, Aubrey and Nowlan (2013) reported that more frequent, extended inter-cultural contact in a multicultural environment led to positive changes in students' attitudes towards the international community and affected students' feeling of obligation to learn English. These findings were interesting as they provided empirical support for creating inter-cultural contact opportunities at the university campus level. At the same time, they became a source of frustration for me because the study's results were of no immediate value for the vast majority of university English teachers in Japan, who teach on monolingual, monocultural university campuses. For these teachers, I was simply pointing out the benefits of a learning context that didn't exist – that, at least in the short term, widespread multicultural university campuses were not going to suddenly appear. I began to realize that the only way for these findings to have any substantial impact on English teaching is to devise a way to bring inter-cultural contact opportunities into the EFL classroom.

After starting my contract at a different university, whose cultural diversity – or lack thereof – was more typical of other campuses in Japan, I noticed there was a small pool of international students who largely kept to themselves. This presented me with a possible solution for generating inter-cultural contact opportunities in the language classroom: draw on the underutilized international student population. I began inviting international students into my classroom to participate in one-off activities with my Japanese students. These encounters were successful in that they seemed to induce a short-term boost in motivation where learners were observed to be more focused and 'on task' when the international students were present. It became apparent to me that if inter-cultural contact was provided within a supportive classroom environment and on a regular basis over a long enough period, many of the positive effects of contact I had previously only observed in the international university environment might be achieved at a more typical, non-international university. However, in order to make this pedagogical intervention relevant to teachers, I must document not only motivational effects, but

also how inter-cultural contact impacts classroom discourse and how the resulting interactions lead to learning outcomes.

The eventual research involved two EFL classes. Supportive ‘contact’ was provided via a series of language learning tasks over an 11-week period. Inter-cultural contact occurred when Japanese students performed tasks with international student interlocutors, while intra-cultural contact occurred when Japanese students performed with their peers. Comparing the effect of inter- and intra-cultural contact touches on various theoretical issues, which will be addressed in the next section.

### **1.3. Theoretical approach**

The theoretical issues considered by this research stem from a desire to provide a more comprehensive picture of the effect of inter-cultural contact. I do this by taking a process-product orientation, initially advocated by Long (1984), to account for both the process and product of pedagogical interventions. Thus, this research investigates L2 motivation and learning from a range of theoretical perspectives, which seek to shed light on how learners behave and feel *during* the process of separate inter-cultural interactions and the *resulting* product of the inter-cultural contact period.

One distinguishing feature of L2 motivation is the notion that it is valuable for learners to have an interest in or identification with the target language community, which is embodied in the concept of integrativeness (Gardner, 1985). However, the current prominent status of English as the world lingua franca as well as the mixing of cultures and languages at a global level means that an EFL learner’s desire to ‘integrate’ into a distinct language group is less meaningful than it was in the past. In response to this, researchers have attempted to reframe L2 motivation in terms of internal self-identification (Ushioda, 2011; Dörnyei, 2005). Related to this notion is Dörnyei’s (2005, 2009) ideal L2 self, which is an idealized version of the learners’ self in the future. According to Dörnyei, learners derive their motivation from the creation of future L2-learning selves and the desire to reduce the gap between their present and future states. Relevant to the Japanese context is international posture, which Yashima (2009) describes as a construct “reflecting the possible selves of a future English-using participant in an international community” (p. 157). Research has shown that Japanese EFL learners’ international posture can be positively impacted by face-to-face inter-cultural contact in an overseas volunteer context (Yashima, 2010), a study abroad context, and through ‘imagined’

inter-cultural contact in a classroom context (Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008). However, there is no study that has investigated how face-to-face inter-cultural contact influences international posture or the ideal L2 self in a classroom context.

Inter-cultural contact opportunities in this study were provided within a task-based framework. In contrast to studies that have employed theories associated with long-term changes in a learner's sense of self, research investigating motivation on the task-level take a more situated approach. Julkunen (1989) claims that a learner's motivation to engage during a task depends on the learner's cognitive abilities, emotional state, and task demands. Learners who experience high levels of task engagement have been observed to enter a state of flow (Egbert, 2003; Schmidt, Boraie & Kassabgy, 1996). Flow is described as "a subjective state that people report when they are completely involved in something to the point of forgetting time, fatigue, and everything else but the activity itself" (Csikszentmihalyi & Rathunde, 1993, p. 59). Dörnyei (2005) describes flow as the "optimal task experience" (p. 57). Although there is some evidence that flow is enhanced during online inter-cultural encounters (Egbert, 2003), research has not examined the degree to which face-to-face inter-cultural task interaction affects how learners generate flow.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) aims to develop learners' communicative competence through engaging them in meaning-focused communication (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). The Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1981, 1983, 1996), the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 1995, 2001), and the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1985, 1995, 2005) provide theoretical support for interaction-driven language learning. Swain (1985, 1995) argues that the act of being 'pushed' to produce language constitute an important part of the second language acquisition process. Furthermore, Swain (2000) claims that output during interaction allows learners to attend to form through noticing gaps in their interlanguage, providing opportunities to test hypotheses in the L2, and reflect on language problems. Swain's (2000) reinterpretation of 'pushed output' as collaborative dialogue represents a cognitive activity that mediates L2 learning. The characteristics of a learner's interlocutor may profoundly influence the kind of collaborative dialogue that emerges from task performances. Relevant to this study is the interlocutor's relative proficiency level and cultural/linguistic background. Research has shown that task-based interactions between interlocutors with considerable proficiency differences produce more favorable learning opportunities (e.g. Kim & McDonough, 2008; Fernández Dobao, 2012). However, in the context of Japan, there is also evidence that learner-learner

interaction is more conducive for language learning than when learners interact with native speakers (Sato & Lyster, 2007). Clearly, more research needs to be done in this area.

In terms of L2 motivation, the theoretical basis of this research drew on specific constructs related to the concept of future L2 selves to describe product-level motivational outcomes. In addition, Csikszentmihalyi's flow theory informed the process-level investigation into motivation. Regarding L2 learning, interactionist theories of SLA support the investigation into features of task interactions and self-perceived language learning. I believe this more holistic approach of integrating various theoretical perspectives provided a comprehensive picture of the effect of inter-cultural contact.

#### **1.4. Summary**

The motivation to undertake the research for this thesis came from the following three places:

- Policy changes at the university level that serve to internationalize education.
- A personal observation as a teacher/researcher that providing inter-cultural contact opportunities to EFL students in a classroom context often stimulates learners.
- Theoretical issues that remain underexplored, with a particular desire to integrate a variety of perspectives related to L2 motivation and learning.

The rest of the thesis is organized as follows: Chapter 2 introduces the Japanese educational context from a historical perspective, describes the specific institution in which this research takes place, and argues that English education at universities in Japan can directly benefit from research that looks at the effects of inter-cultural contact. Chapter 3 outlines relevant theories of L2 motivation and reviews how inter-cultural contact has been researched in this field. Chapter 4 provides an overview of TBLT, with a particular focus on 'inter-cultural' tasks, outlines the theoretical foundations of language learning through interaction, and reviews the studies that have looked at process features of task interaction and learning outcomes. Chapter 5 outlines the methodology of the study while Chapters 6 through 9 present the results and discussion of each research component. Chapter 10 concludes the thesis with a summary of findings and outlines the theoretical, pedagogical, and methodological implications, and limitations to the research.



## **Chapter 2. The Japanese educational context**

The research context of Japan has unique characteristics that make a study on inter-cultural contact particularly relevant. To a great extent, the norms, goals, and standards of education reflect a country's social and cultural context. In this chapter, I describe how Japan's current educational practices and policies have been considerably influenced by its relationship with the outside world. Specifically, I will argue that, historically, Japan has struggled to identify with foreign cultures, and this struggle has hindered its ability to create the conditions necessary to develop its citizen's inter-cultural communication skills. While these shortcomings have been recognized and recent educational reforms appear to address the need to internationalize its higher education institutions, progress has been slow. First, I will give a historical overview of Japan's relationship with 'the foreign', with emphasis on how Neo-Confucianism has influenced social education and how internationalism is being interpreted and applied to current educational reform. Next, I will discuss English education in Japan both at the pre-tertiary and university level. Finally, I will conclude this chapter with a description of the university at which this research was done. The aim of the chapter is to provide an in-depth overview of the research context, and in doing so, present Japan's educational system as one that would benefit from research-based attempts at integrating inter-cultural contact into English-language education.

### **2.1. Japan's relationship with 'the foreign'**

One characteristic that makes Japan an interesting research setting is its unique relationship and attitude toward foreign culture and people. In dealing with foreign relationships, Japan has always had a "highly selective opening to the world" (Kariya & Rappleye, 2010, p. 45). Despite its resistance to 'free-flowing' foreign influences, Japan has a history of merging its native traditions with foreign contribution. Arguably the longest lasting foreign legacy in Japanese education is Confucianism. Neo-Confucian ideals of self-cultivation and the pursuit of social harmony have been shaping education goals and classroom relationships in Japan since the earliest era of education. The periods of foreign influence since Japan's 'opening up' during the Meiji restoration have led to Japan's post-war push to internationalize, bringing with it a need for English education.

### 2.1.1. Confucianism

Though the first contact that Japan had with Europeans was thought to be in 1543 when a Portuguese sailor accidentally encountered Japan on a Chinese junk, contact with foreign culture started long before (Lidin, 2002). The Chinese legacy of Confucianism was introduced to Japan from Korea in the fourth century. Its early effects were primarily confined to the upper and noble classes; however, its associated literature, language, and morality have come to shape Japanese society.

From a general perspective, Confucius taught a set of pragmatic rules for daily life, which contained tenets related to four areas: the hierarchical relationships among people, the family as a basic unit, benevolence, and emphasis on education (Chen & Chung, 1994). According to Confucius, the full potential of a man is achieved when he sincerely pursues learning, loves his parents, and practices benevolent justice with those below him while respecting those above him. The result of adhering to these principles brings both personal fulfillment and a contribution to social harmony within society.

When things are investigated, knowledge is extended. When knowledge is extended, the will becomes sincere. When the will is sincere, the mind is correct. When the mind is correct, the self is cultivated. When the self is cultivated, the clan is harmonized. When the clan is harmonized, the country is well-governed. When the country is well-governed, there will be peace throughout the land (Great Learning, v. 1 as cited in Hadley, 1996, p. 64).

The idea of using Confucianism as a tool to establish social harmony first resonated with Japan during the Edo period from 1603 to 1867 (Hadley, 1996). As the *bushi* (samurai, warrior class) and *shogun* (military chief) rose to power, so did the need to enforce a strict vertical social code to keep order in war-torn Japan. This was successfully achieved by the Tokugawa government's development and implementation of Japan's own version of Neo-Confucianism – a fusion of Confucian concepts, militarism and Shintoism. *Shushigaku* (the Japanese interpretation of Neo-Confucianism) taught that a natural top-down hierarchy existed in nature. The Emperor held a divine position at the top of the hierarchy, followed by samurai and other skilled patriots, with commoners at the bottom. The common people were taught to maintain natural harmony by staying in their place and obeying their overseers. People of all classes were taught how to behave according to the new social code and order was strictly enforced.

The concept of a divine Emperor was abolished at the end of World War II, but the reliance on a strict social code to maintain order has continued to permeate every aspect of Japanese life.

#### **2.1.1.1. Confucianism and Moral Education in Japan**

With Japan's 1600-year history of Confucianism, it is only natural that it has become deeply intertwined with its education culture. In fact, Stapleton (1995) suggests that Confucianism is "arguably the single biggest influence on Japanese education" (p. 13). Alongside academic education, moral development has been a primary goal of Japanese education. Moral education is formally and informally taught in Japanese schools. MEXT specifies four areas of moral education in the elementary school curriculum: an awareness of oneself, an awareness of others, an awareness of nature and piety, and an awareness of one's roles and responsibilities as a member of society (MEXT, 2002). Arguably the most noticeable social trait cultivated by the Japanese education system is the need to regulate one's behavior in relation to the group. Through the performance of group activities, "students are more aware of their roles as members of society and thereby social skills and 'Rich Humanity' are cultivated" (MEXT, 2002).

Practical activities in schools are undertaken with the purpose of teaching students the connection between the individual and the group. Group work in class, participation in school cleaning, involvement in club activities and organizing school club events are carried out with a strict observance to a group social code. Within this unit, there is a well-defined hierarchy in which each student knows his or her place. The communication of ideas and the passing on of traditions are facilitated by the *senpai-kohai* (senior-junior) relationship, an important dynamic that extends from elementary school through to business life. Older students are responsible to guide their less experienced counterparts, thereby developing a sense of social responsibility. At the top of the social hierarchy of the school 'unit' is the teacher, whose position garners the unconditional obedience of students.

In addition to playing an important role in shaping the character of Japanese students, moral education has had profound implications on Japanese classroom culture. The emphasis of belonging to a group has led to sayings such as *Deru kugi wa utareru* (the nail which sticks up will be hammered) and *Chinmoku wa kin* (silence is gold), which are often used as a warning to students not to become too individualistic or outspoken so as to draw attention to oneself and

away from the group. Passive, reticent students who rarely express their opinions are an expression of this trait. This is facilitated by the student-teacher relationship, which traditionally sees the role of the teacher as one who imparts knowledge to the student who then receives it without question – a dynamic that has invariably led to teacher-centered classrooms and an emphasis on fact-based knowledge over creativity.

The role Confucianism plays in shaping the identity of Japanese in general, and the Japanese student specifically, is fundamental. Fostering an awareness of *life as a member of a group* is, according to MEXT, a goal of Japanese education. Itoh (1996) goes as far as to argue that the recognition of the exclusiveness of one's *in-group* in reference to another's *out-group* is the foundation of Japanese society. Applying this to a national scale, the next section discusses Japan (the *in-group*) and its struggle to relate to the world outside (the *out-group*).

## **2.1.2. Internationalization**

### **2.1.2.1. The Meiji Restoration**

Stronach (1995) defines sociocultural nationalism as a “psychological phenomenon by which individuals define themselves as members of a group” (p. xvii). Politically, Japan's record of isolation and attitudes towards the world has fostered intense loyalty to its group orientation. For 200 years prior to the Meiji Restoration 1868, the Tokugawa government implemented *sakoku* (policy of seclusion) that virtually stopped contact between the Japanese people and foreigners (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1994). In an effort to compete with the technological capabilities of the West, the Imperial government in 1872 enacted several policies aimed at modernizing Japan and opening it up to the world (Fujita, 1985). However, as Itoh (1996) points out, even in times of internationalization, Japan still clearly retains their *sakoku* attitudes towards foreigners and foreign influences. A large part of Japan's first push to internationalize at this time was to create a superior system for educating its citizens. The result was the launch of Japan's first major educational reform in 1872, the signing of *Gakusei*, or literally the “education plan” (Duke, 2009). The design of *Gakusei* involved an intense investigation of foreign education systems in hopes of finding an ideal model, which would enrich the country. Tanaka Fujimaru, one of many officials in charge of designing *Gakusei*, exemplifies the Japanese efforts to bring international education innovations to Japan.

During Tanaka's western sojourn with the Iwakura Mission, he collected many reports and took copious notes, devoting day after day to visiting schools in a dozen countries from kindergarten to the university. It was truly a remarkable experience that perhaps no other contemporary comparative educator could match from east or west (Duke, 2009, p. 133).

The eventual plan was based on the US education model, which promoted a utilitarian curriculum, but with a centrally controlled system copied from France and Germany. However, it was far more ambitious than either as it outlined compulsory elementary education for all children. Probably no other country in the world had attained that standard of education at the time (Duke, 2009, p. 134).

Article 5 from the *Gakusei* document best articulates Japan's international objectives at the time: "knowledge shall be sought all over the world, and the foundations of imperial rule shall be strengthened" (as cited in Huffman, 2013, p. 29). It also explicitly conveys Japan's use of internationalism to pursue a nationalist agenda.

#### **2.1.2.2. Kokusaika**

Over a century after the beginning of the Meiji period, an updated version of internationalization arose, which again had considerable impact on education reform. Throughout the 1980s and 1990s, the term *kokusaika* (internationalization) was popularized in Japanese media and education discourse (Schoppa, 1991). In order to develop Japanese who can "earn the trust of the international community", the following five purposes directed the reform (Aspinal, 2010):

1. The development of Japanese citizens who can live in the international community.
2. Promotion of international exchange and cooperation in education, sports, and culture.
3. Promotion of student exchange.
4. Expansion of Japanese language education for foreigners.
5. Improvement of education for Japanese children overseas and children returning from overseas.

On face value, the term 'internationalism' would seem to represent cooperation with the outside world and an acceptance of culture differences. However, scholars have debated whether *kokusaika* was designed to open Japan up or make it more insular (Aspinal, 2010; Kariya &

Rappleye, 2009; Horio, 1988). In many respects the term is ambiguous. Horie (2002, p. 65) explains *kokusaika* as a concept implying that “we change something about ourselves due to foreign influences.” Horio (1988) states that, “internationalization here means nothing other than Japan’s ambition to rise to a position of singular importance and power in the twenty-first century” (p. 365). Unlike the nationalist agenda of pre-war Japan, it seems that the type of nationalism pursued in the contemporary *kokusaika* era of Japan is particularly concerned with strengthening its cultural identity. Kariya and Rappleye (2009) explain the idea of internationalization in the context of education as follows.

Rather than ‘imagining’ say, what changes Japanese society would need to undergo to transform itself into a place to welcome immigrants or attract the best and brightest students and scholars worldwide, the discourse on educational reform has been largely dominated by a belief in the need to strengthen Japanese identity and love of country (p. 45).

The term internationalization is still used in discussions of Japanese education. However, since the late 1990s, it has been overtaken by the term *gurobaruka* (globalization) in media usage (Burgess, Gibson, Klaphake, & Selzer, 2010). The difference between the two terms represents a difference in the kind of foreign relations Japan seems to be experiencing.

The keyword in the discussion of Japan’s place in the world has shifted from “international” to global.” As the term global standard exemplifies, Japanese discourses of globalization have most notably revolved around the necessity for Japan to readjust itself to the new US-led global economic order (Iwabuchi, 2015, p. 50).

Regardless of the exact meaning of ‘internationalization’ and ‘globalization’, Japan is clearly struggling to connect with an increasingly connected world. On one level, these terms represent progressive development for Japan. However, when presented in the discourse of “coping with internationalization” or the need to reeducate “children returning from overseas”, there appears to be a streak of resistance to what is perceived to be the inevitable foreign forces. Because English is now the language of ‘the foreign’, it follows that the repercussions of this resistance extend to English language learning in Japan. How does Japan, which is separate and distinct from everything foreign, make sense of using the most dominant foreign language?

## **2.2. English education in Japan: The pre-university context**

### **2.2.1. The Japanese education system**

Upon Japan's surrender in World War II and until 1952, the Allied Forces strived to democratize Japan and demilitarize its social fabric. Education policies connected with Imperial colonialism were abolished. The basic principles for education in Japan are defined in the Japanese Constitution, enacted in 1946:

All people shall have the right to receive an equal education corresponding to their abilities, as provided for by law. The people shall be obligated to have all boys and girls under their protection receive general education as provided for by law. Such compulsory education shall be free (Article 26 as cited in MEXT).

Most major education reforms were retained in the years after the American occupation. During this time, Japan laid the foundation for a democratic and egalitarian ideology of schooling, and established a single-track 6-3-3 school system. The first 6 years of elementary school and 3 years of lower secondary school are officially compulsory. The OECD (2014) reports that 93% of students graduated from secondary school in 2012, making the last 3 years unofficially compulsory from the perspective of most households.

Praise is often given to Japan's education system for its high standards and graduation rates. Fujita (2004) acclaims, "Japan has achieved one of the highest quality levels of schooling in terms of enrollment ratios, retention rates, daily attendance, equality of opportunity, academic performance and caring students" (p. 2). While Japan produces socially responsible academic achievers at the elementary level, abundant criticism has been aimed at its secondary education for undue pressure students are put under as they prepare for entrance examinations (e.g. McCreedy, 2004; Rohlen, 1983; McVeigh, 2001). As implied by the commonly used term "examination hell", students undergo a highly competitive preparation process during their high school years to gain entry into universities. As a general observation, McCreedy (2004) writes about the "creativity problem" in Japanese education, where conformity, rote learning, and adherence to social hierarchy stifles the creativity of Japanese young people.

### **2.2.2. English education reforms**

Guidelines for the implementation of foreign language policies are laid out by MEXT

and communicated in the publication *Course of Study*, which has generally been revised every 10 years since 1946. English is just one of many foreign languages students could learn in Japanese schools, being afforded no official special status. In practice, though, English has always been the de facto choice for students as “most schools do not offer any other option” (Tsukahara, 2002).

A review of MEXT’s foreign language policies from 1946 to 2002 reveals Japan’s steady progression towards a goal of fostering “communicative language ability” in compulsory education (Kubota, 1998). The emphasis on memorization of words and the ‘ability to accurately imitate utterances’ has been gradually phased out by MEXT. This is evidenced by the significant decrease in the required English word list for high school students specified by MEXT from 5,700 in 1960 to 2,200 in 1989, which reflected a stronger commitment to the communicative purposes of language learning during this period (Tahira, 2012). The start of Japan Exchange and Teaching program in 1987 was a culmination of these policy changes and reflected Japan’s push to internationalize – a program that has since continued to bring native English speakers into school classrooms. This was followed by the introduction of oral communication courses in the high school curriculum, which aimed to “improve students’ ability to comprehend and express their ideas in English” (MEXT, 1989 as cited in Tahira, 2012, p. 4). In the last 10 years, policy changes have been worded in the context of globalization as MEXT recognizes that communication in English must be made a priority skill. In 2011, MEXT implemented compulsory English courses for elementary students, claiming that an expansion of English language education to younger children is necessary for “deepening their understanding of the language and culture, and fostering a positive attitude toward communication” (MEXT, 2011, p. 1). Policy changes have targeted the communicative ability of Japanese students in English and are indicative of the current attitude of frustration towards the status quo and the desire for change. Indeed, academics in Japan expected that English would “cease to be considered a knowledge-based subject” as it had long been (Yashima, 2002, p. 54)

The effort by the government to induce change is laudable. However, despite the efforts to increase the prominence of English education in Japan, there are clearly deficiencies in the way Japanese students learn English. Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) internet-based test results of Japanese give a concrete comparison of Japanese English skills with the rest of the world. In 2014, test-takers from Japan ranked 28 out of the 31 countries in Asia (ETS,



2014). Nakata (2006) blames these deficiencies on a failing system, observing that the “educational system has resulted in Japanese learners with weak English communication ability and low motivation to learning the language” (p. 166). Furthermore, reforms aimed at fostering communicative skills in high school have been widely criticized for not producing the intended outcomes (Brown & Wada, 1998; Gorsuch, 2000; Pacek, 1996; Sato, 2002; Taguchi, 2002; Taguchi, 2005; Wada, 2002). The failure of these reforms to repair the system as a whole has been attributed to the absence of teacher training (Nishino, 2011; Yamada, 2005), large class sizes (Gorsuch, 2000, 2001; Kurihara, 2008; Nishino, 2011), the pressure to conform to ‘standard’ teaching practices (Cook, 2009; Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004), and insufficient resources such as time and money to spend on training and developing teaching materials (O’Donnel, 2005; Sato & Kleinsasser, 2004). Regardless of the specific reasons, it seems painfully clear that English education is deeply flawed. In the words of Ryan (2009a), English education in Japan (still) appears to be in a “permanent sense of crisis” (p. 407).

### **2.2.3. Effects of an examination-based system on English**

The concept of testing memorized knowledge as a means of assessing one’s ability and resulting status has a long tradition in Japanese education. As Amano (1996) states, “one of the characteristics which the Japanese education system has consistently continued to have from its founding is its fierce competition for the examination” (as cited in Tsuneyoshi, 2001, p. 170). Outside the compulsory education level, students must pass an examination to enter the next level of schooling, with each level more competitive than the last. The effects of this examination-based system is reportedly felt on students as young as four or five who vie for positions in leading primary schools (Nagano, 2009). Rohlen (1983, p. 77) called the Japanese entrance examination system a “national obsession” as parents spend significant amounts of money sending their children to *juku* (cram schools) for sufficient preparation.

Acceptance into a reputable high-school is an important step in securing a spot at a prestigious university, which is a determining factor in securing a promising job. For most students, the university entrance exams are the last and most difficult hurdle to cross in Japan’s testing system. National universities and many private universities use the exam administered by The National Center for University Admissions, or Center Exam, as the standard for evaluating a student’s admission. In this exam, English makes up a high percentage of the total exam score. Criticism has been leveled at the English component of the Center Exam for its poorly designed,

discrete-item based measure of grammatical competence (Brown, 2002; Brown & Yamashita, 1995; McVeigh, 2001). However, in 2003, MEXT recommended that the exam should try to reflect a focus on testing ‘Japanese with communicative abilities’; as a result, a listening component was included in 2005. Guest (2008) gave a relatively positive review of the reformed Center Exam, stating that it is “not inconsistent with its broader educational aims nor with sound pedagogical and testing theory” (p. 103). He attributes the moderate improvements to a gradual shift from a limited discrete-item focus to extended texts in the reading section and the inclusion of a listening portion. However, others’ views of attempts to reform the examination are less than positive. As Wray (2008) explains: “Because of entrance examinations’ harmful influences, reforms of a tinkering nature are attempted periodically; however, often they create an even worse affect on secondary schools” (p. 132).

Any positive washback from the university entrance examination reforms is yet to be seen. Preparation for these tests has resulted in a version of an English in Japan known as *juken Eigo* (English for tests). Ryan (2009a) describes this testable form of English as “English stripped of its function as a system of human communication and bears little relation to varieties of English used outside Japanese classrooms” (p. 408). This abstract, decontextualized English fits well with the popular teaching method in Japanese high schools, *yakudoku* – or grammar-translation method. Teachers of this method focus almost exclusively on the word-by-word translation of literary texts from English into Japanese (Gorsuch, 1998, 2001). Sakui (2004) describes a typical English class in high school:

Teachers spent most of the class time involved in teacher-fronted grammar explanations, chorus reading and vocabulary presentations. Students attended to teachers’ explanations, learnt to translate at the sentence level, read the textbooks aloud in choral reading, copied vocabulary items in their notebooks, and engaged in sentence manipulation exercises. This practice is understandable when so much emphasis is placed on preparing students for grammar-skewed entrance examinations. (p. 159)

Other studies have painted a similar picture of high school English classes (e.g. Gorsuch, 1998; Taguchi; 2005). By focusing on the testable aspects of English in the classroom, the communicative value of the language is reduced. Because classes emphasize examination preparation in this manner, the intensity of motivation to learn English often is thought to hit a peak in in the final year of high school (Berwick & Ross, 1989).

## **2.3. English education in Japan: The university context**

The university sector, arguably the least regulated area of education in Japan, has a much less clear role in Japanese society. Literature on the quality of Japanese higher education tends to be more negative than positive. In terms of academics, students, according to McVeigh (2002), are rarely pushed to excel in their studies once they have matriculated to their chosen university. Characterizations of Japanese universities using terms such “motivational wasteland” (Berwick & Ross, 1986 p. 206) and “leisure land” (Clark, 2010) reflect the relaxed nature of university life for many students. Sugimoto (2010) describes Japanese universities as a 4 year “moratorium” where students “exhausted, both mentally and physically, by examination hell... seek relaxation” (p. 149). The consequences of this environment on education at Japanese universities are bleak. In order to appease demotivated students, practices such as automatic passing of weak students, an emphasis of fun over work, and a general lack of quality control within the classroom have been criticisms, often coming from foreign teachers. Poole (2010) describes the state of universities in Japan as “a potential Achilles heel in the fine-tuned engine that is the Japanese state and economy” (p. 149).

What is the role of Japanese universities? As of 2010, the number of institutions in Japan has almost exactly met the supply of students seeking university spots (Goodman, 2010). The effect of this is a firmly established hierarchy of universities in Japan whose purpose is to filter students into the job market. If the rigor of entering a university successfully positions students into their assigned place in society, then the incentives to continue the Confucian-based ideals of persistence, diligence and hard work disappears. Ryan (2008) interprets the role of universities in Japan as “something akin to a pre-school for adulthood” (p. 26) – a holding station where students await their predetermined responsibilities of life after school.

### **2.3.1. English at Japanese universities**

Just as there is a sharp contrast between pre-tertiary and tertiary education systems in Japan, students experience a different type of English when they transition from high school into university. As previously explained, classroom English in high school is dedicated to passing examinations and therefore presented to students in discrete pieces of linguistic knowledge. Students’ expectations of English learning, at the university level, therefore, can be somewhat difficult to predict.

Perhaps the largest-scale study aimed at describing the beliefs about language learning of Japanese learners of English was that of Sakui and Gaies (1999). In a 45-item survey administered to almost 1300 Japanese university EFL students, the study found that “many of the respondents’ beliefs about learning English correspond to the distinction which many teachers would make between traditional and contemporary approaches to language teaching and learning” (p. 473). In other words, students preferred either a traditional approach to learning English, such as a focus on grammatical rules and translation skills, or they had a preference for communicative classes that were meaningful, practical, and fun.

There seems to be a genuine push to bring the communicative abilities of students in university up to a satisfactory level. In fact, MEXTs 2008 “action plan to cultivate Japanese with English language abilities” states that, “average university graduates should be able to use English at a professional level in their work” (as cited in Kashihara, 2009, p. 1). How this is achieved varies from university to university. However, as Matura, Chiba, and Hilderbrandt (2001) point out, English teachers at Japanese universities tend to adopt more innovative communicative approaches. Mandatory first and second year English courses designed to improve English communication skills are primarily taught by native or near-native English speakers who have often graduated from postgraduate TESOL or applied linguistics programs outside of Japan. This leads to a very different classroom experience. To some students, this may be “meaningful, fulfilling, practical and fun”, but for many others the world of English is still too far detached from their daily routines to have any significant meaning.

### **2.3.2. The Global 30 Project**

Japan’s effort thus far in connecting to the world outside has been limited by its unflinching desire to preserve its national identity. As a result, the concepts of internationalization and globalization for most students are vague notions that bear little personal relevance. Only a handful of the 765 public and private universities in Japan offer an international environment where English is a medium of communication inside and outside of the classroom (e.g. Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University; Akita International University). In 2012, only 3.3% of students enrolled in tertiary education were international students, while the OECD average was 8.0% (OECD, 2015; OECD, 2014). Similarly the increase in the number of foreign students enrolled at Japanese universities between 2005 and 2010 was only 12%, compared with the OECD average of 92% (OECD, 2012). The resulting effect is university

campuses that provide, from the point of view of an average Japanese university student, relatively monocultural experiences in which English is, for the most part, out of context.

In recent years, nationwide campaigns have attempted to provide more international learning opportunities to Japanese university students (Yonezawa, 2014). The Global 30 project was MEXT's first – and arguably most ambitious – effort to internationalize tertiary education. Enacted in June 2008, it was a 15 billion yen project aimed at upgrading 30 of Japan's top existing institutions into an “an attractive environment for overseas students, while fostering students and researchers capable of playing active international roles” (JSPS). To date, it is the culmination of the globalization movement as it relates to education reform in Japan. Specifically, selected institutions received annual funding to take the following action:

1. Offer degree-granting programs with English as the language of instruction.
2. Reinforce a support system for international students on and off campus
3. Provide a greater number of opportunities for international students to appreciate Japanese culture and language.
4. Establish university offices outside Japan to aid in recruiting international students and encouraging Japanese students to study abroad.

Selected universities were given grants to achieve the above objectives. The first action of creating English-content courses at Japanese universities is particularly ambitious, and will most likely become its landmark policy. As English-based degree programs are rare in Japan, implementing this action may indeed change the landscape of education at Japanese universities. The fourth action above reflects Japan's urgency in not just recruiting international students from overseas into Japan, but also revitalizing interest in Japanese who want to study abroad. Japanese students who study abroad have been in steady decline. In 2012, 60,138 Japanese students studied overseas – a considerable decrease from 82,945 in 2004 (MEXT, 2015). Encouraging Japanese students to take English-content courses in preparation to study abroad is a secondary goal of the initiative.

To push forward this goal, in 2010, MEXT announced a new funding for the Project for Promotion of Global Human Resource Development (Global 30 Plus). While the Global 30 project was mainly concerned with creating programs to attract degree-seeking international students, the Global 30 Plus focuses on language education, the encouragement of Japanese students to study overseas, and the promotion of ‘global awareness’ within existing programs.

The following objectives are outlined by MEXT (2012, p. 13):

1. Cultivate and promote global readiness and awareness
2. Promote educational ability and awareness of faculty members globally
3. Improve organizational systems for student services to promote study abroad
4. Create a comprehensive approach to improve language skills of students from entry to graduation

Forty universities were selected to receive Global 30 Plus grants in 2012. The research site for this study, Kwansei Gakuin University, was one of these universities <sup>1</sup>.

#### **2.4. Research site: Kwansei Gakuin University**

Kwansei Gakuin University (KGU) is a private coeducational institution with six campuses located throughout Japan and a student enrollment of over 23,000 fulltime students. KGU, like many private universities in Japan, is just one part of a comprehensive educational institution that offers schooling at all pre-tertiary levels. Kwansei Gakuin, the educational conglomerate, includes a senior high school, junior high school, elementary school and kindergarten. Most students who graduate from Kwansei Gakuin High School are guaranteed placement at KGU. Therefore, students who wish to be matriculated from within the institution can bypass the university entrance examination process. KGU is highly regarded for its academic standards.

In 2011, KGU was selected as a Global 30 Plus grant recipient. Consequentially, university-wide initiatives have been undertaken to develop new language programs and promote overseas study and exchange programs. Specifically, the grant has motivated the following action plan:

The establishment of the new International Initiative Team, boosting numbers of students studying abroad, reinforcing its English Programs, expanding its partnerships with universities around the world, and working with International Organizations such as United Nations Volunteers to send more students on International Cooperation activities (KGU, 2013).

Global-30 Plus related activities are primarily concentrated at KGUs largest campus: Uegahara. At time of the data collection (fall semester, 2013), 590 of the campus's 16,776 students were

enrolled as international students (131 short-short study abroad students and 459 degree-seeking students), with 35 countries represented in the student body (KGU, 2014). The international student body represents 3.5% of the student population, which is typical for universities in Japan. Though the Global 30 Plus grant is primarily concerned with internationalizing the Japanese student population through sending students abroad, the international student population will almost certainly increase as a result.

## **2.5. Summary**

This chapter has given a historical overview of Japanese education, with particular focus on Japan's relationship with the outside world. Japan has had a successful history of acquiring foreign knowledge and beliefs; however, they have always done so on their own terms. An adherence to in-group norms coupled with a lack of inter-cultural contact has left Japan struggling to cope with the fluid culture-flows of globalization. The research reported in this thesis attempts to connect Japanese students with representatives of the international student population – an intervention that ‘cuts to the heart’ of many of these issues.

University EFL classrooms in Japan are a microcosm of this struggle. Unsuccessful educational reforms, which tend to be top-down and of a tinkering nature, have plagued English education, reflecting a resistance to change a system that is built on Japanese traditional norms. Upon entering university, many students have a positive attitude toward exploring the communicative aspect of English and understand that English can be meaningful outside of standardized tests. However, like the society as a whole, university campuses in Japan are more or less devoid of any chances to use English, severely hindering students from ever imagining themselves as functional English-users. The research attempted here is an effort to counter these traditional practices by bringing a multicultural environment into the EFL classroom.

The *Global 30* and *Global 30 Plus* projects represent MEXT's most significant push to internationalize Japanese universities. In line with the objective of promoting “global awareness” and creating Japanese students who play “active international roles”, this study aims to utilize existing international students in order to facilitate inter-cultural contact at a Japanese university.

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## Notes

<sup>1</sup> Since the research was conducted at KGU (fall, 2013), MEXT has concluded the Global 30 and Global 30 Plus programs. However, they have replaced these projects with the ‘Super Global Universities program’ in 2014. MEXT awarded grants to universities in two categories. Thirteen ‘Type A’ universities received grants with the purpose of developing their institutions into ones that could be ranked in the world’s top 100 universities. Twenty-four ‘Type B’ universities received grants in order to “lead the internationalization of Japanese society” (MEXT, 2014). KGU was among the ‘Type B’ grant recipients.



## **Chapter 3. Motivation to learn a foreign language**

Motivation concerns the direction and magnitude of human behavior; that is, it is responsible for the reasons behind an action, the length of time engaged in an activity, and the intensity with which the activity is pursued (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 4). While motivation in the field of psychology has had a long history extending back to the early 1930s, the first studies into L2 motivation were not being reported until the 1960s. L2 motivation, therefore, has drawn on the wealth of knowledge contained within ‘mainstream’ (i.e. psychology) motivation. However, because L2 motivation acknowledges the unique social and psychological behaviors associated with communicating across cultures, it has evolved into a largely independent field.

This chapter will outline theories of L2 motivation that were either utilized in this research or were particularly influential in its conception. Specifically, this review of relevant literature will be largely confined to the following areas:

1. Process-oriented views of motivation
2. The L2 motivational self system
3. International posture

However, I will ‘bookend’ this chapter with what I believe to be two areas important for the framing of this research. Firstly, the social psychological approach will be discussed in an effort to provide background for the ‘re-theorizing’ movement of contemporary research. Lastly, studies involving the impact of inter-cultural contact on motivation will be reviewed in order to connect theories of motivation to the crux of this study. Throughout this chapter, I will make reference to the process and product orientation of past research.

### **3.1. Social psychological approach**

Prior to 1959, studies on second language learning supported the notion that intelligence and aptitude were the main predictors of successful L2 acquisition (e.g. Carroll, 1958). Language aptitude tests were believed to accurately determine who had the potential of learning additional languages. Gardner and Lambert’s (1959) seminal investigation of English speaking students learning French in Montreal, however, posited a ‘rethinking’ of what can determine a successful language learner. Their study found that, in addition to aptitude, motivation, deriving from a specific attitude toward the target language community, significantly contributed to

successful L2 learning. Following this direction, a social psychological perspective shaped L2 motivation for the next three decades. This approach recognizes that language learning is inherently social and that language is associated with social identification. This ‘social dimension’ was a sharp divergence away from motivation approaches in the field of psychology (i.e. mainstream motivation) at the time, which was primarily concerned with cognitive theories. As Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) point out, “it was only much later that socio-contextual perspectives began to inform mainstream motivational psychology” (p. 40). In this sense, Gardner’s work clearly distinguished the learning of a language from the learning of other subjects or skills.

### **3.1.1. Socio-educational model**

Subsequent studies based on Gardner’s pioneering approach resulted in the proposal of Gardner and Smyth’s (1975) socio-educational model of second language acquisition, which has undergone numerous revisions since (Gardner, 1979; Gardner, 1985; Gardner & McIntyre, 1993; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995; Gardner, 2010). Gardner (2010) states that in its simplest form, the socio-educational model is based on the idea that learning a second language “involves taking on features of another cultural community” (p. 2).

At the heart of the socio-educational model is the concept of *integrative motivation* (Gardner, 2001), which was originally presented as “integrative motive” (Gardner, 1985). According to the model, integrative motivation is made up of three correlated variables: *integrativeness*, *attitudes toward the learning situation*, and *motivation*. Integrativeness reflects a “genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer the other language community” (Gardner, 1985, p. 5). This includes a spectrum of social identification possibilities, ranging from an openness and respect for the other cultural group to a complete identification with the target community in place of one’s own original group. ‘Attitudes towards the learning situation’ involves any attitudes towards the teacher, course, classmates, class materials or activities taking place in the situated learning context. Motivation, in the model, refers to the driving force in any situation. According to Gardner, motivated learners need to expend effort, possess learning goals, and enjoy the task of learning a language. Together these three components make up integrative motivation, which, along with a learner’s aptitude, predict L2 language achievement.

Gardner recognizes that there may be other support for motivation not associated with

integrative motivation. Under the label *other support*, Gardner places *instrumental motivation* among other variables, such as a stimulating L2 teacher. In contrast to learning an L2 because of a desire to “integrate” into some target language community, instrumental motivation refers to learning an L2 primarily for the sake of potential tangible gains associated with L2 proficiency. “Since the intent is to focus attention on the role of integrative motivation” (Gardner, 2001, p. 7), the socio-educational model largely ignores all other motivational variables.

The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery was developed by Gardner to measure several affective factors involved in L2 learning, including integrative motivation and its subcomponents. Originally developed to assess the factors involved in the learning of French as a second language in Canada (Gardner, 1985), it has been used repeatedly to investigate L2 motivation from a product-oriented perspective in a variety of learning contexts. Some of these include foreign languages (e.g., Inbar, Donitsa-Schmidt & Shohamy, 2001), bicultural excursion programs (e.g., Desrochers & Gardner, 1981), acculturation (e.g. Masgoret & Gardner, 1999), and English as a foreign language (e.g., Lamb, 2004). It is clear that studies based on the socio-psychological model have provided useful insights into the structure of the integrative motive across different contexts and have established that motivation is related to language achievement.

### **3.1.2. Criticisms of the socio-educational model**

Until the 1990s, the socio-educational model had been widely accepted among the language education community. However, its long-term dominance gave way to a number of valid criticisms. The main arguments against Gardner’s model are outlined below:

- *The cause and effect of integrative motivation.* One of the first critics of Gardner’s model was Au (1988) who raised doubts about many of the theory’s hypotheses. She points out a lack of longitudinal studies used to support the claim that integrative motivation is related to L2 achievement. She posed the possibility of integrativeness being simply a by-product of L2 proficiency.
- *The relevancy of integrativeness.* Recalling the definition of integrativeness – “a sincere and personal interest in the people and culture represented by the other group” (Gardner & Lambert, 1972) – there is a clear implication that “the other group” is one distinct language community that is easily recognizable to the language learner. The concept of

the target language community loses its explanatory power in the EFL context where there is no clear target community and ownership cannot precisely be determined (Widdowson, 1994).

- *Situated aspects of motivation are ignored.* Crookes and Schmidt (1991) argued that the product-oriented approach of the model could not explain the fact that “teachers would describe a student as motivated if he or she becomes productively engaged in learning tasks, and sustains that engagement, without the need for continual encouragement and direction” (p. 480). This is echoed by Dörnyei’s (1994) remarks that “increasing the classroom relevance of motivation research is certainly a worthwhile objective” (p. 418).

Gardner (2010) has attempted to “set the record straight” (p. ix) by responding to critics, but has ultimately recognized the limitations of his model:

It is not intended to provide explanations to individual teachers as to why or why not some of their students are more or less successful than others, or to give teachers advice on how to motivate their students, or to provide reasons to students to help them understand their success or own lack thereof (p. 26).

In light of these limitations, L2 motivation research took a significant turn. The following section will describe more situated approaches, which tend to adopt a process-oriented view of motivation.

### **3.2. Towards a process-oriented theory of motivation**

Starting in the 1990s, the shift away from Gardner’s model manifested itself in the so-called cognitive-situated period, which saw L2 motivation as less a measurable product and more as a process of engagement over time, which made research more applicable to the language classroom.

This shift occurred at a time when there was an influx of literature on task-based language teaching (e.g. Crookes & Gass, 1993; Long, 1989). In simple terms, tasks are classroom activities that elicit meaningful use of the target language and direct that use towards some final outcome (see Chapter 4, section 4.1.1. for a detailed definition of a task). As Dörnyei (2002) explains, “taking tasks as the basic level of analysis is... a logical step in the study of motivation to learn a foreign/second language” (p. 137). By focusing on tasks, researchers are

able to break down the complex, prolonged learning process into discrete segments with well-defined boundaries. In addition, situated learning activities such as tasks have the ability to motivate students (e.g. Dörnyei, 1994) as motivation in the classroom context “can be seen as a continuous interaction between learner and the environment” (Julkunen, 2001, p. 29). Thus, investigating how learners control and regulate their engagement during task performances is an important aspect of understanding motivation from a process-oriented perspective.

Dörnyei (2002), however, took the view that the temporal organization of motivation needed to be emphasized. In other words, theories of motivation needed to take into account the ebbs and flows of motivation over time. This gave way to the process model of motivation that seeks to examine the dynamic motivational processes during task performance.

### **3.2.1. The process model of motivation**

Williams and Burden (1997) first made the important conceptual distinction between motivation in preparation for engagement (choices, wishes, reasons, intentions, decisions) and motivation during engagement (how one feels, behaves and responds during the process of learning). However, it was Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) who applied it in the development of their process model of L2 motivation, which looks at a learner’s motivation to complete a task from a temporal perspective.

The process model of motivation (Dörnyei, 2000; Dörnyei and Ottó, 1998) emphasizes the importance of executing goal-directed behavior, and recognizes that motivation is evolving and changing in time. Based on Heckhausen and Kuhl’s Theory of Action Control (1985), the process model divides the motivation process into three phases: the preactional phase, the actional stage and the postactional stage. Whereas the preactional and post actional phases involve goal setting and evaluation, the actional stage involves a series of decisions on whether to act (i.e. volitional control). These stages suggest a temporal continuum that divides a task event into separate sequences. Each phase is outlined below.

- *Preactional Phase:* Motivation during this stage is generated through the actions of goal setting, intention formation, and the initiation of intention enactment. In other words, learners must ready themselves to act in the direction of the task goal and commit with to initiating the task activity. The end of this phase culminates in what Heckhausen and Kuhl (1985) call the “action-launching impulse” (p. 137) in which the learner begins to engage in

the task itself.

- *Actional Phase*: The resulting action begins here in which three sub-processes occur: generation of subtasks and implementation, appraisal, and action control. While learners are engaged in executing a task, they continuously monitor and appraise their progress, and if slowing, halting, or backsliding occurs, they activate the action control system to save or enhance performance. The end of the actional stage will result in some form of actional outcome, which will conclude the task participation.
- *Postactional Phase*: This stage entails the evaluation of the accomplished action outcomes. Learners have stopped their action and have compared their initial expectancies with their actual outcomes. At this stage, learners are active in making inferences about possible future actions and “develop a stable identity as a successful learner” (Boekaerts, 1988 as cited in Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998, p. 51).

The breaking up of motivation into different stages of a task is congruent with Julkunen (2001), who states that “task level motivation should ideally be studied in three stages: the initial stage, the actual performance stage, and the evaluation stage” (p. 37).

At the heart of the process model is the actional phase. This phase is considered crucial, as it is where learners maintain and protect their motivation during the actual performance of the task. The success of the learning processes during interaction determines how learners appraise their task performance and how they approach future tasks. Dörnyei (2002, 2005) refers to the actional processes involved during this stage as the *task processing system*. The task processing consists of task execution (an action in accordance to an initial action plan), task appraisal (evaluation of actions in reference to a final hoped-for outcome) and action control (strategies activated to improve learning-specific actions). This tripartite model implies that “the quality and quantity of any task outcome will be determined by the interplay of the three components” (Dörnyei & Tseng, 2009, p. 119). The “quantity and quality” of task outcomes has been the focus of several recent studies which have attempted to measure dynamic task engagement in terms of language output (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000; Dörnyei, 2002; Kormos & Dörnyei, 2004).

In a small study using 46 Hungarian high school students, Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) looked at the effects of a number of affective and social variables as well as the interrelationship of EFL learners’ engagement in oral dyadic tasks. Using objective measures of learners’ language output (size of speech and number of turns) during the performance of classroom

tasks, it frames motivation as “the antecedent of action rather than achievement” (p. 281). Determining learner engagement through language production more directly relates motivation to situated language behavior during a task than other studies that use global proficiency or course-achievement measures. They found that the strength of learners’ interrelationships did not have an impact on the level of task engagement. Furthermore, learners who reported a negative attitude towards the task but a positive attitude toward the course in general participated more actively than those who had both a negative attitude toward the task and the course.

In a follow-up study to Dörnyei and Kormos (2000), Dörnyei (2002) re-analyzed the data in order to investigate the motivational impact of the task-partner on the learner’s performance. Task engagement was again determined by the size of speech produced and the number of turns the participants used during the interaction. Findings indicated that in communicative L2 tasks that involve more than one participant, the interlocutors motivation is a strong factor affecting the learner’s appraisal and action control processes. In other words, “task motivation is co-constructed by the task participants” (p. 156). A shortcoming of the two studies above is that they analyzed task engagement by looking at only quantity of speech, thereby ignoring other linguistic variables that could demonstrate different levels of participation in the task. Kormos and Dörnyei (2004) re-analyzed the data further to look at motivational factors that affect the quality and quantity of student performance. They concluded that task motivation strongly impacts students’ engagement in the task, but it was only the attitudes that individual learners had towards the course that had a beneficial effect on the accuracy and complexity of output.

Further empirical evidence for the task processing system came from Dörnyei and Tseng’s (2009) attempt to validate the model using Chinese and Taiwanese EFL students’ self-reported measures of task execution, action control, and appraisal mechanisms. Two hundred and fifty nine participants completed a questionnaire on vocabulary learning that operationalized task execution as vocabulary learning achievement, action control as self-regulatory capacity, and appraisal as satisfaction, helplessness, skillfulness and self-efficacy. The resulting structural equation model supports the circular process of motivational task processing (Figure 3) for expert learners. However, results indicated that novice learners had trouble effectively appraising their ongoing achievement. Dörnyei and Tseng (2009) suggest that for dyadic interaction, novice (i.e. beginning-level) learners, who may have trouble with the appraisal

process, may not be able to be “pulled along” by more competent task partners.

One component of this study adopts a situational view of motivation. Furthermore, it is process-oriented in that it examines the task experience of learners over a series of tasks within the treatment period. The specific construct used is related to the actional phase of task motivation and is described below.

### **3.2.2. Motivational flow**

When learners are engaged in task performance, they may experience flow. Developed by Csikszentmihalyi (e.g. 1990, 1997), flow is “a subjective state that people report when they are completely involved in something to the point of forgetting time, fatigue, and everything else but the activity itself” (Csikszentmihalyi, Abuhamdeh, & Nakamura, 2005, p. 57). From the perspective of self-determination theory, Deci and Ryan (1985) state that, “flow represents a descriptive dimension that may signify some of the purer instances of intrinsic motivation” (p. 29). Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) describe flow as the “optimal task experience” in which people have a “heightened level of motivated task engagement” (p. 94). The state of flow is attained while people are at their most active or creative while being completely immersed in a task. Dörnyei and Ottó (1998) explain that flow is a result of learners successfully carrying out the actional phase of a task. Relating this to the task processing system, flow is the state in which task execution, appraisal, and action control processes are functioning at peak levels.

Researchers in psychology have attempted to identify and examine antecedents of flow and have found a wide range of factors that may induce flow states. Some of these include the nature of the activity, concentration on the task, and a positive mood (Massamini, Csikszentmihalyi, & Delle Fave, 1988; Mandigo & Thompson, 1998; Mitchell, 1988). However, only a handful of studies have investigated flow in the context of language learning.

Schmidt and Savage’s (1992) study on the flow experiences of Thai EFL students, compared participants’ English learning experiences with other work and leisure activities. They found that flow did occur in many contexts for these learners, including their language learning experiences both inside and outside of class. Similarly, Schmidt, Boraie and Kassabgy (1996) found that Egyptian EFL learners experienced flow during language learning tasks. In perhaps the most influential study on the role flow on SLA, Egbert (2003) investigated whether flow exists in foreign language classrooms. Thirteen secondary school students of Spanish participated in the study. Students performed seven tasks that focused on various skills (reading,



discussion, electronic chats, email exchange) with the performances being organized in various ways (individual, small group, whole group). Observational data, a post-task perception survey, and interviews were used to determine whether flow occurs in the classroom and the kinds of tasks that facilitate flow. She concluded that it is clear that flow does exist in the language classroom, and suggests that flow occurs when the following conditions are met:

1. There is a perceived balance of task challenge and participant skills during the task,
2. The task offers opportunities for intense concentration and the participants' attention is focused on the pursuit of clear task goals,
3. The participants find the task intrinsically interesting or authentic, and
4. The participants perceive a sense of control over the task process and outcomes.

Based on these conditions, Egbert describes flow as having four 'dimensions': challenge and skills, attention, interest, and control. In light of these findings, Egbert (2003) proposed that, "teachers can theoretically facilitate the flow experience for students by developing task that might lead to flow" (p. 513). She does temper her conclusions with statements such as "we cannot fully explain it" (p. 513) and "this preliminary finding does not tell us if one dimension is more substantial than others" (p. 513), which indicates that flow may be a difficult phenomenon to describe. For future research, she warns that "there is no objective way to measure flow precisely" and that "participant recall alone does not provide sufficient evidence to capture flow experiences" (p. 508). It seems clear that multiple data sources are necessary in order to determine the nature of flow resulting from classroom tasks. A minor but notable conclusion from Egbert's (2003) study is that "participants found that interacting with native Spanish speakers in Spanish... facilitated their flow experiences" (p. 513). This is of relevance to this study because the tasks that are implemented involved inter-cultural interaction.

Egbert (2003) also proposed a theoretical model of flow and language learning. In fact, she suggests that "flow and language learning occur in many of the same conditions" (p. 507). According to the model, flow leads to intense, focused behaviors during task performances, and motivates a person to use productive behaviors, which causes improvements in skills and learning. When learners are involved in dialogic, oral tasks (as they are in this study), the intense concentration that characterizes a flow state may manifest in heightened interactivity (e.g. increased turn-taking). High levels of attention during this kind of task performance could create an optimal environment for learners to focus both on language meaning and form –

conditions that are supported by theories of interactionist theories of SLA (see Chapter 4, section 4.3.1. for a detailed discussion).

This study employs the construct of flow to look at how inter-cultural contact affects learners' motivation over a series of task performances. As part of the concluding Chapter, I will draw on Egbert's (2003) model of flow and language learning in relating both motivation language learning.

### **3.3. L2 motivational self system**

#### **3.3.1. Reframing integrativeness**

Process-level motivation has mainly concerned itself with situated activities, such as task, over relatively short periods of time, and has thus taken L2 motivation away from its origins of social identification. However, recently there has been a surge to reframe Gardner's integrative motivation and merge it with existing psychological frameworks (e.g. Ryan, 2008; Ushioda, 2011). Ushioda and Dörnyei (2009) describe this recent trend as potentially producing ideas of L2 motivation that are "radically reconceptualized and retheorized in the context of contemporary notions of self and identity" (p. 1).

In referring to Gardner's social psychological approach, Ryan (2008) argues that "it could appear misguided to turn back on an approach just as it appears to reap further rewards" (p. 81). In the same vein, MacIntyre, Mackinnon, and Clément (2009) claim:

... if the social psychological and political dimensions of language are drained away as the bathwater, we must be careful not to lose the conceptual baby, which is the relevance of those individual differences in the motivations to communicate with people who speak the target language. (pp. 45-46)

MacIntyre et al. (2009) highlight an identity element that correctly distinguishes L2 motivation from the motivation to learn other skills. However, if the social psychological approach is to be updated, the problem of integrativeness needs to be dealt with. Gardner (2001) explains that integrativeness exists as learners identify – to varying degrees – with the target community. The conceptual flaw, of course, is that L2 motivation is based on the notion of identity as being linked to a target community or group, which might have been true in the bilingual Canadian context when Gardner developed his model, but nowadays cultures are

overlapping and what constitutes a native and non-native speaker within those cultures is becoming more and more unclear. Pavlenko (2002) suggests a poststructuralist approach to social identification in the context of L2 research:

While socio psychological approaches theorize cultures as singular and stable, and individuals as making transitions and acculturating to the dominant culture, poststructuralist approaches recognize complex stratification in all societies and communities and acknowledge a range of, possibly multicultural, communities in which L2 users may seek membership. At times, these multiple memberships may coexist rather than be mutually exclusive as posited in the sociopsychological paradigm. This approach also recognizes that, in the process of L2 learning, L2 users may be creating new and distinct linguistic and ethnic identities, or even communities, that had not existed previously and where for a while no one may be a 'native speaker' of a particular language variety (p. 293).

As argued above, a binary world of separate and distinct cultural groups speaking the same language does not accurately depict the fluid mixing of languages and cultures in a globalized society. To further complicate matters – and render the idea of integrativeness even less useful – is the growing status of English as an international language and the resulting need for members of expanding circle countries to learn English.

This dilemma has prompted L2 motivation researchers, such as Ushioda (2011), to reframe integrativeness in terms of internal self-identification. Gardner's view sees motivated L2 learners as outsiders who wish to integrate into an external cultural group – something that is 'foreign', a representation of 'the other', in which the learner does not belong. This reconceptualization comes from changing 'other'/'external' to 'self'/'internal'; that is, our desire to participate in these 'other' worlds may be better explained in terms of our "desired self-representations as de facto members of these global communities, rather than in terms of identification with external reference groups" (Ushioda, 2011, p. 201). Ushioda's reframing allows us to conceptualize L2 motivation as a learners idea of 'self' operating as a member of a wider, globalized world. A language learners' sense of self thus becomes a changeable cognitive process that can be adjusted to operate in the fluid reality that exists around them. Just as a sense of self may change from being a teacher during the day to being a husband at night, so too does our language-using self change as we interact with different people from different backgrounds. In this way, L2 motivation is related to identity pursuits that are personally valued and that reflect how we relate ourselves to the social world (van Lier, 2007).

### 3.3.2. Possible selves and the L2 motivational self system

The most prominent L2 motivation theory related to these concepts of self and identity – and one that is integral to this research – is the L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005). The impetus for Dörnyei’s self system model came in response to incongruities in findings and the re-analysis of statistical data of English learners in Hungary (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005). To better explain the vague phenomenon of integrativeness, Dörnyei drew on the psychological notion of *possible selves*.

First explored by Markus and Nurius (1986), the concept of possible selves “pertains to how individuals think about their potential and their future” (p. 954). Markus and Nurius (1986) went on to define possible selves as “the ideal selves that we would very much like to become. They are also the selves we could become and the selves we are afraid of becoming” (p. 954). This creative cognitive process gives direction and intensity to an individual’s motivated behavior. A high school student, for example, who fears that he or she will not get into a prestigious university will manifest this fear into a very elaborate, vivid possible self – the self of having failed, unable to get a job due to lack of education, and without money to live. Similarly, a person who hopes of becoming a novelist does not only hold a vague notion of wanting to be a ‘good’ writer, but will conjure up a detailed possible self image of feeling accomplished, being respected by peers and possessing fame. Therefore, possible selves are inherently social; by interacting with our environment, fears and desires are created and directed into cognitive representations of self-states.

Higgins (1987) used self-discrepancy theory to explain how individuals move from their present self-state to some future desired, possible self-state. He proposed a model that depicts a person’s self concept as comprised of two parts: one’s own personal standpoint and the standpoint of a significant other. Within each perspective, there are three basic domains of the self: (a) *the actual self*, which is the representation of the attributes that someone believes you actually possess; (b) *the ideal self*, which is the representation of the attributes that someone would like you to possess; and (c) *the ought self*, which is the representation of the attributes that someone believes you should or ought to possess. These domains, according to self-discrepancy theory, are referred to as self-guides. Individuals are then motivated by their desire to reduce the discrepancy between their self-concept and their self-guides.

Dörnyei (2005) proposed an application of possible selves and self-discrepancy theory to

the field of L2 motivation in which L2 learners derive their motivation from the creation of future L2-learning selves and the desire to reduce the gap between their present and future states. The model's three components are the *Ideal L2 Self*, *Ought-to L2 Self*, and *L2 Learning Experience*. Dörnyei (2005) postulates that all three parts work to regulate a student's motivated learning behavior.

1. *Ideal L2 Self*, which is a learner's idealized version of him/her self in the future. It is what learners aspire to be in regards to their L2. This is a powerful motivator to learn an L2 as there is a desire to reduce the gap between the actual and ideal self.
2. *Ought-to L2 Self*, which describes the obligation of the learner towards others to learn a language. This component of motivation embodies the pressure to meet the language expectations of others, such as close friends and people in the learner's immediate community.
3. *L2 Learning Experience*, which encapsulates the learners attitudes towards their immediate learning environment, for example, interest in learning English or enjoyment of English classes. A learner's orientation towards learning English can be both influenced by their previous and current learning experiences

Two of these components (ideal L2 self and ought-to self) are borrowed and adapted directly from Higgins (1996). Ideal L2 self directs learners towards a state that is associated with "hopes, aspirations, advancements, growth and accomplishments" (p. 101); in other words, it is the self that L2 learners want to become (e.g. fluent in an L2, working abroad, watching movies without subtitles). Ideal L2 self is akin to Ushioda's (2011) re-interpretation of Gardner's integrativeness in that it is a cognitive self-representation of the learner functioning within an L2 speaking community. In contrast, ought-to L2 self directs learners away from the failure to live up to expectations and obligations of society. The ought-to L2 self corresponds closely with the extrinsic factors of instrumental motivation. Dörnyei (2009, 2010) describes ideal and ought-to selves as having a promotion function (to become a desired self-state) and prevention function (to avoid an undesirable self-state) respectively. The third component to round out the three-pronged framework, L2 learning experience, is conceptualized on a different level. Rather than representing a 'self guide', L2 learning experience reflects the impact that the immediate learning environment (e.g., the teacher, methods, classroom atmosphere) might have on a learner's motivation. As Dörnyei (2009) explains, the trigger for initial motivation commonly

comes from an engagement in the learning processes rather than from the generation of internal or external self-guides.

Several large-scale quantitative studies have validated the model proposed by the L2 motivational self system (e.g. Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Lamb, 2012; Ryan, 2008, 2009b; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009). Using self-report questionnaires to measure related variables, these studies have tested the model across different age groups (e.g. Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Lamb, 2012) and foreign language learning contexts outside of the Hungarian context (e.g. Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009). Many of these studies have been correlational or have employed structural equation modeling; thus the research from this perspective has often taken a product-oriented perspective. That is, measurement of self-guides represents static ‘snapshots’ of motivation at one particular time.

Ryan (2009b) conducted a study involving 2397 Japanese learners of English at both secondary and tertiary institutions in Japan. Measuring 18 motivational variables using a 100-item questionnaire, Ryan used a scale called intended effort as the principal measurement of motivated learning behavior. He found that the correlation between integrativeness and ideal L2 self to be “remarkably high”, indicating that the “two concepts may be tapping into the same pool of emotional identification that learners feel towards the values of the language and its speakers” (p. 132). Furthermore, analysis of how integrativeness and L2 ideal self performed across all variables led Ryan (2009b) to conclude that L2 ideal self has a more direct relationship with motivated learning behavior and can be more precisely measured than integrativeness.

His results also provided insight into the unique Japanese EFL context. By comparing his results to those measured for Hungarian students in Dörnyei’s (2005) study, he was able to pinpoint issues that were uniquely representative of Japanese English learners’ struggles to identify themselves with English-speaking communities. Ryan (2009b) notes that milieu (perceived expectations of others) correlates with intended learning effort much more weakly for Japanese learners than for learners in Hungary, which indicates a clear difference between the social environments of the two EFL contexts; namely, that there is little expectation from peers or non-authority figures to learn English in the Japanese context. Another insight from this study was the similar correlation value between *attitudes towards the English speakers (US)* and intended learning effort for both Japan and Hungary contexts. When Ryan reworded items for *attitudes towards the English speakers (US)* to convey *attitudes towards the English speakers* in

general (not specifically the US) the correlation increased significantly. Based on this result, Ryan (2009b) suggested that learners in Japan perceive the notion of global English-speaking community to be a more powerful motivating factor than the static notion of a target language community implied by the Gardner's integrativeness.

In a cross-cultural application of the L2 motivational self system, Taguchi et al. (2009) collected data from over 5000 learners of English in Japan, Iran and China. Similar to Ryan (2000b), results prompted Taguchi et al. to suggest that "integrativeness can be relabeled as ideal L2 self" because the "concept possesses increased explanatory power in foreign language contexts" (p. 86). Furthermore, Taguchi et al. revealed interesting cross-cultural differences in learners' self concepts between Iran, Japan, and China. First, the resulting structural equation models showed that the Japanese ought-to L2 self correlates more strongly with instrumental measures (e.g., studying English to pass examinations) compared to Iranian and Chinese self-concepts. His model also showed that the impact of Japanese *attitudes towards L2 culture and community* on ideal L2 self is almost twice as strong as from *instrumentality (promotion)* (the personal goals to learn English in order to get a better job). Taguchi et al. attribute this to the Japanese having a healthy attitude toward English speakers in the global community but a lack of awareness of how English can be useful in real life. Thus, this imbalance of the effect of the two components of ideal L2 self reflects the importance Japanese students place on having a personally agreeable English-self and a less than clear idea of how their English-self will function in the professional world. In a subsequent study, Taguchi (2013) elaborated on this phenomenon further, warning that unless Japanese learners perceive activities to be of practical value for their professional future, it is unlikely that "personally agreeable" classroom activities will strongly enhance their long-term motivation.

There has been significantly less discussion regarding ought-to L2 self's role in the self system model, with some studies leaving it out of investigations entirely (e.g. Taguchi, 2013). Whereas L2 learning experience and ideal L2 self have been shown to have an important relationship with language learners' motivation (e.g. Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Ryan, 2009b, Taguchi, 2013; Taguchi, et al., 2013), many studies have found a non-existent or tenuous connection between ought-to L2 self and L2 motivation (e.g. Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006; Kormos & Csizér, 2008). In fact, Lamb (2012) failed to identify the factor with any satisfactory measure of reliability. He explained that there could be "a potential weakness either in the construct or current methods of elicitation" (p. 1014). Alternatively,

ought-to L2 self may simply emerge as an important variable only in specific contexts.

In fact, some research does suggest that robust and vivid self-guides may evolve over time and are influenced by different social contexts. Lamb (2012), who looked at the motivation of Indonesian junior high school students, found only a “partial endorsement” of the importance of ideal L2 self in motivating young learners, indicating that the relationship between English and a future self may emerge at a later age (p. 1014). Similarly, Pigott (2012), who applied the L2 motivational self system to the Japanese high school context, found students lacking a “clearly envisioned ideal L2 self” (p. 547). Instead, her data revealed Japanese high school students were more strongly directed by their ought-to L2 self. Pigott attributes this to a psychological response resulting from “the relentless pressure to secure university entrance” (p. 545). Irie and Brewster (2013) took a multiple-case study approach to investigate how the ideal L2 self functions as a self guide at the university level in Japan. They found that a wide-range of experiences affected learners’ ability to create vivid English-using future selves. They claim that ideal L2 self is often dependent on the richness and depth of a learners' experience, which may account for previous studies that could not explain the L2 motivation of younger learners in terms of future-oriented selves. Irie and Brewster (2013) conclude with the following call to action:

Because university is a period in which many learners mature, develop identities and start to imagine their future, it is important for language educators to provide and encourage experiences that expand learners’ capacity to imagine themselves as proficient users in their future and to continue to negotiate the boundaries of possibilities (p. 125)

This study heeds the call to action of Irie and Brewster (2013) by providing inter-cultural contact experiences to Japanese learners of English, which may assist them in imagining themselves as proficient English learners.

### **3.4. International posture**

Similar to Ryan (2009b), previous research has pointed out that the concept of integrativeness is problematic when applied to the EFL context of Japan (e.g. Benson, 1991; Sawaki, 1997, Yashima, 2002). The static representation of the target language community postulated by the socio-educational model seems incongruent with the nature of EFL in Japan.

When investigating the reasons Japanese study English, Yashima (2000) found the correlation between integrative and instrumental orientations to be 0.6. In other words, the



relationship between the Japanese English learners and the distant community of English-users blurs the distinction between instrumentality and integrativeness. In the same study, Yashima (2000) delineated the factor *inter-cultural friendship orientation*, which measured the willingness to interact with people from other cultural groups. She confirmed, through path analysis, that inter-cultural friendship orientation and instrumental orientation significantly predicted motivational intensity, which led to higher proficiency in English.

Yashima (2009) reasoned that an openness to foreignness or non-ethnocentric attitudes, – which, according to Gardner (2001), is part of integrativeness – has relevancy to the psychology of EFL learners. In a linguistically and culturally isolated context such as Japan, the English-speaking world is best characterized as everywhere outside that context – or anything foreign. To take into account the broader concepts this implied, Yashima (2002) proposed the attitudinal construct *international posture* as a measure of how Japanese EFL learners, who lack direct contact with English-speakers, can relate to the world outside of Japan.

Yashima (2002) describes international posture as including “interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with inter-cultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures.” (p. 57). Yashima (2002, 2004) operationalized international posture to include three subcomponents:

- Intergroup approach tendency
- Interest in international vocation and activities
- Interest in foreign affairs

Several studies have support the notion that Japanese who have high international posture tend to exhibit higher levels of motivated learning behavior (Yashima, 2002; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu 2004).

In the initial application of international posture, Yashima (2002) used Gardner’s socio-educational model as a framework to investigate the relationship between L2 communication variables and L2 learning in the Japanese EFL context. The socio-educational model was replicated in the sense that attitudes influenced motivation; however, integrativeness, in Yashima’s (2002) study, was replaced by international posture. Furthermore, willingness to communicate (WTC) (the tendency to initiate communication) in the L2 was included as the latent communication variable. The resulting structural equation model depicted international

posture as significantly impacting WTC and motivation to learn an L2. Yashima et al.'s (2004) subsequent study supported a significant relationship between international posture and motivational variables. In light of these results, Yashima et al. (2004) reflects on the potential classroom implications:

In addition, students who have a greater interest in international affairs, occupations, and activities seem to be more willing to communicate in the L2 and voluntarily engage in communication more frequently. Furthermore, those who are internationally oriented seem to be motivated to study the L2. (pp. 141-142)

Drawing the L2 motivational self system, Yashima (2009) administered a questionnaire to 191 high school students which included measures of international posture and ideal L2 self. Results of the correlational analyses showed that there was a significant and strong relationship between ideal L2 self and international posture (a result corroborated in Csizér & Kormos, 2009). Explaining this relationship, Yashima (2009) argues that international posture “reflects the possible selves of a future English-using participant in an international community” (p. 157). In other words, those learners who can vividly imagine themselves as being part of an international English-speaking community endorse the vision of ideal selves more strongly. Given that possible selves are socially constructed (Markus & Nurius, 1986), one could assume that if learners have direct contact with members of the international community, this may serve to develop a learners’ international posture. Therefore, international posture was included in this study as a product-level measure.

### **3.5. Inter-cultural contact and motivation**

There seems to be a salient theme that persists throughout the review of L2 motivation thus far. Reflecting on the past studies described above, the following conditions have been shown to enhance motivation:

- A social identification with the target language community (Gardner, 1985)
- A cognitive self representation of oneself as being part of a target language community (Dörnyei, 2005)
- An internationally oriented disposition (Yashima, 2002, Yashima et al., 2004), or ability to see oneself as an English-using participant in an international community (Yashima, 2009)

- Being “pulled along” by more motivated, more highly proficient interlocutors during the performance of tasks (Dörnyei & Tseng, 2009)

In light of this evidence, it can be assumed that inter-cultural contact, or encounters with members of a different ethnolinguistic group, must have a role to play in facilitating L2 motivation. In fact, Rivers (2011) claims that:

... possessing the multiple competencies required to successfully negotiate an inter-cultural contact encounter with a target language speaker represents one of the most prominent sources of motivation for many foreign language learners (p. 842).

Yet despite the obvious connections to L2 motivation, compared to other antecedents of motivation, the impact of inter-cultural contact is rarely studied (Kormos & Csizér, 2007).

Clément and Kruidenier (1985) were the first to investigate the impact of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation. Their model predicted that inter-cultural contact led to increased self-confidence, which in turn, resulted in a positive impact on motivation. Participants comprised 1,180 francophone students of English living in Quebec. The resulting structural equation model verified a causal relationship from contact to self-confidence. Evidence for the effect of inter-cultural contact on self-confidence was generated in subsequent studies in various contexts (Clément, Dörnyei, Noels, 1994; Labrie & Clément, 1986; Noels & Clément, 1996).

Clément, Noels, and Deneault (2001) reported on three studies that looked at how inter-cultural contact was related to linguistic self-confidence. However, they tackled inter-cultural contact from a different angle. Drawing on discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1997), Clément et al. (2001) posited that negative contact experiences (for example, ethnic stigmatization for immigrants) limited the achievement of a desired self state. The discomfort experienced by a language learner in an inter-cultural contact situation could be motivationally debilitating because unsuccessful encounters would damage the learner’s idealized future self-representation. Results from these studies found that frequent positive contact led to more confident language use, reduced the level of anxiety students experienced in contact situations, and facilitated more concrete representations of a learner’s sense of self in a L2 community.

Dörnyei and Csizér (2005) looked at the issue of inter-cultural contact in a foreign language-learning context. Their study addressed the question of how inter-cultural contact, generated primarily by international tourism, is related to L2 motivation. The study made use of

a large-scale motivational survey conducted in the Hungarian context in the 1990s. They found that increased inter-cultural contact from tourists promoted positive attitudes towards different cultural groups, positive language learning attitudes, perceived self-confidence, and L2 motivation. However, when inter-cultural contact rose past a certain threshold, “it seems to ‘backfire’ and work against positive inter-cultural relations” (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2005, p. 352). The researchers speculated that this could be due to a decrease in perceived importance attached to inter-cultural contact – a phenomenon that occurred due to increased cosmopolitanism in Budapest during the course of the data collection.

Csizér and Kormos (2008) also provide support to the finding that inter-cultural contact leads to increased motivated learning behavior. However, they make the distinction between direct inter-cultural contact and indirect inter-cultural contact – the former relating to either spoken or written interaction with a native or non-native speaker of the target language; the latter relating to contact with L2 artifacts in various media. Csizér and Kormos (2008) found that for highly motivated students studying English, indirect contact was a valuable contributor to motivation; however, the motivated learning behavior of medium-level students was more influenced by direct inter-cultural contact. They conclude, with a call for further research: “Our research indicates that intercultural contact, even if not frequently experienced, plays a far more important and complex role in language learning than assumed in earlier studies of the field” (p. 44).

It should be noted that all research reported so far has measured the quality and quantity of inter-cultural contact by self-report questionnaires. This usually requires participants to recall frequencies of encounters over long periods of time and make use of attitude scales that contain items involving stereotypical statements of other cultural groups. Kormos and Csizér (2007) argue that this method of data collection is insufficient, especially in the case of monolingual foreign language learning environments, where social encounters with different ethnic groups can be “brief and superficial” (p. 242). As a result, Kormos and Csizér (2007) attempted to qualitatively describe inter-cultural contact episodes and their effect on language attitudes and motivational dispositions. They conducted 40 structured interviews with 21 Hungarian high school students of English and 19 high school students of German. Interview questions were based on Dörnyei and Ottó’s (1998) process model of L2 motivation and targeted students biographical background, language learning experience, attitudes towards L2 languages and L2 communities, and the quality and quantity of inter-cultural contact they had. Results indicated

that tourism does not create many contact opportunities for students in Hungary; rather it is the school that plays the most important role in facilitating inter-cultural contact. Students reported that inter-cultural contact episodes help with their language development, contributes to an increase in their motivation to learn the language, and decreases their language-use anxiety.

As far as the researcher is aware, there is only one study that has investigated the effect of face-to-face inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation in a Japanese EFL context. Aubrey and Nowlan (2013) attempted to compare how inter-cultural contact relates to motivated learning behavior in two different Japanese university contexts: an international university and a non-international university. Using a questionnaire based on the L2 motivational self system, they created two structural equation models for each context. Included in the model was the variable inter-cultural contact, which was measured through students' self-reports. Participants also kept voice-recorded diaries over 10 weeks of the semester, which enabled the researchers to determine the amount and quality of contact at the two universities. They found that students at the international university had almost five times the number of inter-cultural encounters that lasted significantly longer than encounters at the non-international university. These elevated levels of contact led to more positive attitudes towards the international community. Furthermore, differences in the resulting models suggest that inter-cultural contact in a multicultural university environment led to an increased obligation from their peers to study English (i.e. ought-to L2 self).

The above studies clearly show the benefits of inter-cultural contact on language learners' motivation. However, these studies have looked at the effect of inter-cultural contact in a naturalistic setting. To increase the pedagogical significance, inter-cultural contact in this study is a classroom intervention. The next section reviews studies that have generated inter-cultural contact as a classroom intervention in order to affect Japanese learners' motivation.

### **3.5.1. Inter-cultural contact in the Japanese EFL classroom**

Recent research on the effect of inter-cultural contact on Japanese EFL students' L2 motivation has included the study abroad context (Yashima et al., 2004; Sasaki, 2011; Apple & Aliponga, 2014), contact on a university campus (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013), computer-mediated inter-cultural contact (Freiermuth & Huang, 2012) and imagined inter-cultural contact (Yashima & Zenik-Nishide, 2008; Rivers, 2011). As far as the author is aware, there has been no EFL classroom-based research that looks at the effect of face-to-face inter-cultural contact on L2

motivation in Japan. In order to overcome the practical difficulty of bringing together people from different cultural communities, teachers and researchers have attempted to generate *imagined* and *computer-mediated* inter-cultural contact in the classroom.

Computer-mediated contact – or telecollaboration – refers to the use of online communication tools to connect people from distant locations for the purpose of language learning (O'Dowd, 2007). Freiermuth and Huang (2012) generated computer-mediated inter-cultural contact between Japanese and Taiwanese EFL learners, who interacted together via online synchronous chat software during one classroom period. The study examined four motivational factors during the interactions: willingness to communicate, task attractiveness, task innovativeness, and the need to communicate in the target language. Questionnaire data revealed that Japanese students responded positively to the inter-cultural contact; they were curious to interact with a culturally dissimilar other and willing to negotiate problems to reach the task outcome. Furthermore, when students realized foreign students could understand them, they felt more confident to communicate in English. This is an interesting finding as it not only supports the notion that inter-cultural contact enhances self-confidence (e.g. Labrie & Clément, 1986; Noels & Clément, 1996) but also generalizes this phenomenon to a situated, classroom context.

Rivers (2011) defines imagined inter-cultural contact as “using mental imagery techniques to cognitively stimulate or prime a particular social interaction or exchange, often between members of different social groups” (p. 843). In other words, the power of imagination is used to create simulated interactions with members of a desired language or cultural group. Anderson (1991) first coined the term *imagined communities* to describe the imaginary contexts in which this inter-cultural contact takes place.

Zenuk-Nishide and Tatsuki (2011) give a concrete account of creating an EFL course for Japanese learners based on an imagined international community. They outline a content-based course centered on a Model United Nations simulation activity in which students, who represent a different country, research and debate policy issues related to real world topics. Zenuk-Nishide and Tatsuki describe the experience as “experiential learning” where “students actively are involved in constructing their experiences” (2011, p. 89). In such exercises, a student’s success is dependent on their ability to imagine themselves as a foreign delegate as well as to interact with others who have similar, but culturally different, imagined roles.

Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide's (2008) study provided quantitative evidence in support of such content-based courses. The purpose of their study was to test for the effects of learning contexts on proficiency development and motivational variables for Japanese learners of English. Each context exposed learners to a different type of inter-cultural contact. Seventy-three students participated in a study abroad course (face-to-face inter-cultural contact), and 88 at-home students participated in either a content-based class (imagined inter-cultural contact) or a conventional 4-skills class (no contact). Pre- and post-program questionnaires revealed that the study abroad group made larger gains in L2 proficiency, increased their international posture scores, and improved their willingness to communicate in English when compared to all students who had remained in Japan. However, the moderate gains in international posture for the at-home group that focused on interacting within an imagined international community prompted Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide to advocate for content-based English classes as an effective practical alternative to face-to-face inter-cultural contact in Japan. This author argues that, regardless of the education resources available, "an objective of teaching an L2 is enhancing willingness to participate in intergroup and inter-cultural exchanges of viewpoints" (p. 582).

Yashima (2009) recalls that one important condition that determines the effectiveness of future selves to motivate action is that the future self-image should be elaborate and vivid (Richardson, 1994). Furthermore, she explains that this can be done when (a) L2 learning is linked to communicating in an international area and (b) when L2 learners interact with more advanced L2 learners thus offering a personalized model of an ideal self. Certainly, creating an *imagined* or a *computer-mediated* international community may be a useful intervention for the Japanese EFL context. Perhaps, though, the creation of *real* inter-cultural contact can more effectively inspire the generation of elaborate, robust ideal L2 selves.

### **3.6. Summary**

L2 motivation studies have shown that L2 learners derive much of their motivation from a social identification with speakers who belong to the target language community. Integrativeness has thus been seen as a flawed but important concept that captures this language-learning specific phenomenon. In an effort to reframe Gardner's model, two important and interrelated constructs have been proposed: the *L2 motivational self system* and *international posture*. The former draws on the psychological notion of self while the latter emphasizes that, for EFL learners, English is an international language that belongs to no specific cultural group.

Theoretically, the concept of a 'self-guide' is sometimes referred to as dynamic because the generation of the self is constantly changing. However, variables associated with the L2 motivational self system have been commonly measured via single administrations of questionnaires, thus making it primarily a product-oriented approach.

Theories of motivation that adopt a process-oriented approach attempt to explain the volatile ebbs and flows of motivation as it unfolds over time. The process model recognizes the temporal nature of motivation by focusing on motivational processes over a period of time. The task processing system is concerned with the cognitive processes involved during task performance that function to protect and maintain action until task completion. Learners who are challenged but successfully manage their task performance may enter a flow state where they exhibit a heightened level of attention, enjoyment, intensity, and learning.

Inter-cultural contact has been shown to positively impact L2 self-confidence, attitudes towards the L2 community, L2 proficiency, and motivated learning behavior. Studies in EFL contexts have, for the most part, drawn on self-report questionnaire data and have been confined to naturalistic settings outside of the classroom. Exceptions to this are imagined inter-cultural contact and computer-mediated inter-cultural contact. In EFL contexts such as Japan, where it is perceived that there is little opportunity for face-to-face inter-cultural contact in the classroom, creating imagined international communities has been seen as a practical alternative.

One purpose of this study is to explore how face-to-face inter-cultural contact affects students' behavior during moments of task interaction and how it affects their overall sense of self as speakers of English in an international community. Unlike imagined international communities advocated by Yashima (2009), this research involves a treatment whereby a *real* international community is created within a Japanese EFL classroom. The impact of the ensuing inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation is examined with respect to product and process perspectives. While the L2 motivational self system was used to assess the change of component variables following the duration of the inter-cultural contact treatment (product), flow theory was used to determine the effect of contact on learners' attainment of flow states over a series of tasks (process).



## Chapter 4. Task interaction and L2 learning

The provision of inter- and intra-cultural contact in this study was carried out using a task-based framework. The second part of this study, therefore, examines the interactions that arise when learners complete language-learning tasks under the inter-cultural and intra-cultural condition and the learning outcomes that result from these interactions.

This chapter will begin with an overview of task-based language teaching (TBLT), which will include its rationale and ways in which tasks are designed and implemented under this approach. Integral to the tasks used in this study is the incorporation of an inter-cultural component; therefore, the rationale for including culture in the language curriculum will be addressed, followed by a review of how researchers have attempted to create ‘inter-cultural tasks’ within a TBLT framework. The last half of this chapter describes the theoretical foundations for how language is learned through interaction. This is followed by a review of process-oriented studies that have investigated the interactions between language learners and process-product studies that have related interactions to language learning outcomes. Finally, the chapter will end with a discussion of how inter-cultural and intra-cultural interactions may lead to language learning.

### 4.1. Rationale for TBLT

Chapter 2 (section 2.2.2.) outlined how Japan has been making incremental steps via foreign language policy reform to emphasize the development of communicative skills over the acquisition of linguistic knowledge in English education. However, as discussed, at the classroom-level, there is still evidence that English is being treated as a knowledge-based subject reinforced by traditional methods of teaching that provide few opportunities for students to develop their communicative language skills. Central to this problem is how to transition away from more traditional methods of language teaching (e.g. grammar-translation or oral-situational) towards communicative language teaching (CLT).

The purpose of CLT is to develop the ability of learners to use language in meaningful communication. It is an approach that can be seen as partly a response to the ‘traditional’ approaches to language teaching up to the late 1960s. These traditional approaches gave priority to grammatical competence. They were based on the premise that a mastery of grammar could be learned through repetitive practice and drilling in which learners could ‘build up’ their

repertoire of grammatical patterns to produce accurate and fluent sentences in an appropriate manner. This approach was enacted through methodologies such as audiolingualism, the structural-situational approach, and in Japan, the still commonly practiced grammar-translation method. In contrast to language learning through the development of grammatical competence, CLT seeks to develop learners' communicative competence. Savignon (1972) characterizes communicative competence as the ability of language learners to interact with other speakers, to make meaning, distinct from their ability to recite dialogues or perform discrete-point tests of grammatical knowledge. In other words, communicative competence focuses on developing social behavior rather than language learning. Canale and Swain (1980) proposed the following components of communicative competence:

- *Grammatical competence*, which refers to the sentence-level grammatical forms, and the ability to recognize the lexical, morphological, syntactical, and phonological features of a language.
- *Discourse competence*, which is concerned with the interconnectedness of a series of utterances or written words or phrases from a text.
- *Sociocultural competence*, which requires an understanding of the social context in which language is used.
- *Strategic competence*, which encompasses the coping strategies that are used to in unfamiliar contexts.

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) is one approach to language teaching that attempts to achieve the goals of CLT. Ellis and Shintani (2014) describe TBLT as an approach that “aims to develop learners’ communicative competence by engaging them in meaning-focused communication through the performance of tasks” (p. 135). Furthermore, it sees communicative tasks as the primary unit of teaching in a language curriculum. Gaining popularity in the mid to late 1980s (e.g. Breen 1989; Candlin, 1987; Long 1985), TBLT has emerged as an influential approach. However, as an approach, it is implemented through a variety of techniques. In an effort to synthesize the differing views on the TBLT approach, Ellis (2009) describes TBLT in terms of five characteristics:

1. The provision of opportunities for natural language
2. Learner-centredness

3. Focus on form
4. The kind of task
5. The rejection of traditional forms of language teaching (p. 224 – 225)

The earliest proposals of TBLT focused on the rationale for a task-based syllabus from an SLA perspective (Long, 1985), a curriculum design perspective (Prabhu, 1987) and educational principles perspective (Candlin, 1987). These contributions were the basis for its rationale and the impetus for its development into a well-defined approach.

Long's (1985) support of TBLT stemmed from his criticisms of both syllabus design and teaching methodologies. He observed that prevalent proposals for syllabus design in the mid 1980s were made in a "psycholinguistic vacuum" (p. 79). That is, inventories of linguistic items were listed and sequenced based on textbook writers' intuition and not on research insights gained from interlanguage development. With the support of previous research in naturalistic settings (e.g. Anderson, 1983; Felix, 1981), he argues that there is no evidence that presenting pieces of discrete linguistic code in an additive manner can lead to successful acquisition. In terms of methodology, Long pointed out that popular methodologies of the time – namely grammar-translation and the audio-lingual method – had either no basis in learning theory or their theoretical underpinning was discredited (e.g. neo-behaviorism). As a solution to these issues, he proposed that tasks provide the basis for programme design and implementation.

In contrast to Long's (1985) research-based rationale for TBLT, Prabhu (1987) made the case for TBLT from a teacher educator perspective. His starting point was dissatisfaction with the structural-oral situational method (analogous to the audio-lingual method) – the dominant method in his teaching context of India – and a "strongly-felt pedagogic intuition" (p. 1). He noticed that efforts to teach learners through a linguistically organized syllabus in which language structures were practiced in a drill-like manner was unhelpful for the development of grammatical competence. Instead he sought to create "conditions in which learners engage in an effort to cope with a communication" (p. 1). Through an initiative he refers to as the Communicational Language Teaching Project, he developed a realistic and replicable teaching methodology based around meaning-focused tasks, which constituted a pioneering attempt at designing a task-based course.

Coming from an educational viewpoint, Candlin (1987) pointed out the failure of language teaching curricula to address the "general educational development of the learner" (p.

33). His rationale for TBLT, therefore, focused on how language-learning tasks can facilitate the educational goals of learners. According to Candlin, tasks afford opportunities for learners to:

1. become more aware of their own social roles and how people communicate and learn;
2. develop social responsibility;
3. overcome difficulties raised by ideology and prejudice;
4. achieve self-realization and self-fulfillment;
5. develop self-confidence of their state of learning.

Together with Breen (1989), Candlin argued that a task-based approach provided the best way to achieve these broader educational goals.

#### **4.1.1. Definition of a task**

In the literature, numerous definitions of a task exist (e.g. Breen, 1989; Bygate, Skehan, & Sawain, 2001; Crookes, 1986; Long, 1985; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1987). In the earliest definition of a task, Long (1985) broadly painted a task as “the hundred and one things people do in everyday life at work, at play, and everything in between” (p. 89). However, later definitions have mostly been used to refer to classroom activities that elicit meaningful use of the target language and direct that use towards some final outcome (e.g. Bygate et al., 2001; Ellis, 2003; Samuda & Bygate, 2008; Willis, 1996).

Ellis (2003) points out that a definition of a task carries with it a certain perspective. That is, whether a task is seen from the task designer’s or the participant’s viewpoint. Thus, Ellis (2003, p. 5-6) makes the distinction between *task-as-process* and *task-as-workplan*. The former refers to the task as it unfolds in real time, whereas the latter is the task as designed by the teacher or materials designer and presented to the students. Most definitions are in line with task-as-workplan. Synthesizing various definitions, Ellis and Shintani (2014) proposed the following definition, which states that a task must have the following features (p. 135):

1. The primary focus is on meaning. The workplan is intended to ensure that learners are primarily concerned with comprehending or/and producing messages for a communicative purpose.
2. There is some kind of gap. The work plan is designed in such a way as to incorporate a gap that will need to be closed when the task is performed. The gap creates a need to convey

information, to reason, or to express an opinion.

3. Learners rely mainly on their own linguistic and non-linguistic resources. The workplan does not include any presentation of the language needed to perform the task although it may supply input that can be ‘borrowed’ during the performance of the task.
4. There is a clearly defined communicative outcome. The workplan specifies the communicative outcome of the task. Thus, task accomplishment is to be assessed not in terms of whether learners use language correctly but in terms of whether the communicative outcome is achieved.

The choice of this definition reflects the characteristics and purpose of the tasks used in this research. To illustrate how the tasks in the study fulfill Ellis’ (2003) task criteria, one of the five tasks designed for this study (Task 1), is described below:

***Task 1: Travel***

*Task 1 involved two students sharing information about an overseas city they would like to travel to and making a decision on which of the two cities is the best destination. In preparation for the task, learners collected information on cultural items of a foreign city, which included cost of living, local language, local food, famous sights, and history. In the first part of the task performance, the cultural information was exchanged as students asked and answered questions in interview style. During the second part, students expressed their opinions on each city based on the information shared before selecting one city they both wanted to travel to. The outcome come of task involved agreeing upon their destination and deciding four activities they would like to do once they get there.*

Task 1 clearly reflects the features of task when evaluated in terms of Ellis and Shintani’s (2014) criteria. First, the workplan requires learners to “ask”, “answer”, and “express their opinion” on information related to foreign cities; thus the primary focus is on meaning. Second, the performance of Task 1 starts with each student having information about a city; this constitutes a ‘gap’ as students need to share information, which will become the basis for a final decision. Third, the workplan does not present linguistic information that learners must use;

learners must draw on their own linguistic resources. Fourth, the outcome of the task is dependent on learners sharing information and making a decision based on that information; thus the outcome is communicative.

#### 4.1.2. Task design

Understanding the components of a task helps researchers and teachers address certain issues. Building on the above definition of a task, this section will outline certain design features that manifest when the tasks are performed. Table 1 outlines Ellis’ (2003) framework for describing tasks that will inform the design of tasks in this thesis.

**Table 1: Framework for describing tasks (Ellis, 2003)**

Design feature	Description
1. Goal	The general purpose of the task
2. Input	The verbal or non-verbal information supplied by the task
3. Conditions	The way in which information is presented
4. Procedures	The methodological procedures to be followed in performing the task
5. Predicted outcomes:	
a. Product	The result of completing the task.
b. Process	The linguistic and cognitive processes the task is hypothesized to generate.

There is an inherent goal embedded in each task workplan, which Ellis describes as the “general purpose of the task” (p. 19). The goal of tasks used in this study is to develop learners oral ability in describing cultural information, asking questions, and stating/defending their opinions. As Wright (1987) argues, tasks cannot be described in terms of output as tasks can only have a discourse potential. The predicted outcomes are the product and process. For tasks in the current study, the former involved a final collaborative decision, and the latter is the prediction that learners will ask and answer questions and form/defend their opinions based on shared information, resulting in negotiations involving the meaning of information and the reasoning of decisions.

One innovative feature of the tasks in this study is the way in which input is supplied to the learner. The task designer typically provides input to the learner in the form of information contained in the workplan. However, the learner can also provide the input. Lambert and Minn (2007) call this design feature *personal investment*, where learners themselves are required to supply the content and resource materials on which the tasks operate. Lambert and Minn's (2007) study found that learners who completed tasks under the personal investment condition were more involved, produced a larger range of vocabulary, and elaborated more on existing knowledge than those who were provided input by the teacher. For tasks in this study, the conditions are such that the input is split between each participant in order to induce sharing of information. Similar to Lambert and Minn (2007), the input is generated from learners through guided research. The guided research procedures include instructions for students to gather information to be used during the task performance.

#### **4.1.3. Task types**

Within the above design framework, tasks can vary according to task type. There is no general consensus on how to classify tasks. Different tasks engage different communicative and cognitive processes during performance. Table 2 illustrates a classification framework (Ellis, Skehan, Shaofeng, Shintani, Lambert, forthcoming) that highlights how different features of a task can potentially lead to different kind of discourse.

**Table 2: Features of tasks**

Task type	Description
One way versus two way	A one-way task contains a gap in which one participant holds all the information. In a two-way task, the information is split between the participants.
Monologic versus dialogic	In a monologic task, the burden of performing is placed on a single participant. A dialogic task requires interaction between participants.
Closed versus open	A closed task has a single possible outcome (e.g. information-gap) whereas an open task has a variety of possible outcomes (e.g. opinion-gap task)
Convergent versus divergent	Convergent tasks require participants to arrive at agreed solutions; divergent tasks allow participants to come to individual solutions.
Rhetorical mode	The task can involve describing, narrating, instructions, reporting or arguing.

In his typology of task types, Richards and Rodgers (2001) makes the distinction between information-gap tasks and decision-making tasks. Whereas the former involves the sharing of information (one-way or two-way), the latter involves the sharing of opinions and working together to make a final decision based on information, requiring learners to employ argumentative and negotiating skills. However, it should be noted that tasks do not necessarily fall neatly into each of these task types. As Ellis (2003) notes, “many tasks are compound in nature, that is, they consist of a first part involving information exchange... followed by a second part involving opinion-giving” (p. 86). Newton and Kennedy (1996) provide several examples of these compound tasks, one of which is described below:

Task 3 involved split information about a medical dilemma. The personal details of a number of medical patients as well as a series of criteria for selecting the most suitable patient for surgery were divided equally among the learners who were required to exchange this information, and use it to work out which patient would be selected for surgery (pp. 314 – 315).



Students performing Newton and Kennedy's (1996) task 3 first perform a two-way information-gap task, in which they share personal details of patients; once students know the information of all the patients, they perform a decision-making task, where they must decide together which patient is most suitable for the surgery.

Perhaps, however, the most fundamental dichotomy that persists is the distinction between focused and unfocused tasks. The purpose of focused tasks is to "induce learners to process, receptively or productively, some particular linguistic feature, for example, a grammatical structure" (Ellis, 2003, p. 16). In contrast to the structural approach, where a linguistic feature is taught directly, focused tasks simply create a communicative context where the use of the feature would be the most natural strategy to complete the task objectives. Unfocused tasks, on the other hand, are not designed with the use of a specific linguistic feature in mind. Therefore, the purpose of an unfocused task is to achieve a task outcome regardless of what language is used.

Another useful way in which tasks can be classified is *real world* and *pedagogic* tasks. Real world tasks benefit from having situational authenticity; that is, they are based on activities that learners may need to perform in daily life. In contrast, pedagogic tasks may lack relevance to the real world but they still display interactional authenticity – the language they use reflects the kind of language used outside of the classroom.

In light of the task types described, the current study used five tasks, with each featuring the following characteristics:

1. *Two-way*. Information is split between two learners. Students must interview each other in order for the information to be shared.
2. *Dialogic*. The task is interactive in that learners must work in a collaborative manner to reach a final outcome.
3. *Closed*. The final outcome is a decision between two items.
4. *Convergent*. Both learners must agree on a final solution.
5. *Spoken*. The discourse involves spoken description and argumentation.
6. *Compound structure*. The tasks contain an information-gap and a decision-making component.
7. *Unfocused*. Students are not directed to use any particular language feature.
8. *Pedagogic*. The tasks lack situation authenticity but are expected to display interactional

authenticity.

#### 4.1.4. Task implementation

The ways in which the tasks are implemented can give rise to changes in task performance. Two implementation variables were manipulated in this study and therefore will be the focus of this section: task repetition and interlocutor familiarity.

Task repetition involves asking learners to repeat the same or slightly altered tasks at regular time intervals (Bygate & Samuda, 2005, p. 43). Bygate (2001, p. 253) claims that task repetition can benefit the learner in three ways: 1) they can become more fluent in the formulation and articulation of the necessary language used to complete the task, 2) they can fine tune their precision either in terms of accuracy of language production or intended meaning, and 3) they may build on the routines established previously to produce more complex formulations of their message. However, as Ellis (2003, p. 98) points out, there is a need to distinguish between the *same* and *similar* task when referring to task repetition. With this in mind, the following variations of task repetition inform this study:

- *Procedural repetition*. Repeating a task that has the same procedure but different content (i.e. same task type)
- *Task repetition*. Repeating a task that has the same content and procedure (i.e. same content and task type).

Procedural repetition involves learners encountering a similar task to one that they have completed previously (as presented in the workplan) and predicts that learners will use similar processes to arrive at an outcome. Mackey, Kanganas, and Oliver (2007) operationalized ‘procedural familiarity’ as “the participants knowledge and prior experience or procedural aspects of a task, including the different roles participants take to effectively complete a particular task” (p. 293). In another example, when Lynch and Maclean (2000) implemented their versions of task repetition, they referred to it not as a “strict duplication of the task” but a procedural repetition “where the basic communication goals remain the same, but with variations of content” (p. 227). Specifically, their version of procedural repetition involved a poster carousel routine in which one student responds to questions from another student about a poster they have created. The repetition occurs when the students who ask questions are rotated

through the presenters for a second round. In another case, Kim (2013) had Korean EFL students perform three different two-way information-exchange tasks, with each task differing in terms of content. Kim (2013) claimed the procedure of her repeated tasks were similar as “the common outcome across tasks was to exchange information” (p. 10). The commonality in the above examples of repetition implementation is that learners have to repeat a similar procedural process (performed on new content) in order to reach the task outcome.

The second version of task repetition used in the literature involves a stricter duplication of a task in terms of both content and procedure. This is similar to what Bygate (2001) refers to as “real task repetition – that is, the kind of experience by learners when they find themselves repeatedly in highly similar communication situations” (p. 254). Kim (2013), in her study, which compared procedural and task repetition, had students in the “task repetition” group perform exactly the same task three times in a one-week period. However, she notes that, “in classroom contexts it would be rare for the learners to repeat the same task three times without any changes” (p. 11). For this reason, she had learners work with different partners each time.

In a similar way to Kim (2013), this study implements both task repetition and procedural repetition. Task repetition occurs when all tasks are performed twice. Because all five tasks follow the same procedure and are predicted to elicit similar processes (i.e. exchanging information, decision-making), procedural repetition occurs as learners sequentially perform each task.

A second implementation variable is interlocutor familiarity. In dialogic, oral tasks, learners must focus both on their partner’s speech and their own speech. Procedures can be manipulated so that learners perform tasks with interlocutors who they either know or do not know. Plough and Gass (1993) provide an example of how this task implementation variable can be manipulated. Twenty ESL male students were placed into dyads to form two groups: unfamiliar and familiar. The unfamiliar group consisted of dyad members who had not met prior to the study whereas members of the familiar dyad group had met before. Each pair performed two tasks. They found that those unfamiliar with one another feel a greater burden to ensure smooth conversation. Furthermore, unfamiliar dyads are more likely to show politeness features while familiar dyads reflect a discourse that is characterized as “non-threatening” (p. 45).

Like Plough and Gass (1993), this study compares the task performances of dyads whose members have met each other before (familiar) with the performances of dyads whose members have not met each other (unfamiliar). However, unlike Plough and Gass, familiar/unfamiliar

interlocutors correspond to interlocutors who have the same/different cultural and linguistic backgrounds.

## **4.2. Culture and TBLT**

While the previous sections have examined the rationale of TBLT and the design of tasks that serve to develop communicative competence, tasks have also been included in the language curriculum for a slightly different purpose – to foster inter-cultural competence. The following sections, therefore, examines the rationale for the inter-cultural approach to language teaching as well as the design and implementation of inter-cultural tasks.

### **4.2.1. Rationale for teaching culture in the language classroom**

Culture is a complex notion, especially across different fields of study and in the face of globalization. Kramsch (2006) points to two different ways of looking at culture in the context of language learning: the modernist perspective and the post-modernist perspective. The former is concerned with the context in which a language is lived and spoken by its native speakers; for example, the conceptualization of culture as an iceberg (Hofstede, 1994) or what Seelye (1984) refers to as the “big C” (the products of a society) and “little c” (behaviors of a society); the latter accounts for the less constrained, more fluid nature of culture in a global world. This view emphasizes the identity aspect of culture, which focuses on the individual rather than the collective history of where an individual comes from. Jin and Erben (2007) prefer the following definition because of its relevancy to how people should behave and what knowledge they should have to carry out successful communication:

Culture is a common agreement between members of a community on the values, rules, norms, role expectations and meanings which guide the behavior and communication of the members. Furthermore, it includes the deeds and products which result from the interaction among the members. (Kaikkonen, 1997, p. 49)

For the last three decades, language educators have been arguing that a cultural component needs to explicitly be included into the language curriculum (e.g. Corbett, 2003; Liddicoat, 2005). As Liddicoat (2005) states, “[learning a foreign language] involves fundamentally learning to communicate with others in that language and such communication involves an engagement with culture” (p. 201). The implication here is that language learning

involves the development of communicative competence as well as an understanding of cultural differences. In fact, Canale and Swain (1980) highlighted the importance of the notion of teaching culture when describing the communicative approach as a way of providing the necessary background to infer social meanings:

The learners should also be taught about the second language culture primarily (although not exclusively) through the social studies programme in order to provide them with the sociocultural knowledge of the second language group that is necessary in drawing inferences about the social meanings or values of utterances (p. 137).

However, mainstream communicative approaches, such as TBLT, have been criticized for not adequately addressing the teaching of culture (e.g. Scarino & Crichton, 2007; East, 2012). Efforts to integrate culture into the language curriculum have become known as the *inter-cultural approach* to language teaching, in which the ultimate goal is for the learner to achieve inter-cultural (communicative) competence (Byram, 1997). Inter-cultural competence is considered to be an expansion of communicative competence that takes into account the cultural bias inherent when a learner enters into communication with a speaker from the target language/culture. Byram, Nichols, and Stevens (2001) define inter-cultural competence as the possession of the “knowledge, skills and attitudes, complemented by the values one holds because of one’s belonging to a number of social groups, values which are part of one’s belonging to a given society” (p. 5). According to Byram’s (1997) model of inter-cultural competence, the specific competencies are:

1. Attitudes
2. Knowledge
3. Skills of discovery and interaction
4. Skills of interpreting and relating
5. Critical cultural awareness

Byram (1997) refers to a learner who is in possession of the above qualities as the *inter-cultural speaker*. In the model, *attitudes* include that of curiosity and openness, which are both outcomes as well as preconditions for the development of inter-cultural competence. As Byram (1997) explains, an inter-cultural speaker must exhibit “readiness to suspend belief and judgment with respect to other’s meanings, beliefs and behaviors” and a “willingness to suspend

belief in one's own meanings and behaviors" (p. 34). *Knowledge* refers to that which is factual in nature, such as information about social groups and their cultures, and information about appropriate processes of interaction at the individual and group level. Knowledge is also relational in that "the learner not only gathers facts about the foreign culture, but is able to put this information into dialogue about his or her own country in similar topical domains" (Belz, 2007, p. 133). *Skills of interpreting and relating* is defined as the "ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents from one's own" (Byram, 1997, p. 52). *Skills of discovery and interaction* is defined as "the ability to recognize significant phenomena in a foreign environment and to elicit their meanings and connotations, and their relationship to other phenomena" (Byram, 1997, p. 38). This skill emphasizes the ability to use acquired knowledge, attitudes and skills during interaction. Finally, *critical cultural awareness* is an ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one's own culture and other cultures and countries. This final competency should be the ultimate goal of the inter-cultural speaker (Byram, 1997, p. 63).

#### **4.2.3. Inter-cultural tasks**

Can TBLT be used to develop inter-cultural competence within the inter-cultural approach to language teaching? Several researchers claim that TBLT has not fully addressed the inter-cultural dimension of communicative proficiency (East, 2012). As Adams and Newton (2009) explain, TBLT and inter-cultural education are "two quite distinct fields of research and scholarship within the field of applied linguistics" (p. 13). However, Corbett (2003, p. 41) argues that, "implementing an inter-cultural curriculum does not mean that the teacher has to abandon communicative tasks." Corbett (2003) and Liddicoat (2002, 2005) represent two prominent attempts at including inter-cultural tasks into a methodological framework.

Inter-cultural tasks feature in what has been called inter-cultural language teaching (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999; Liddicoat, 2002; Liddicoat, 2005; Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001). In outlining this framework, Liddicoat (2005) argues that inter-cultural competence can be developed through communicative tasks that involve "opportunities to reflect on one's own culture, to experiment with a new culture and to decide how one wishes to respond to culture difference" (p. 204). He notes that inter-cultural tasks have two goals: the promotion of fluency and an increased awareness of culture in interaction.

Liddicoat (2005) divides inter-cultural language teaching into four stages: 1) awareness-raising, 2) skills development, 3) production, and 4) feedback. In the awareness-raising stage of the task, students compare the target culture to one's own culture. This is facilitated through the provision of new input, which Liddicoat states should be authentic (e.g. videos, cartoons, or stories). The emphasis at this stage is on having students notice differences between the two cultures. Once insights have been gained from the awareness-raising stage, the skills development stage allows students to use their new knowledge in communication. This involves "short communicative tasks with practice elements of the new knowledge and helps to build towards overall learning for a new speech environment" (Liddicoat, 2005, p. 207). In the production stage, students integrate their knowledge of language and culture into actual language use via tasks such as unscripted role-plays. The aim of this stage is to have students experience the impact of using a different set of cultural rules on their identity as language speakers. Finally, Liddicoat advocates a feedback stage, in which students reflect on their experience as an inter-cultural speaker. Students discuss with the teacher or classmates about the negative or positive impressions of acting and speaking in a way that is foreign to them.

Corbett (2003) provides a similar model using inter-cultural tasks. As with Liddicoat, Corbett views the goal of an inter-cultural task as a combination of inter-cultural discovery and language development. Specific task goals could include an investigation of gender roles in the target culture, explaining patterns of behavior in cultures or subcultures, or the exploration of cultural messages in visual images or texts. Inter-cultural tasks may include written, spoken, or visual input; however, Corbett is clear that materials used in inter-cultural tasks should represent cultural artifacts. Therefore, authentic materials are preferable as those designed specifically for language learners may 'edit out' or 'nativise' cultural information – the use of which may encourage a distorted view of a culture. Corbett also suggests a methodology similar to Liddicoat's (2005) four stages of inter-cultural teaching, in which students collect and share information through class activities, evaluate and discuss their observations, and reconstruct observed behavior in role-plays or simulations. The implication here is that students raise their awareness via a pre-task activity involving new input, which is then followed by a performance using their new knowledge. This reflects Liddicoat's awareness-raising and production stages.

East (2012) equates Liddicoat's framework to that of a pre-task/post-task structure (e.g. Willis, 1996). However, I would argue that the methodological procedures of both Liddicoat and Corbett are congruent with *task-supported* language teaching rather than TBLT. Specifically,

their approach seems to follow a present-practise-produce procedure. For example, awareness-raising serves as the presentation component, skills development as the controlled practice, and production as the free production stage. Furthermore, the ‘tasks’ described by Liddicoat and Corbett during the performance stage (e.g. role-plays) do not fit with Ellis and Shintani’s (2014) definition of a task as there is no clearly defined outcome (beyond a successful performance) nor any gap that creates a need for students to convey meaning.

An alternative attempt to incorporate an inter-cultural dimension into tasks is telecollaboration (e.g. O’Dowd, 2007; Ware, 2005). Telecollaboration refers to “the application of online communication tools to bring together classes of language learners in geographically distant locations to develop foreign language skills and inter-cultural competence through collaborative tasks” (O’Dowd, 2007, p. 340). In other words, inter-cultural tasks in telecollaboration seek to bring together actual representatives of the target cultures.

In telecollaboration studies, one of the most commonly used inter-cultural task frameworks is the *Cultura* model (e.g. Furstenberg, Levet, English, & Maillet. 2001; O’Dowd 2005). As with the previous frameworks described, this model uses materials from different cultures to offer a comparative approach to investigating culture differences. However, unlike the tasks of Liddicoat and Corbett, the proposed tasks are congruent with Ellis and Shintani’s (2014) definition of a task. Under the guidance of teachers, groups of students from different cultures complete collaborative tasks in a computer-mediated environment that are designed to explore the cultural values and beliefs of the interactants. O’Dowd and Ware (2009) categorized three main types of telecollaborative tasks:

1. *Information exchange* – in this task type, students 1) exchange personal biographies, 2) interview each other based on a cultural theme, 3) engage in a discussion of a cultural product, or 3) exchange story collections. The intended outcomes of these tasks are an increase awareness of cultural differences, the development inter-cultural competence, development of fluency in the target language, and an increased factual knowledge of the target culture.
2. *Comparison* – this task type focuses on comparison and analysis of information, through 1) the comparison of parallel texts, 2) comparing class questionnaires, 3) analyzing cultural products, or 4) translating texts from the L1 to L2. The intended outcomes of these tasks are an increased awareness of both cultures, development of awareness of



different cultural meanings, and improved accuracy in the target language.

3. *Collaboration* – this task type involves students from both cultures collaborating to 1) create a final product, 2) rewrite a text in a different genre in their target language, 3) carry out an information gap activity with a closed outcome, or 4) collaborate to make a culturally appropriate translation. Through negotiations with each other, a deeper level of inter-cultural competence may be achieved.

The advantage of online inter-cultural tasks is that learners can benefit from the elicitation of meanings of cultural behavior from *real* informants in the target culture (O'Dowd, 2007, p. 348). Thus, one process-oriented goal of online inter-cultural tasks is the production of cultural *rich points*. Belz (2007) describes a cultural rich point as a “reflex of culture-specific ideas, beliefs or constructs as manifested in language or other types of communicative patterns” (p. 145). In this way, learners viewing a controversial issue from opposing cultural perspectives may gain valuable insights about cultural differences as they struggle to understand each other's perspectives.

Similar to inter-cultural tasks described above, the tasks used in this study were developed so that culture becomes a regular focus of the information exchanged and reflected upon, thus facilitating learners' inter-cultural competence. Furthermore, the input for each of the tasks represents authentic cultural information that students must collect via a task research worksheet. However, unlike the approach of Liddicoat and Corbett, the implementation of the tasks follows more closely a TBLT framework in which the tasks have a clearly defined outcome and contain a gap whereby students convey information and express opinions. Similar to the telecollaboration approach, students who perform the tasks with an international interlocutor benefit from real informants of another culture, which may lead to a clash of perspectives and cultural rich points.

### **4.3. Interaction and L2 acquisition**

The tasks used in this study are of the dialogic type, which requires participants to engage in oral interaction. Furthermore, task conditions, such as repetition and changes in interlocutor can affect the quality and quantity of interaction. The last half of Chapter 4 describes how task interaction can facilitate language learning and the constructs used to

measure learning from a process (i.e. interactional) and a product (i.e. learning outcomes) perspective.

#### **4.3.1. Theoretical foundations of interaction-driven language learning**

Early studies in second language acquisition placed great importance on the L2 learners having exposure to comprehensible input. The Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1978, 1985, 1994) was central in advancing this line of research, which proposed that language development is dependent on input; that is, learners benefit from input that is just a little beyond their current linguistic competence (i.e., ' $i+1$ '). The L2, according to Krashen (1996), can only be acquired when learners receive and understand messages, which can be achieved if input is modified to aid comprehensibility.

The Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1981, 1983) expanded on the notion of comprehensible input by claiming that the ideal input for L2 learners is that which is modified through interaction. In other words, the process of SLA is facilitated when learners have the opportunity to signal a lack of comprehension to their interlocutor, who then modifies their output. Pica (1994) refers to the modification of interaction as a result of difficulties in message communication as *negotiation*. Later the distinction was made between negotiation of meaning (i.e. when the trigger for negotiation is a problem communicating meaning) and negotiation of form (i.e. when the trigger is a linguistic problem) (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Negotiation results in increased comprehensible input for the learner, facilitating learning. However, earlier versions of the interaction hypothesis were restricted as they viewed language acquisition as entirely input-driven.

Later versions of the Interaction Hypothesis (Long, 1996) emphasize that input as well as opportunities for output are of importance in acquisition. In Long's words, "negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments... facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (1996, p. 451). This is in line with Mackey and Gass' (2006) Interactionist Approach, which stipulates that comprehensible input needs to occur in conjunction with the active production of output, which includes interactional adjustments and modifications (Gass & Varonis, 1985; Pica & Doughty, 1985). Thus, in meaning negotiations learners are pushed to modify their own output, making it more comprehensible and target-like. During interactions, learners may notice a gap in their target language input.

Similarly, Schmidt (1990, 1993, 1995, 2001) argued that attention to input is a conscious process and necessary for language acquisition and that “subliminal language learning is impossible” (Schmidt, 1990, p. 145). The Noticing Hypothesis claims that input needs to be noticed for intake to occur for language learning – that is, input needs to be consciously registered (Schmidt, 1990, 2001). At the heart of Schmidt’s hypothesis is the idea that learners must pay attention to input, regardless of whether learning is intentional or not. A recent version of the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 2001) claims that “SLA is largely driven by what learners pay attention to and notice in the target language input, and what they understand the significance of the noticed input to be “ (pp. 3-4). Schmidt refers to an array of attention subsystems, which include alertness, orientation, detection within selective attention, facilitation, and inhibition (Schmidt, 2001; Tomlin & Villa, 1994).

According to Schmidt and Frota (1986), a learner’s awareness of differences between their interlanguage and target-like input, constitutes *noticing-the-gap*. Related to this principle was Swain’s (1985, 1995, 2005) Output Hypothesis, which claims that the act of being pushed to produce language constitutes an important part of the second language acquisition process. Swain (2000) argues that when a learner is pushed to produce output, he or she is encouraged to convey meaning in a precise and appropriate manner; she goes on to explain, “at the very moment of attempting to produce it – they notice, so to speak, a ‘hole’ in their interlanguage” (p. 100). She believed that negotiation of meaning during interaction allows learners to attend to form in the following ways:

1. *Noticing gaps in their interlanguage.* Output is a trigger that leads learners to notice a gap between their output and their target language input. In this way, it may bring to their attention something that needs to be learned (Swain, 1993). This may engage cognitive processes in which new linguistic knowledge is generated or their current existing knowledge is consolidated (Swain & Lapkin, 1995)
2. *Testing hypotheses about the L2.* ‘Pushed output’ involves hypothesis testing. That is, learners produce language in order to try out – or test – new linguistic forms. Swain (1995) describes this as “stretching interlanguage” (p. 132) whereby learners reformulate their message in a more target-like manner. The production of this output can invoke feedback that can lead to the modification of learners’ output.
3. *Reflect on language problems using metatalk.* Swain suggests output serves a

metalinguistic purpose, which can enable learners “to control and internalize linguistic knowledge” (1995, p. 126). Learners can reflect on their language use and work together in the solution of their language-related problems during their interaction (Swain, 2000; Swain & Lapkin, 2001).

The Output Hypothesis was originally based within an information-processing framework of learning; however, Swain (2000) turned to sociocultural theory to interpret the role of pushed output in language learning. Using Vygotsky’s (1978, 1986) sociocultural theory of mind, Swain (2000) abandoned the term *output* (i.e. speaking and writing) in favor of *collaborative dialogue*, which she defines as “dialogue in which speakers are engaged in problem solving and knowledge building” (p. 102). Whereas Pica’s use of the term negotiation implies a misunderstanding between interactants, collaborative dialogue suggests that learners identify linguistic problems and seek to find solutions together. Through a joint construction of knowledge, Swain (2000) states that collaborative dialogue – or what she later termed as *linguaging* (Swain, 2005, 2006, 2010) – represents a cognitive activity that mediates L2 learning. Several studies have supported this claim, showing that collaborative dialogue emerging from dialogic task interaction is an important factor in language learning (e.g. Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Storch, 2001; Watanabe & Swain, 2007).

Tasks can be seen as a tool to promote interaction between participants. The Input Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, the Noticing Hypothesis, and the Output Hypothesis offer theoretical support for interaction-driven language learning. The next section looks at how collaborative dialogue is operationalized in research and used to investigate learning opportunities in task interaction.

#### **4.3.2. Language-related episodes**

Tasks, such as the ones described in this study, can provide opportunities for meaning-focused communication, but they also provide opportunities for noticing and attention to form. During task interaction, learners can attend to form through what Long (1991) terms *focus on form*, or instances when learners’ attend to “linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning, or communication” (p. 46). This kind of interaction affords learners the opportunity to modify their output, which can lead to positive developmental effects (Swain, 1995).

As described in the previous section, Swain's (1985, 1995) Output Hypothesis has formed the basis for a concept she has referred to as collaborative dialogue (Swain, 2000) or languaging (Swain, 2006, 2010). Collaborative dialogue is a kind of focus on form that occurs when learners attempt to resolve linguistic problems through interaction. Furthermore, it is described as a cognitive and social activity that leads to the construction and shaping of linguistic knowledge (Swain, 2006). Instances of collaborative dialogue have been operationalized as language-related episodes (LREs), which are defined as "any part of a dialogue where the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves" (Swain & Lapkin, 1998, p. 328). In this study, LREs are used as a measure of process features of task interaction.

Ellis, Basturkmen, and Loewen (2001) proposed a similar construct, called form-focused episodes (FFE). Perhaps the distinguishing feature of FFEs is that they have been used to measure features of interaction in primarily teacher-fronted classrooms (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001; Loewen, 2005). For the sake of clarity, in the course of this thesis, FFEs and LREs will be considered equivalent constructs, referred to as only LREs.

#### **4.3.2.1. LRE frameworks**

LRE frameworks are concerned with the identification and classification of LREs. In terms of identification, most researchers have based their criteria on Swain and Lapkin's (1998) definition (see 4.3.4 above), while some have deviated from this slightly. Williams (2001), for example, excluded episodes that were initiated by the teacher. In another example, Fortune and Thorpe (2001), emphasized the view that LREs are "identifiable units of a collaborative activity" (p. 146), which, for them, meant excluding episodes in which learners self-corrected.

LREs that are identified during task interaction have been classified according to frameworks that have varied considerably. Swain and Lapkin (1998) identified two types of LREs: lexis-based and form-based. Lexis-based LREs involve seeking vocabulary or choosing among competing vocabulary items; form-based LREs focus on spelling, morphology, syntax, or discourse. This classification system has persisted through much research; however, there is some disagreement on what exactly constitutes lexis or form. Williams (1999) and Leiser (2004), for example, who label these categories as lexical and grammatical LREs, classify prepositions and spelling/pronunciation as lexical LREs. In a further example, Storch and Aldosari (2013) have three classifications: grammatical form, lexis, and mechanical LREs. In

their case, mechanical LREs involve deliberations about spelling, pronunciation, and punctuation. In another case, Kim and McDonough (2008) made the decision to separate out spelling and pronunciation LREs. Following Swain and Lapkin (1998) and Leeser (2004), studies have also categorized LREs both according to their linguistic nature and LRE outcome (e.g. Storch & Aldosari, 2013; Kim & McDonough, 2008; Fernández Dobao, 2012). Outcome categorizations generally correspond to whether an LRE is resolved correctly, resolved incorrectly, or unresolved. In an effort to “capture the complexity of student interaction”, Fortune and Thorpe (2001) considerably expanded upon previous frameworks to include consideration for weight and complexity (p. 159).

Ellis et al. (2001) and Loewen (2005) developed classification frameworks that have accounted for a much wider variety of episode features. In addition to categorizing episodes based on linguistic focus, they also looked at type and complexity. Episode type was divided into either preemptive or reactive. Ellis et al. (2001) describes preemptive focus on form as an attempt by the teacher or a learner to initiate explicit attention to a linguistic feature “because something in the discourse, other than a learner error, has motivated attention to form” (p. 285). Reactive episodes, on the other hand, are when learners or teachers respond to real or perceived errors. Furthermore, while most studies have classified outcomes based on the resolution of LREs – that is, on whether or not a correct or incorrect solution to the linguistic problem has been suggested – Ellis et al. (2001) and Loewen (2005) went further by classifying the responses to suggested solutions. In other words, they examined students’ uptake. Lyster and Ranta’s (1997) define uptake as a “student’s utterance that immediately follows the teacher’s feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher’s intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student’s initial utterance” (p. 49). Uptake, therefore, is an acknowledgement of feedback. Ellis et al. (2001) broadened the definition of uptake to include the following features:

1. Uptake is a student move
2. The move is optional
3. The uptake move have demonstrated a gap in knowledge
4. The uptake move occurs in reaction to some proceeding move in which another participant provides feedback on a problem

Ellis et al. (2001) also distinguished between two kinds of uptake: successful and

unsuccessful. Unsuccessful uptake, according to Ellis et al., occurs when the responding student move indicates that there was no attempt to repair, the repair failed, or it failed to demonstrate understanding of the target feature. Successful uptake, on the other hand, is a move in which the student response demonstrates an understanding of the targeted item.

There is certainly considerable variation in LRE frameworks used, some of which comes from a need to fit an existing framework to a particular context or the need to conduct a more ‘finely-grained’ analysis. Taking a more comprehensive approach, this study draws on the classification schemes of several past studies including that of Ellis et al. (2001).

#### **4.3.2.2 LREs: tasks types**

Several studies have shown that task type can have an impact on the amount of and nature of LREs produced during interaction. Many studies have opted to use tasks that require learners to collaboratively produce a written text. Swain (2001) claims that such writing activities push learners to reflect on language while creating meaning, encourage learners to collaborate in the solution of linguistic problems, and engage in collaborative dialogue (p. 59-60). Yet, other studies have found that LREs can be spontaneously generated through more meaning oriented oral tasks (e.g. Philp, Walter & Basturkmen, 2010; Williams, 2001). Pertinent to this study is how dialogic, oral tasks generate LREs that may differ from those of written tasks.

A distinctive feature of interaction generated from tasks involving a written outcome is that LREs tend to focus more on grammatical form. For instance, Swain and Lapkin (2001) investigated the effect of written task type on the generation of LREs in two French immersion classes. They asked students in one class to carry out jigsaw tasks while the other class completed dictogloss tasks. The jigsaw tasks involved pairs of students working together to construct a story based on a series of pictures in a two-way information gap activity; the dictogloss task required pairs of students to listen to a passage, take notes and jointly reconstruct the passage. Learners’ deliberations during the tasks were classified in terms of lexis-based LREs and form-based LREs. They found that form-based episodes accounted for most of the LREs during both the jigsaw (59%) and dictogloss (60%) task types. Similarly Leiser (2004), who also investigated the nature of LREs generated during a paired dictogloss task (this time with EFL learners), found that LREs were mostly grammatical (60.14%). In addition to accounting for linguistic focus, he coded LREs in terms of how they were resolved and found a

high proportion of LREs were correctly solved (76.81%) followed by LREs that were incorrectly resolved (12.32%) and unresolved (10.87%).

Ismail and Samad (2010) compared the effectiveness of a two written tasks – a dictogloss and an opinion-gap – in terms of eliciting LREs. While the dictogloss group worked to reconstruct a passage in accurate paragraph form, the opinion-gap group made notes on a listening, after which they pooled their ideas with other group members to write their opinions in a coherent paragraph. They also found that most of the LREs focused on grammatical issues (tenses and subject-verb agreement). Interestingly, the dictogloss group generated almost twice as many LREs as the opinion-gap group.

We can see then that written tasks require an explicit focus on language, which tends to result in learners attending to grammatical features. Philp et al. (2010) explain that text-based tasks, such as dictogloss or other reconstruction activities, “may create a greater demand for accuracy than oral tasks where communicative need is foremost” (p. 262). In response to the dearth of research on oral tasks, Philp et al. investigated learners’ awareness of form during oral peer interaction over a three-week period of a tertiary intermediate-level French class. Data consisted of oral classroom interaction in a range of activities, which included one- and two-way information gap tasks, role-plays and discussion tasks, and varied in terms of whether they were divergent or convergent in resolution. In contrast to interaction emerging from written tasks, they found that most of the LREs had a lexical focus (80%), which were particularly brief and barely inhibited the flow of conversation. They concluded that when the tasks are more meaning oriented – as were the oral tasks they investigated – learners are sometimes reluctant to initiate an LRE, concerned that the diversion will interfere with the flow of communication.

Lasito and Storch (2013) looked at how pairs and small groups generated LREs during oral communicative tasks. The tasks required pairs of learners to produce descriptions in a two-way information-exchange task, and required small groups of learners to complete a jigsaw activity. As with Philp et al. (2010), both the pairs and groups focused more on attempting to resolve lexical problems than those of pronunciation or grammar. They explain that during oral, meaning-focused tasks, “clarification of vocabulary enabled the learners to complete the tasks” (p. 373).

In addition to the research reviewed, other studies (e.g. Nakahama, Tyler, & van Lier, 2001; Williams, 2001) have reported that oral tasks generate very little interaction around grammatical issues, with learners choosing to focus on lexical items in order to maintain



interactional momentum towards a communicative outcome. As Williams (2001) notes, “what learners notice is that they need words” (p. 339). Kim and McDonough (2008) urge future studies to examine different task types and their relationship on interlocutor variables and LREs.

#### **4.3.2.3. LREs: interlocutor**

The characteristics of a learner’s interlocutor may profoundly influence the kind of collaborative dialogue that emerges from any task. Relevant to this study are studies that have investigated the interlocutor’s relative proficiency level and/or cultural/linguistic background.

Studies have shown that the proficiency level of an interlocutor affects the amount, type and outcome of LREs. For example, Leeser (2004) investigated how grouping learners by their relative proficiency affected collaborative dialogue during a dictogloss task completed by Spanish L2 learners in pairs. He found that as the overall proficiency of the dyad decreases, so does the mean number of total LREs. That is, when both learners were of a high proficiency (H-H), the most LREs were produced, while learners of low proficiency produced the least number of LREs (L-L), with mixed proficiency dyads (H-L) falling in between. In addition, the percentage of lexical and grammatical LREs also changed with the type of dyad. The H-H dyads produced significantly more grammatical LREs than lexical LREs, whereas there were no significant differences between grammatical and lexical LREs produced for either the H-L or L-L dyads. Furthermore, H-H dyads produced significantly more grammatical LREs than the other two dyad groups. All dyads resolved a majority of the language problems they encountered; however, as the proficiency of dyads decreased, so did the number of LREs left unresolved. In fact, in L-L dyads, there were no significant differences between any of the outcomes. Leeser speculated that this result could be attributed to the relative difference in task demands: “it could be the case that the lower proficiency learners were struggling just to extract meaning from the passage” (p. 73). Lower proficiency learners focused on those elements that carried the most meaning (i.e. produced more lexical LREs). For higher proficiency learners, the task demand was much less, so they could devote more of their attention to grammatical form. Although mixed proficiency pairs produced more LREs than lower proficiency pairs, especially more grammatical episodes, Leeser warns that lower proficiency learners may not be developmentally ready to benefit from the LREs initiated and solved by their higher proficiency interlocutors.

In a similar line of inquiry, Kim and McDonough (2008) examined the occurrence and resolution of LREs when Korean L2 learners collaborate with interlocutors of different

proficiency levels. Interaction was generated via dictogloss tasks, with all learners performing the tasks with both an intermediate and advanced proficiency interlocutor. Results showed that greater collaboration occurred when a higher proficiency learner was paired with a lower proficiency learner. In terms of LRE production, collaborative dialogue with advanced interlocutors contained significantly more lexical LREs and correctly resolved LREs, supporting the findings of previous studies (Leeser, 2004; Watanabe & Swain, 2007; Williams, 2001). However, unlike previous findings, there was no difference in grammatical LREs between the two groups. Both Leeser (2004) and Kim and McDonough (2008) demonstrate that collaborative dialogue is, in general, more productive in terms of LRE generation when tasks are performed with at least one learner of high proficiency.

In addition to proficiency, some studies have looked at the effect of interlocutors with higher proficiency and cultural affiliation with the target language. For instance, Bowles, Adams, and Toth (2014) compared the task-based interactions of 13 Spanish L2 learner-learner (L2-L2) dyads and 13 learner-heritage learner (L2-HL) dyads. Learners in each dyad completed a two-way oral information exchange. Results revealed that there was no significant difference in the number of LREs produced from each dyad type. Additionally, the distribution of LREs according to linguistic focus between the groups was very similar, with the vast majority being vocabulary. However, L2-HL dyads resolved significantly more of their LREs (64%) in a “target-like” manner than the L2-L2 pairs (39%). According to Bowles et al., this discrepancy might have been caused by “the HL learners’ wider vocabulary knowledge” evident during episodes of interaction, which led to the correct resolution of LREs 81.8% of the time (p. 512). They conclude that “L2 learners’ interactions with HL learners may facilitate the language development of L2 learners more than work with L2 peers” (p. 512). However, being a heritage learner implies both a degree of bilingualism *and* biculturalism; the extent to which cultural differences in the L2-HL dyads influenced interaction was not discussed. They call for future research to “use a within-subjects design, whereby each learner is partnered with a learner from the same linguistic background and then a learner from a different linguistic background to determine more precisely the role of the interlocutor” (p. 512). The current study adopts both a within- and between-groups design to address this issue.

Fernández Dobao (2012) examined the effect of a native-speaker interlocutor, comparing the task interactions of learner-learner and learner-native speaker pairs. Twenty-four EFL learners and eight native English speakers (British and American) were paired according to four

different dyad kinds: (1) learner (advanced)-learner (advanced), (2) learner (intermediate)-learner (intermediate), (3) learner (advanced)-native speaker, and (4) learner (intermediate)-native speaker. All dyads performed a spot-the-difference oral task and the resulting interactions were analyzed in terms of lexical LREs and outcome. As with studies looking at high proficiency interlocutors (e.g. Leeser, 2004; Kim and McDonough, 2008), it was found that learner-native speaker interaction resulted in significantly more LREs produced than learner-learner interaction. Furthermore, similar to Bowles et al. (2014), the mixed dyads (learner-native speaker) were able to reach a correct solution at a significantly higher rate. She observed that learners who were paired together often avoided entering into LREs when they had the chance to because “they lacked the linguistic resources needed to collaborate with their peers in the building of new lexical knowledge” (p. 23). Learners tended to choose successful communication of the message, ignoring linguistic accuracy. There was, however, much individual variation, and Fernández Dobao warns that participants who are “experts” in the L2 cannot be expected to provide the feedback that the L2 “novice” needs for language knowledge to be built, which echoes Leeser’s (2004) similar warning about the usefulness of feedback from higher proficiency interlocutors.

The studies from Bowles et al. (2014) and Fernández Dobao (2012) provide evidence that differences in language proficiency and cultural background produce more LREs. However, research from Sato and Lyster (2007) and Sato (2007) seem to contradict these findings. Sato and Lyster (2007) investigated the effects of a native speaker interlocutor and interactional feedback types on the modified output of Japanese EFL learners under laboratory conditions. Eight Japanese learners and four native English speakers (three Australians and one Canadian) were paired in four learner-learner dyads and eight learner-NS dyads to perform two-way information exchange tasks. LREs were identified and coded according to whether they were triggered by incomprehensibility or inaccuracy. Learners’ responses to feedback for each episode were then classified as either modified output (i.e. uptake) or non-modified output. In contrast to the results of Fernández Dobao (2012), Sato and Lyster (2007) found that the number of LREs in learner-learner interaction and learner-NS interaction were proportionally very similar, which, for both dyad types, were triggered primarily by incomprehensibility. Additionally, learner responses following feedback from other learners contained a significantly higher proportion of modified output than when feedback was provided from NSs. Sato (2007) – reporting results from stimulated recall interviews – found that during learner-learner

interaction, learners felt less pressure, had more time to plan, noticed more grammatical features, and were more comfortable communicating with their interlocutor than during learner-NS interaction. Furthermore, Sato (2007) explained that opportunities for modified output were further suppressed by learners' perception that NSs were able to guess their message without the need to modify responses.

Overall, these studies suggest that interlocutors have a considerable impact on LREs. Many studies show that interacting with a more proficient peer leads to more LREs (Bowles et al., 2014; Kim & McDonough, 2008, Leiser, 2004). However, when native speakers are considered, the interlocutor effect becomes more than just about proficiency differences – there are differences in cultural and linguistic background. While Fernández Dobao (2012) found that interactions with native speakers generated a more favorable for learning condition, Sato and Lyster (2007) and Sato (2007) did not find this to be the case. In fact, Sato and Lyster's (2007) study indicates that, in terms of opportunities for learners to modify their output, learner-learner interaction is more beneficial. Findings regarding the effect of interlocutors are inconclusive and suggest that more research needs to be done. This study looks at the effect of an international interlocutor, and therefore can shed light on how a more proficient and culturally different interlocutor can impact the generation and resolution of LREs.

#### **4.3.2.4. LREs: task repetition**

As is the case with the current study, the same or similar tasks can be performed over regular intervals of time. Previous studies investigating the relationship between task repetition and L2 interaction (e.g. Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2010; Bygate, 2001) have generally found that the quality of L2 output is positively influenced by task repetition in some way (i.e. in terms of fluency, accuracy, or complexity). However, little research has been done regarding the impact of task repetition on interactional features between learners and how learners focus their attention on form during task interactions. To the researcher's knowledge, only one such study has used the LRE construct to examine the effect of repetition on interaction (Kim, 2013).

In framing her study, Kim (2013) drew heavily on the research of Mackey, Kanganas, and Oliver (2007), who examined the interactional feedback between young learners engaging in communicative tasks that were unfamiliar, familiar in terms of procedure (procedural repetition), and familiar in terms of content and procedure (task repetition). The three main findings were:

- Learners who performed unfamiliar tasks produced more clarification requests and confirmation checks, as well as more corrective feedback in general.
- Learners who engaged in tasks under the procedural repetition condition had more opportunities to use feedback.
- Learners who engaged in tasks under the task repetition procedure were more likely to use the feedback.

Based on these results, Mackey et al. suggested that the effects of the two types of repetition related more to improved quality of task performance (i.e. increased fluency), whereas the performance of unfamiliar tasks encourages more attention to form through corrective feedback.

Kim (2013) focused on the comparison of the impact of task repetition and procedural repetition on Korean EFL learners' production of LREs. Two intact EFL classes were randomly assigned to carry out three tasks with either task repetition or procedural repetition. The task repetition group performed three of the same tasks (same content and procedure) over a one-week period, whereas the procedural repetition group carried out three similar tasks (same procedure, different content). All three tasks were information-gap tasks, which followed the same procedure, and provided learners with the same amount of visual input (e.g., pictures with accompanying words). LREs were identified in the transcripts of task performances and categorized in terms of linguistic focus (lexical and grammatical) and resolution. Kim found that the procedural repetition group produced significantly more lexical LREs and grammatical LREs than the task repetition group. In fact, while the task repetition group had fewer LREs each time they repeated the task, the procedural repetition group generated a larger number of LREs for each performance. However, similar to Mackey et al.'s (2007) finding, the task repetition group was able to resolve more of their LREs correctly.

In addition to analyzing LRE quantity and quality, Kim (2013) had students complete a task perception questionnaire and conduct interviews with students after the final task performance, which shed light on their attitudes towards the repetition types. She found that students in the task repetition group "tended to lose motivation easily" as they became "tired of doing the same thing" (p. 17). Thus, learners' interactivity (and likelihood to generate LREs) may have been negatively affected by task repetition as learners in the task repetition group possessed less willingness to communicate. Like Kim (2003), this study investigates both the motivational and interactional effects of task and procedural repetition.

### **4.3.3. Relationship between interaction and language learning**

The studies reviewed above are process-oriented in that they focus on the occurrence and resolution of LREs *during* interaction. They suggest that collaborative dialogue generates opportunities for learning, but these do not in themselves provide evidence of learning. In order to address this, a process-product approach must be taken; that is, researchers must examine how classroom interaction results in language learning.

It is notoriously difficult to obtain evidence of what has been learned from interaction. This may be especially true when learners perform unfocused tasks – such as the ones used in this study – where opportunities for learning arise incidentally and around language issues that are difficult to predict. Ellis (1995) suggests two methods for investigating this issue. First, measures of language learning can be measured via a test. However, this is difficult as learners focus their attention on a broad range of structures during interaction. In order to account for the incidental learning taking place, it would be necessary to devise a post-hoc test based on LREs identified in the discourse. Loewen's (2005) study provides an example of how this could be done. Loewen identified LREs during classroom interactions, which were then used as a basis to create individualized tests that assessed whether learners were able to recall the targeted linguistic information. Swain (1995) followed a similar procedure in which individualized tests were made from the identification of LREs. Indeed, these led to interesting findings, but as Ellis (1995) notes, “it is obviously very time-consuming and probably impractical for teachers” (p. 148). Alternatively, a second way of investigating how interaction leads to learning is to have learners self-report what they have learned from a task.

This study will adopt the method of self-reporting in order to investigate perceived learning outcomes in relation to the generation of LREs during task-based interactions.

#### **4.3.3.1. Self-reported learning**

As we defined in section 4.3.2.1., the term uptake describes a learner's utterance in response to his/her interlocutor's feedback or effort to focus on form (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). This notion of uptake, however, is very different from how it had been used previously. Uptake, according to Allwright (1984), refers to what language items learners themselves claim to have learned during a lesson. In other words, it is learning that is recalled and self-reported after the

fact. This section presents a review of studies that have used self-reported measures of learning to investigate learning outcomes.

Researchers have argued that measures of self-reported learning have a valuable place in SLA research. Slimani (1989) argues that there is often a mismatch between teaching objectives and learning results. Ultimately, the learning outcomes of a lesson are mediated by classroom interaction; that is, a lesson's content may be manipulated as learners interact with it, placing emphasis and de-emphasis on certain input as it suits their needs. As Ellis (1994) states, "whatever language learning takes place inside a classroom derives from and, in a sense, is the product of the interactions that have taken place there" (p. 147). In this way, Allwright's interpretation of uptake (i.e. self-reported learning) provides an opportunity for obtaining evidence of perceived learning outcomes of classroom interaction. Since Allwright's proposal of a self-report measure of uptake, several studies have operationalized this definition of uptake, providing valuable insights into the relationship between classroom interaction and learning outcomes.

Slimani (1989, 1992) examined the relationship between classroom interaction and perceived learning outcomes. She first audio-recorded two hours of grammar lessons per day for six consecutive weeks. After each lesson, 13 Algerian learners of English were asked to recall learned items and report them on what she called an "uptake recall chart" in terms of grammar, words and expressions, pronunciation and spelling in as much detail as possible. Three hours later, learners were given their uptake recall charts back and asked to separate items into (1) uptaken items that were believed to be learned in that particular lesson and (2) items that were already partly known but consolidated during the lesson. The claimed items were traced back to the classroom data in order to investigate what occurred in the interactive episodes. Slimani (1989) reported three significant findings:

1. 89% of the claimed items were explicitly topicalized (i.e. focused upon) by the teacher, indicating that topicality was a determining factor in which items were self-reported.
2. Only 64% of what had been focused on during instruction had been claimed as being learned (44% newly learned, 20% had seen before). Thus, a significant number of occasions when the teacher focused on language went unmentioned by learners.
3. Episodes of topicalization during learner-learner interaction led to an item being claimed at a much higher rate (73.91%) than episodes focused on by teachers (49.36%).

Although Slimani's study was done with teacher-fronted classes (where the majority of the language focused on was initiated by the teacher), Slimani (1989) suggested that "learners do, unknowingly, profit from their classmates' contribution" (p. 229).

Palmeira's (1995) study investigated how well instructional procedures and intended learning outcomes could predict self-reported learning. The research was done in a period of five lessons with learners of Hawaiian in a classroom context that was again teacher-fronted but involved learner-learner interactions that elicited use of the targeted language structures. Pre- and post-tests were administered to 13 students that examined how well they had learned the target structures that were the intended instructional foci of the lessons. Students also completed uptake recall charts after each lesson following a similar procedure to Slimani (1989). She found a strong relationship between reported uptake and the target structures, indicating that uptake reflected fairly accurately the instructional syllabus of the course. However, grammatical structures aligned much more closely with the teacher's intentional foci than vocabulary. She attributes the non-idiosyncratic reporting of grammar to the specific instructional focus of the lessons and called for research on self-reported uptake to focus on interaction within various kinds of instructional methods.

Nabei (2012a, 2012b) looked at self-reported learning in a different instructional setting: a Japanese EFL reading class. Like Slimani (1989, 1992) and Palmeira (1995), the research again took place in a classroom where the instructional approach was largely teacher-centered. The objective of the research was to look at the characteristics of reported uptake and relate these to classroom discourse. Two lessons were audio-recorded, and after each lesson, students completed an uptake recall chart. In addition to Slimani's procedures, Nabei (2012a) had students report the situation where they noticed the linguistic item. Similar to Slimani's findings, Nabei (2012a) found the great majority of reported claims of learning fell into the category of words and phrases (74.2%), which he attributed to the nature of a reading-focused class. Almost all claimed items emerged from teacher-initiated episodes. A small number of reported items could not be located in the classroom discourse; however, in these cases, students noted that they had been looked up in a dictionary in class. Nabei (2012b) also found that learners, in many cases, were unable to report on the situation in which the item was learned, which points to some reliability issues when pushing learners to describe in detail when and how learning takes place.



The above studies indicate that self-reported uptake is a simple, yet effective research tool that can shed light on how classroom interaction leads to claims of learning. However, there have been some misgivings about the use of self-report instruments, such as the uptake recall chart, as a measure of learning – namely, the extent to which learners can accurately remember and honestly complete an uptake chart. Ellis (1995) addressed the issue of whether or not reported uptake is a sincere and valid measure of L2 learning in a study that used a listening task to expose learners to target vocabulary items. After three groups of Japanese learners of English completed the tasks under three conditions (baseline, premodified, and interactionally modified), they completed an uptake recall chart reporting which items they had learned. Pre- and posttests were administered that required learners to translate the targeted words into Japanese. Ellis found that reported uptake constitutes a reliable measure of learning in the sense that learners were sincere (i.e. all claimed items featured in the input). Furthermore, his results suggest that uptake has construct validity as reported items were not only targeted items but also included other items present in the input. However, on the basis that uptake had a very weak relationship with test scores, he demonstrated that uptake did not have concurrent validity. Moreover, he found that learners tended to underreport what they had learned, concluding that self-reported uptake results in a very conservative measure of learning.

Using a similar pre- and posttest research design to Ellis (1995), Eckerth (2006) examined the reliability of uptake recall charts in a German language class. The input came from three teacher-fronted classes that focused on teaching the target vocabulary. Some of her results substantiated Ellis's claims regarding the reliability of uptake charts. For instance, she found that students were sincere in their reporting (no reported items were not in the input). However, unlike Ellis, she found uptake and posttest scores to be highly correlated, which suggests that uptake recall charts have concurrent validity.

In summary, Allwright's (1984) proposal of uptake is a measure of what learners report learning from language lessons. For researchers, this is considered a useful concept as it takes into account the unpredictable nature of learning outcomes that often differ from the intended lesson goals. Past research has primarily used uptake recall charts in teacher-fronted classes to investigate the relationship of classroom interaction and uptake. Efforts to examine the reliability of uptake recall charts have concluded that learners are sincere in their reporting, but there is some evidence that learners underreport what they have learned. Furthermore, findings pertaining to the concurrent validity of uptake charts are mixed.

In this study, Slimani's (1989, 1992) uptake recall chart was adapted and used as a measure of self-reported learning in task interaction. However, the instrument itself and what it measures differs from previous studies. First, unlike previous studies, the instrument measures incidental learning coming entirely from student interaction and thus is not influenced by the instructional focus. Second, in order to avoid confusion between Allwright's (1984) definition of uptake and Lyster and Ranta's (1997) definition of uptake, this study has opted to take on a different terminology, replacing Allwright's "uptake" with "self-reported learning" and Slimani's "uptake recall chart" with "self-reported learning chart." Thirdly, learners completing the self-reported learning chart reported not only claims of language learning but also claims of culture learning.

#### **4.3.4. Effect of inter-cultural contact on interaction and language learning**

To conclude this chapter, I would like to go back to the focal point of this study: inter-cultural contact. Kramsch and Uryu (2012) broadly define inter-cultural contact as "a state of affairs that occurs when people from different cultures come in touch with one another" (p. 212). More specifically, Byram (1997, p. 22) refers to three types of inter-cultural contact:

- 1) Between people of different languages and countries where one is a native speaker of the language used;
- 2) Between people of different languages and countries where the language used is a lingua franca;
- 3) Between people of the same country but different language, one of whom is a native speaker of the language used.

Inter-cultural contact in the current study is more closely aligned with type (2) in which communication occurs in the context of a task where the language used is English. The ensuing interaction is between two participants with considerable language proficiency differences, with the domestic Japanese student taking the 'novice' role and the international interlocutor most likely assuming the more 'expert' role. Thus, the resulting collaborative dialogue could be shaped predominantly by proficiency differences, similar to research in the same vein (e.g. Fernández Dobao, 2012; Bowles et al., 2014, Leeser, 2004; Kim and McDonough, 2008), which predicts that inter-cultural interaction leads to a superior learning environment. However, during

inter-cultural contact, differences in cultural and linguistic background will also play an important role.

In this regard, research in the field of inter-cultural communication can shed some light on how inter-cultural interaction may unfold. Studies have shown that the discourse that arises from inter-cultural contact and intra-cultural contact are fundamentally different (e.g. Mori, 2003; Spencer-Rodgers & McGovern, 2002; Li et al., 2005). When two people with significant culture differences interact, the following have been shown to occur:

- Low levels of involvement (Mori, 2003)
- Unwillingness to interrupt cooperatively (Li et al., 2005)
- Overall low quality of communication, especially in initial encounters (Hubbert, Gudykunst, & Guerrero, 1999).
- Increased anxiety and uncertainty due to lack of familiarity (Chen & Starosta, 2005; Spencer-Rodgers & McGovern, 2002)
- Increased curiosity and willingness to interact (Gudykunst, 2005; Samochowiec & Florack, 2010)

Most of these findings point to culture differences as being a negative factor during interaction. In terms of how this relates to language-learning opportunities, this reflects the sentiment of Sato and Lyster (2007) and Sato (2007), who claim that task-based interactions with a culturally dissimilar interlocutor can cause negative feelings and a low level of comfort, which serves to inhibit students from entering into negotiations of meaning and form. Certainly, anxiety and low levels of involvement provide a somewhat threatening context for learner – one that may not be conducive for learners to freely inquire about linguistic issues during interaction. However, Fuji and Mackey (2009), who also looked at interactional feedback in a Japanese EFL context, take a different view. They argue that “learners in specific EFL contexts who, because of cultural background or a shared L1, might naturally tend to avoid negotiating for meaning in conversation” (p. 289-290). Specifically, Japanese communication norms, such as the need to save face, may suppress interaction, and that communication is often less explicit as meaning is implicitly communicated through shared knowledge. By this reasoning, interlocutors whose linguistic behavior is not informed by the same cultural rules may be more willing to interact. This is congruent with Samochowiec and Florack’s (2010) claim that in supportive contexts, people “might regard uncertainty as interesting and challenging” (p. 507). I

would argue that an EFL classroom context in which inter-cultural interaction is scaffolded through a task-based framework is a supportive context.

#### **4.4. Summary**

In addition to investigating the motivational effects of inter-cultural contact, this study aims to examine the effects of inter-cultural contact on interaction-driven language learning opportunities and learning outcomes. Inter-cultural contact is provided via a task-based framework. The tasks designed for this study are characterized as two-way, dialogic, oral tasks with an information-exchange and decision-making component. All tasks also include a cultural component in which participants explore cultural differences. Thus, the resulting interaction is predicted to include descriptions and argumentation, which aims to develop learners' communication competence and inter-cultural competence.

The Input Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, Noticing Hypothesis, and the Output Hypothesis offer theoretical support for L2 learning during task-based interaction. The various corrective feedback that learners receive during interaction can provide learners with information about the accuracy and comprehensibility of their utterances. Furthermore, feedback allows learners the opportunity to modify their output via uptake moves. During instances of interaction, learners can reflect on language problems, which, from a sociocultural perspective, lead to the construction and shaping of knowledge. These episodes of interaction have been operationalized as LREs. In order to measure the learning opportunities during interaction, the current study uses the LRE construct.

Although there are many studies that demonstrate the learning potential during interactions, fewer studies have related interaction to language learning outcomes (i.e. adopt a process-product approach). In order to capture the unpredictable learning outcomes of classroom interaction, several studies have employed self-reported learning charts, in which learners record what they have learned after lesson. However, the vast majority of studies have implemented these charts in teacher-fronted lessons. This study employs the self-reported learning chart as an instrument to measure both the linguistic and cultural learning outcomes of task-based interactions.

## Chapter 5. Method

This study used a mixed methods, process-product approach and quasi-experimental research design to examine the effect of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation and learning of Japanese EFL learners. The independent variable for this study is defined as *type of contact*, with two levels:

- *Inter-cultural contact*: Face-to-face interaction between members of different cultural and linguistic communities arising from the performance of tasks.
- *Intra-cultural contact*: Face-to-face interaction between members of the same cultural and linguistic community arising from the performance of tasks.

These two types of contact were provided through a series of dialogic, oral tasks. The effect of contact on L2 motivation and learning was examined both during interaction and as an outcome of these interactions.

This chapter will start with the presentation of the research questions. It will then describe process, product, and process-product oriented research related to L2 motivation and learning, which will be followed by an account of how mixed methods was used, a description of the participants, the research design, and instruments. Finally, a brief description of the analytical procedures used to answer each research question will be outlined. To explain the methodological decisions made, this section will draw upon insights gained from the results of a pilot study, which was conducted over a 12-week period from April to June 2013 with one intact class ( $N = 23$ ). The main aims of the pilot study were to:

1. Trial the language tasks in the classroom
2. Assess the validity of questionnaires
3. Determine whether research instruments could be implemented as planned
4. Identify any practical problems that may arise during the research
5. Ensure the proposed method of analysis could be applied to the data collected.

The main study was conducted over a 13-week period from October to December 2013.

## 5.1. Research questions

To explore the effect of inter-cultural contact on Japanese EFL learners, the following research questions were proposed:

- RQ1. Does inter-cultural contact have an effect on the different components of Japanese EFL learners' motivation?
- RQ2. Does intra-cultural contact have an effect on the different components of Japanese EFL learners' motivation?
- RQ3. Is there any difference in the effects of inter-cultural and intra-cultural contact on the different components of Japanese EFL learners' motivation?
- RQ4. Does interaction arising from inter-cultural contact during the performances of tasks affect learners' motivational flow, and, if so, in what ways?
- RQ5. Is there a relationship between motivational flow and the amount of output produced by EFL learners experiencing inter-cultural contact and intra-cultural contact, and, if so, what are the differences in the relationships?
- RQ6. How does inter-cultural contact affect (a) the amount of output and (b) the frequency, type, linguistic focus, complexity, and resolution of language-related episodes generated by learners during the repeated performance of tasks?
- RQ7. Does inter-cultural contact affect what learners report learning during the repeated performance of tasks?
- RQ8. How does inter-cultural contact affect the relationship between the occurrence of language-related episodes and what learners report learning?

The research questions above demonstrate an inquiry into L2 motivation and learning from multiple perspectives. RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3 correspond to the investigation of L2 motivation from a product-oriented perspective while RQ4 and RQ5 investigate L2 motivation as a process. RQ6 focuses on the language learning outcomes and RQ7 examines the process

features of interaction. RQ8 is process-product-oriented in that it seeks to relate interaction with learning outcomes.

## **5.2. Product, process, and process-product studies**

Product-oriented studies aim to measure achievement outcomes. The field of L2 motivation has a long history of product-oriented investigations, which have tended to view motivation as a static phenomenon. These studies have utilized questionnaire data, looking at the motivational states of large groups at one moment in time – that is, the approach is of “a freeze frame/snapshot perspective of motivation” (Schumann, 2015, p. xv). As such, they have adopted correlational (e.g. Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000), factor analytic (e.g. Falout, Elwood & Hood, 2009) or a structural equation modeling (e.g. Taguchi et al., 2009) research design. Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) points out that though this approach “may only offer a fairly global picture of change, they can usefully shed light on particular dimensions of motivation which are more or less susceptible to change” (p. 67). In terms of L2 learning, product-oriented studies are concerned with the outcome of the learning process, investigating such issues as the comparison of teaching methods (e.g. Levin, 1972; Smith, 1970). More relevant to this study is that of Palmeira (1995), who examined the relationship between two product measures: self-reported learning and language posttest results. Interactional processes are largely ignored in product-only studies, with the classroom treated as a “black box” (Long, 2015). The problem with product-oriented studies is that they cannot distinguish among the many possible explanations for the results they obtain because they focus on the product of learning while ignoring the process (Long, 1984, p. 413).

On the other hand, process-oriented studies, investigate what goes on during the learning process. As described in Chapter 3, studies in motivation have been rapidly adopting this perspective. Motivation as a process involves the “temporal organization” of motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 60). Process-level motivation has most often been applied to the situational level (i.e. engagement in an activity) across different phases of a single task (e.g. Dörnyei, & Ottó, 1998), but it has also been used to describe the motivational processes of much longer periods of time (e.g. Shoaib & Dörnyei, 2005). Similarly, in studies examining L2 learning, the process approach looks at instances of potential learning while learners are engaged in activities (e.g. task-based interaction). Several examples of these studies have been described in Chapter 4, section 4.3.2 (e.g. Fernández Dabao, 2012; Watanabe & Swain, 2008).

These studies have employed observation systems to code language behavior of individual learners, often requiring a careful discourse analysis of transcripts. However, learning opportunities in interaction do not always result in intended learning outcomes, and measures of engagement during a treatment do not necessarily predict motivational end-states. In order to examine the effect of a treatment, a more comprehensive approach is needed.

Long (1984, 2015) has argued that a combination of process and product is necessary to determine if and why a particular learning context is effective. Thus, process-product studies, which attempt to relate the learning process and learning outcomes, seem to achieve this goal of comprehensiveness. As Nunan (1992) mentions, these studies are not as common because of their necessarily large scope, which makes them “notoriously difficult to carry out” (p. 106). In the case of language learning, Chapter 4, section 4.3.3, has mentioned some of these studies (e.g. Loewen, 2005; Slimani, 1989, 1992; Swain, 1995). Long (2015) characterizes these studies as being “smaller in scale, shorter in duration, and narrower in scope than [product-oriented] studies” (p. 64). In the field of L2 motivation, process-product studies are perhaps even less common; however, recent L2 motivation research trends associated with dynamic complex systems (Dörnyei, MacIntyre, & Henry, 2015) claim to transcend the process/product divide. For example, Nitta and Baba (2015) investigated L2 motivation on “both macro- and micro-levels” (p. 366). They found that ideal L2 self (macro/product) evolved co-adaptively with students’ self-regulation during writing activities (micro/process). Although this was an interesting approach, like most research so far that has used the dynamic complex systems approach, this was a case study and so findings are difficult to generalize.

In an effort to provide a comprehensive examination of the effect of inter-cultural contact, this study adopts a process-product approach. Specifically, the research investigated L2 motivation and learning from the perspective of how learners behave and feel *during* the interactional process and the *resulting* products of their performances.

### **5.3. Mixed methods research**

A mixed methods study involves the collection or analysis of both quantitative and qualitative data in a single study with some attempts to integrate the two approaches (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 163). Sandelowski (2003) claims there are two main purposes of the mixed methods approach: (1) to achieve a fuller understanding of a target phenomenon and (2) to verify one set



of findings against the other. The reasoning behind using mixed methods in this study touches on both these points.

A mixed methods approach is suitable for a process-product study because such studies attempt to understand a complex issue from different perspectives. In this study, mixed methods research provides what Greene, Caracelli and Graham (1989) call an *expansion function*, which “seeks to extend the breadth and range of inquiry by using different methods for different inquiry components” (p. 259). The scope of this study has been expanded to include four components of inquiry, each drawing on different constructs and theories and so necessitating the collection of different data types:

1. L2 motivational self system (product-level motivation). This component looked at motivational outcomes of inter-cultural and intra-cultural contact using the construct of international posture and components of the L2 motivational self system. Variables were measured via a pre- post- questionnaire design (QUAN).
2. Motivational flow (process-level motivation). This component used the construct of flow to investigate if and how inter-cultural contact affects the experiences during the performance of tasks. Both questionnaire data and learner diaries were used to assess learners’ flow states (QUAN + QUAL).
3. Task interaction (process-level features). This component examined the interactional differences between inter-cultural and intra-cultural task performances using the framework of language-related episodes. Data consisted of transcripts from audio recordings (QUAL).
4. Self-reported learning (product-level language learning). This component looked at what learners perceived to have learned after tasks. Self-reports of learning were used to assess learning outcomes (QUAN).

The different kinds of data were collected during the same period of time; thus data collection represents a parallel (concurrent) mixed methods design. Of the four components above, only the investigation into motivational flow (1) involved integrating both qualitative and quantitative data to interpret results – a design feature that reflects what Creswell (2014) refers to as a *convergent parallel mixed methods*. Each component, however, does not consist of completely independent investigations. In order to examine the interaction of process and product measures, data from different components were integrated as per the research questions.

Therefore, the study as a whole could be considered a parallel (concurrent) mixed methods design.

## **5.4. Participants**

Participants in this research fell into three categories:

5. EFL teacher (N = 1)
6. EFL students (N = 42)
7. International students (N = 21)

In total there were 64 participants in the study, all of whom were based at the same private university in Japan (see Chapter 4, section 2.4 for a detailed description of the research site).

### **5.4.1. EFL teacher**

The classroom-based nature of this study meant that student participants were recruited as two intact classes. This also meant that the researcher had to work closely with an EFL teacher. The selected teacher was asked to participate one month before the start of the study (for the teacher consent and information forms, see Appendix A: Ethics form). The teacher was a male, Australian-born native English speaker, and had five years of EFL teaching experience at universities in Japan. He had received his MA in applied linguistics five years before the commencement of this study.

The teacher was chosen based on the fact that he would be teaching two classes of similar students in the same course and intended to provide a similar learning environment to each. The classes were part of the same yearlong, 4-skills EFL course in an intensive language program. During the research period, the teacher employed similar instructional methodology in both classes – an approach that could be broadly classified as communicative. In this way, the teacher variable could be controlled for.

Although the purpose was to focus on all four language skills, the course objectives emphasized speaking more than the other skills. A variety of communicative tasks were employed in both classes and were occasionally supplemented with teacher-fronted grammar explanations. The teacher based the structure of the course on a textbook, which was separated

into thematic units. The tasks used in this study were designed to draw on student's knowledge of these topics.

## **5.4.2. EFL students**

### **5.4.2.1. Inter-cultural group and Intra-cultural group**

The Inter-cultural group and Intra-cultural group were chosen at random from the two intact classes available (non-representative sampling). The naming distinction relates to the two different treatments received in each group – inter-cultural contact and intra-cultural contact. The data collected from these groups represents the core of this study. Each group consisted of 21 EFL students. There were 13 females and 8 males in the Inter-cultural group, and there were 11 females and 10 males in the Intra-cultural group. Participants in each group were of mixed majors, which included Theology, Economics, Sociology, and Business. In order to gain entry into the program, students were required to have previously received a paper-based TOEFL score of between 430 and 500. Thus, all participants could be described as having intermediate-level English proficiency. During the research period, participants were in their first English course at the university taught by a native English-speaker and were in the second semester of university.

In the second week of semester (one week before the study commenced), the researcher informed students in each class of the research objectives and confirmed participation (for student participant information and consent forms, see Appendix A: Ethics Forms). Immediately after, a background questionnaire was administered to students in each group with the purpose of collecting information on their ethnicity, language-learning background, perceived language proficiency, and inter-cultural contact experience. Every student reported his or her nationality and first language as being Japanese. Students rated their English proficiency for each language skill on a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (very poor) and 7 (very good). The mean and standard deviation of these self-reported scores for each group are presented in Table 3.

**Table 3: Self-reported English proficiency**

	Reading		Writing		Listening		Speaking	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Inter- group	4.33	1.19	3.71	1.13	3.29	1.40	3.14	1.40
Intra- group	4.00	1.14	4.05	1.15	3.43	1.62	3.05	1.34

Note: Inter- group = Inter-cultural group; Intra- group = Intra-cultural group

As can be seen in Table 3, students in each group had similar self-reported English language proficiency – ‘average’ reading and writing abilities and ‘below average’ listening and speaking abilities. Similarly, students also reported how often (days and minutes) on average they spoke to international students in any language in the first semester while they were at university (the semester prior to the study). This measure of inter-cultural contact experience is presented in Table 4.

**Table 4: Inter-cultural contact experience**

	Days		Minutes		Minutes per week	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Inter- group	.52	.60	4.76	7.33	5.24	7.98
Intra- group	.43	.60	3.33	6.77	4.76	12.99

Note: Inter- group = Inter-cultural group; Intra- group = Intra-cultural group

Each group reported only experiencing approximately five minutes of contact with international students per week, indicating that these Japanese student participants operate largely in a monolingual, mono-cultural campus environment, isolated from international students on campus.

#### 5.4.2.2. Comparison group

The Comparison group was comprised of 21 EFL students (12 female and nine male). Data collected from the Comparison group were used for purposes of comparison with the two treatment groups, which shed light on the effect of intra- and inter-cultural contact on product-

level motivational states. Therefore, data from this group are relevant only for RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3.

This group is similar to the treatment groups in that all students were from the same intensive language course, which had the same curriculum and textbook, and were taught by native-English teachers. Thus, all three groups were exposed to somewhat similar English classroom environments. However, the Comparison group differed in several ways. First, students did not participate in any of the tasks designed by the researcher (i.e. received no ‘contact’). In fact, the learning activities in these classrooms were not investigated nor controlled for. Second, the Comparison group was not an intact class; participants were randomly selected from 12 classes, which were taught by 12 different teachers.

In order to ensure that students in the Comparison group began the study with similar backgrounds to students in the treatment groups, the background questionnaire was also administered to the Comparison group. Similar to the two treatment groups, the questionnaire revealed that all students were of Japanese ethnicity and their first language was Japanese. Students in the Comparison group self-reported as being ‘average’ in reading ( $M = 4.00$ ,  $SD = 1.42$ ), ‘average’ in writing ( $M = 3.76$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ ), ‘average’ in listening ( $M = 3.72$ ,  $SD = 1.56$ ), and ‘below average’ in speaking ( $M = 3.10$ ,  $SD = 1.70$ ). They also reported minimal inter-cultural contact experience on campus (total time per week:  $M = 5.88$  minutes,  $SD = 13.65$  minutes). This indicates that all three groups are similar across a variety of background characteristics.

### **5.4.3. International students**

The inter-cultural contact treatment occurred when 21 international students participated in a series of tasks with students from the Inter-cultural group. The recruitment process for the pilot study resulted in some issues that affected how the main study recruited and supported the international students. The majority of short-term international students at the university are required to take Japanese language classes. Therefore, it was initially thought that an effective way to secure participation was to seek cooperation with a Japanese language teacher who would then elicit the participation of his/her intact class. The strategy was successfully carried out for the pilot study. However, soon after the pilot study had started, the Japanese teacher withdrew her class from the study due to a class schedule change. Despite this, 12 international students from the same class volunteered for the pilot study. A second complication was

absenteeism. Several international students were late and four different students were absent without notice for two of the tasks.

In light of these experiences, the main study did not recruit from an intact class; instead the researcher solicited participation on an individual basis. This afforded more chances to confirm commitment from students and impose criteria for acceptance. Criteria for accepting international students as participants were: 1) not born in Japan, 2) either a native English-speaker or had a ‘very good’ speaking level, 3) committed to attending all classes in which there were research activities, and 4) interested in inter-cultural exchanges. International students were recruited in the following manner:

1. The international affairs office at the university was contacted and informed of the research proposal.
2. An email was drafted that acted as a call for participation and was sent to 547 international students via the international affairs office.
3. Interested students replied to the researcher and stated their intention to volunteer. The researcher sent a background questionnaire to interested students to ensure that the selection criteria were met. The background questionnaire elicited information on gender, language, and cultural backgrounds.
4. The researcher selected students based on the questionnaire responses.

In total, 21 international students participated in the main study (11 female students and 10 male students). Seventeen students were short-term study abroad students visiting the university for either one or two semesters. Four students were degree-seeking students, who intended to stay at the university for the duration of their degree program. Thirteen international students identified themselves as native English speakers, while the remaining eight identified themselves as non-native speakers. Thirteen native English speakers identified as having the following nationalities: American ( $n = 10$ ), Singaporean ( $n = 1$ ), Australian ( $n = 2$ ). The eight non-native English identified as the following nationalities: Mexican ( $n = 1$ ), German ( $n = 2$ ), Lithuanian ( $n = 1$ ), Indonesian ( $n = 1$ ), Norwegian ( $n = 1$ ), French ( $n = 1$ ), Canadian ( $n = 1$ ). Furthermore, non-native English-speaking international students, self-reported speaking the following languages as an L1: French ( $n = 2$ ), Norwegian ( $n = 1$ ), German ( $n = 2$ ), Spanish ( $n = 1$ ), Indonesian ( $n = 1$ ), and Lithuanian ( $n = 1$ ). Therefore, the group of international students in this study included a total of 10 nationalities that collectively spoke seven different native

languages, with just over half being native English speakers. International students, who were not native English speakers, rated their own English proficiency based on a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (very poor) and 7 (very good). The mean of these self-reported scores indicated that English proficiency among non-native English-speaking international students was very good for reading ( $M = 6.75, SD = .71$ ), writing ( $M = 6.75, SD = .71$ ), listening ( $M = 6.63, SD = .52$ ), and speaking ( $M = 6.75, SD = .46$ ). These scores suggest that international students who do not speak English as their native language do have near native-level language skills.

To increase the likelihood that international students were prepared, were not absent or late, and understood their role in the study, several actions were taken. First, the researcher invited all participants to attend a workshop during week 1 of the study. The purpose of the workshop was to:

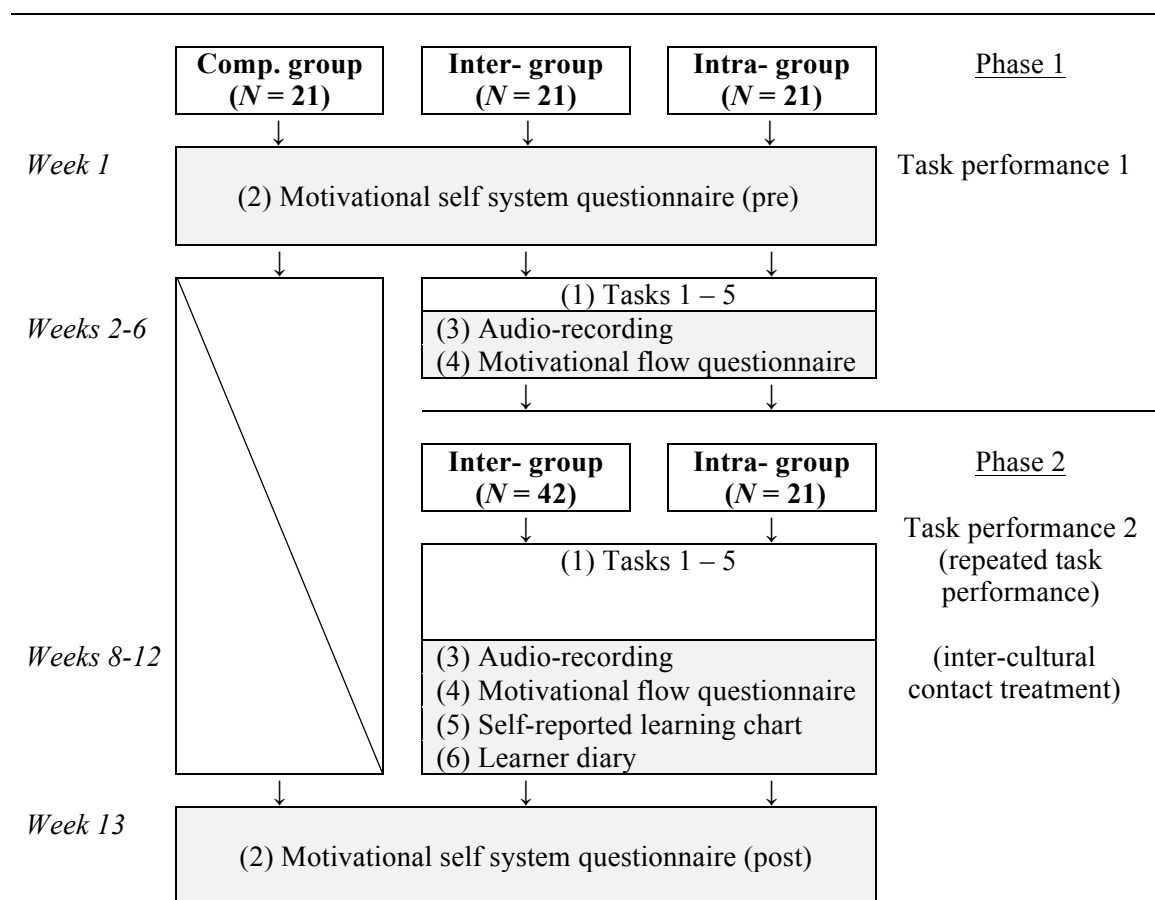
1. Explain the purpose of the study and collect informed consent (see Appendix A: Ethics forms)
2. Emphasize that the international student's role during task performances is to collaborate with their Japanese partner as an equal in order to reach the final task outcome, not to adopt an overt teacher role.
3. Establish some expectations of what kind of task interaction to expect through the introduction of task materials, an explanation of the goals of tasks, and listening to a pre-recorded task interaction between Japanese students.
4. State some basic rules when performing task (no speaking Japanese, staying on topic)
5. Clarify procedures in the case of being late or absent.
6. Distribute the research schedule and confirm with students which classrooms to go.

Second, a private Facebook page was set up for international students. This was done to facilitate ongoing support. Students were able to ask clarification questions on the page directed at the researcher, teacher, or other international student participants. It also became a way for the researcher to post the task materials and remind students of important dates. Finally, in order to make the experience mutually beneficial, a classroom was reserved once a week where Japanese students and international students could interact informally using Japanese. This activity was voluntary and not attended by the teacher or researcher.

## 5.5. Research design

This study can be characterized as having a quasi-experimental design. This classroom-based aspect served to preserve the ecological validity of the research. The overview of the main study is shown in Table 5.

**Table 5: Design of the experiment**



Inter- group = Inter-cultural group, Intra- group = Intra-cultural group, Comp. group = Comparison group

The study took place across two phases for a total period of 13 weeks. Phase 1 corresponds to Task performance 1, in which both the Inter- and Intra-cultural groups performed five tasks *intra-culturally* (i.e. there was procedural repetition). The main purpose of Task performance 1 was to establish whether the intra-cultural contact condition affected the task performances of the two groups in similar ways. It also allowed for the effect of task repetition to be investigated. Phase 2 corresponds to the Task performance 2 (i.e. there was both



procedural and content repetition). These tasks were repeated under the two contact conditions; that is, learners in the Inter-cultural group were subjected to inter-cultural contact (i.e. performed tasks with an international student) while learners in Intra-cultural group repeated the tasks with a different Japanese peer from the same class. Task performance 2 allowed for a comparison between the treatment conditions, thus the bulk of the data collection was carried out during this time. A description of each instrument and the procedures employed will follow.

## **5.6. Instruments**

### **5.6.1. Tasks**

The tasks used in this study provided the context for inter-cultural and intra-cultural contact to occur. The researcher designed the tasks with the purpose of promoting substantial interaction between students. The following are descriptions of the most prominent task features, which dictated the development of the tasks:

1. The tasks had a compound structure: a two-way information exchange and a decision-making component – similar to those of Newton and Kennedy (1996). The two-way nature of these tasks means that both students are obliged to participate in order to complete the task. Whereas an information exchange involves describing information, a predicted outcome of the decision-making stage involves reasoning and argumentation, which is effective in pushing learners to produce language (Newton & Kennedy, 1996).
2. Tasks were of the unfocused type. As part of the study looks at incidental rather than intentional learning, there was no need to create contexts for learners to use certain language. Furthermore, some researchers claim that inducing the use of certain language may negatively affect the quality of interaction (e.g. Van den Branden & Van Gorp, 2000).
3. The input for the tasks was generated from learners through guided research. That is, the task topic and instructions were prescribed, but students researched the task content before the performance. Lambert and Minn (2007) refers to this kind of learner-generated input as personal investment, which they have shown promotes learner engagement during task performance.
4. The task topics were in line with course objectives. To preserve the ecological validity of the study (van Lier, 2010), task topics corresponded to a content theme that was also

addressed in lessons. Although the topic was prescribed, learners still had control over the information they could use during task performance.

5. An inter-cultural component was included. In other words, the exchange of information and subsequent decision-making necessitated sharing cultural knowledge and comparing of cultural perspectives. A predicted process outcome is the production of cultural ‘rich points’ (Belz, 2007) and a predicted product outcome is inter-cultural learning (Liddicoat, 2005).

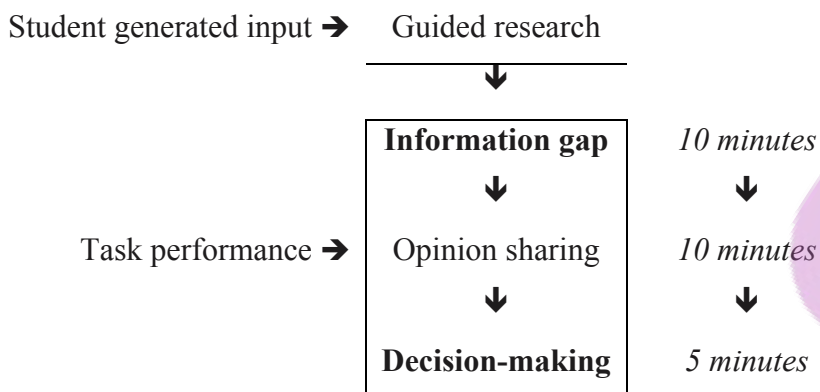
For the pilot study, two dialogic, oral tasks were designed according to the above criteria and performed by 23 students in an intact class. They were successful in that pairs produced a substantial amount of output (Words:  $M = 686.75$ ,  $SD = 226.615$ ; Turns:  $M = 217.83$ ,  $SD = 82.84$ ). However, there was one concern, which led to a change in the design of the tasks for the main study: both the teacher and the researcher thought that the task topics were too loosely related to the course objectives. Therefore, tasks for the main study were redesigned to directly reflect themes in the textbook. Table 6 describes the five tasks designed for the main study.

**Table 6: Task descriptions**

Task	Topic	Guided research: Research...	Information gap: Exchange information on...	Opinion gap: Discuss the pros / cons	Decision-making: Decide...
Task 1	Travel	A place you would like to travel to.	Local language, famous sites, cost of living, food, history.	Traveling to each destination	Which destination to travel to and activities to do.
Task 2	Nature	One endangered animal.	Appearance, habitat, population, diet, challenges	Spending money to save each animal	Which animal to spend money on and how to help the animal
Task 3	History	A person you would like to meet in history.	Birth/death date, nationality, accomplishments, public opinion, life events	Meeting each person	Who to meet if one could travel back in time and what questions to ask.
Task 4	Careers	A job you are interested in.	Company, duties, responsibilities, qualifications, salary	Working in each job position	Which job is more interesting and the steps needed to get the job
Task 5	Celebrations	A celebration you are interested in.	Location, celebration, origin, purpose, activities.	Participating in each celebration	Which celebration to participate in and what to do to prepare

The student materials consisted of a *task research worksheet* and a *task performance worksheet* (see Appendix B: Task worksheets). The task implementation procedures are illustrated in Figure 1.

**Figure 1: Task implementation procedures**



As can be seen, the tasks were implemented in two stages. Two days before each task performance, the researcher explained the goals and procedures of the tasks and asked both international and Japanese students to complete a guided research activity in order to generate the task input. Students were given a task research worksheet, which specified the task topic, and instructions to choose an item (e.g. city, animal, celebration) and to collect information related to prescribed categories on their worksheet (e.g. appearance, life events, cost of travel). This was done to encourage personal investment (Lambert & Minn, 2007) in the task and self-learning of language that may aid students in task performances.

The task performance was done in the classroom during regular scheduled classes. During performances, students were instructed to refer to their completed task research worksheet, which contained the information they would be exchanging. In addition, students were also given a task performance worksheet, where they wrote down their partners' answers during the information exchange. The task performance worksheet had a dual purpose. First, students could use the worksheet as a reference to complete each sub-goal of the task. In other words, a written record of their exchange might have been useful for students when forming opinions and making a final decision. Secondly, the worksheet acted to guide students through the task process, thereby ensuring they stayed 'on task'. The researcher informed students that they were not required to submit the worksheet to the teacher. Figure 1 illustrates the time limits

placed on students. The students were told they would have 25 minutes to complete the tasks – after that time, they would be told to stop their performance. This time limitation was imposed in the main study as a result of problems during the pilot study, in which it was observed that some pairs took up to 35 minutes to complete some tasks whereas others completed those same tasks in as little as 15 minutes. The time limit served to alleviate these problems. In addition, the researcher emphasized two rules to students: 1) no other language other than English should be spoken during the task; and 2) there should be no interaction between anyone other than their designated task partner.

A task repetition component was part of the research design. Specifically, students performed one task per week, completing tasks 1 through 5 over a period of five weeks (Task performance 1). After a break of one week, students then repeated the same tasks over the next five weeks (Task performance 2). This was interpreted as two variations of repetition: task repetition and procedural repetition (refer to section 4.1.4. for studies that support this interpretation). All five tasks were of the same type (i.e. information exchange with decision-making portion) but were different in terms of content; therefore, as students completed each task, they benefited from prior experience with the procedural aspects of this task type. Thus, a *procedural repetition* occurred with a one-week time gap as students performed the five tasks within Task performance 1 and Task performance 2. In addition, the same tasks (same procedures and content) were repeated once with a 6-week time gap (i.e. from Task performance 1 to Task performance 2). This stricter duplication of the tasks constitutes *task repetition*. The inclusion of procedural and task repetition allowed for an investigation into the effect of repetition on flow, which was addressed in RQ4.

This study carefully considered the issue of pairing students with their interlocutors. During Task performance 1, participants were paired with a Japanese interlocutor from their own group (i.e. tasks were performed *intra-culturally* for both groups). Each learner remained with the same interlocutor for all five tasks. During the repeated task performance (Task performance 2), students were paired with a new interlocutor, with pairing again remaining unchanged for the duration of the tasks. Thus, each Japanese student performed tasks with two different interlocutors by the end of the study. An attempt was also made to form male-female pairs during both phases of the main study. This decision was informed by previous research that has provided some evidence that more negotiation occurs in male-female pairs than female-female pairs or male-male pairs (e.g. Gass and Veronis, 1986; Kasanga, 1996). However, due to

the classroom-based nature of this study, the total number of students and their gender could not be controlled for. Although each intact class contained the same number of students ( $N = 21$ ), there were more females than males in both classes. Therefore, there were some matched-gender pairs who performed the tasks. Furthermore, 21 participants in each class yielded nine pairs and one group of three. The issue of including or excluding data for each group of three was handled differently for each RQ (discussed in detail in the relevant results chapters).

### **5.6.2. Audio recordings**

All task performances in both the Inter-cultural group and Intra-cultural group were audio recorded. The audio files were then used to create transcripts of interactions. These data were used to address RQ4, RQ5, RQ6, and RQ8.

Portable voice recorders were placed between the pairs during task performances and recorded the interactions for 25 minutes (i.e. the full duration of each performance). The resulting audio files were downloaded to the researcher's computer, which served as the data source for the creation of the transcripts. The researcher transcribed task interactions for Task performance 1 and Task performance 2 (see Chapter 8, section 8.2.2. for a description of how transcripts were prepared) according to transcription conventions adapted from Markee (2011) (see Appendix C: Transcription conventions). To ensure interactions were transcribed accurately, two randomly chosen task interactions were transcribed by the researcher and checked for accuracy by a bilingual Japanese professor. When the researcher identified instances of Japanese language use in the audio recordings, the same Japanese professor was consulted for accurate translations.

### **5.6.3. Motivational self system questionnaire**

The purpose of the motivational self system questionnaire was to measure the strength of motivated learning behavior as well as variables that have been shown to regulate L2 motivation: ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, L2 learning experience, and international posture. This provided the data to answer RQ1, RQ2, and RQ3 as per a pre- and post- questionnaire research design. In other words, the data collected by the questionnaire was used to investigate motivational outcomes of the entire treatment.

In preparing the questionnaire items, consideration was given to balancing two needs: (1) to provide enough items as to accurately assess each variable and (2) not to provide too many items so that completion of the questionnaire induces participant fatigue. Drawing on previous studies that have attempted to reliably measure these constructs via questionnaire (e.g. Taguchi et. al., 2009, Nakahira & Yashima, 2012, Yashima et al., 2004), it was decided that motivated learning behavior, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience would be measured using five items each. In the case of the measurement of international posture, 18 items were chosen – considerably more items than for the other constructs. This was necessary because of a need to be consistent with previous studies (e.g. Yashima et al., 2004), and the fact that international posture consists of several subscales (approach-avoidance tendencies, interest in international vocation/activities, and interest in foreign affairs).

Once the English draft of the questionnaire (instructions and items) was composed, it was translated into Japanese by a bilingual Japanese professor and back-translated into English by a bilingual Japanese graduate student. Any discrepancies between the original and back-translated version question were resolved through discussion with the translators in order to ensure no meaning was lost in the process. The questionnaire was presented to participants in Japanese and English. All items consisted of statements to which participants were asked to rate their agreement on a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (absolutely untrue) and 7 (absolutely true). Adaptions to previous questionnaire items were done with the purpose of making the items appropriate for the university context. For example, the item “If an English course was offered in the future, I would like to take it” was adapted to “If an optional English course was offered in future semesters at university, I would like to take it.” Table 7 shows the original source of the items and whether the items were taken directly or adapted. For the complete list of questionnaire items, see Appendix D.

**Table 7: Sources for L2 motivational self system questionnaire items**

Variable	Item	Source of item	Change to source
Motivated learning behavior	1–5	Taguchi et. al. (2009)	Adapted item 1
Ideal L2 self	6–10	Nakahira & Yashima (2012)	Adapted all items
L2 learning experience	11–15	Taguchi et. al. (2009)	Taken directly
Ought-to L2 self	16–20	Taguchi et. al. (2009)	Taken directly
International posture	21–36	Yashima et al. (2004)	Taken directly

The pilot study involved administering the questionnaire to 202 students in order to test the construct validity and reliability. The construct validity was established by conducting a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). The resulting fit indices met the minimum criteria for acceptable model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1995). Reliability coefficients (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) for each scale had a value between 0.7 and 0.9, suggesting a good level of internal consistency (Kline, 1999). Because the questionnaire demonstrated satisfactory construct validity and reliability, no changes were made to the questionnaire for the main study.

For the main study, the construct validity was tested again with another group of students. This was necessary because the pilot study and main study used participants who may have differed significantly in terms of background characteristics. For example, the pilot study was done with students who were in the second year of university while the main study was conducted with students in their first year. In order to assess its construct validity, the questionnaire was administered to 203 students in the same intensive English course at week 1 and week 13. However, these students did not participate in the study (i.e. these students were not part of the comparison or treatment groups) and data were used only so that a CFA could be performed (see Chapter 6, section 6.2.3. for a detailed description of the CFA).

The motivational self system questionnaire was then administered to the Inter-cultural group (N = 21), the Intra-cultural group (N = 21), and the Comparison group (N = 21) at week 1 and then again at week 13. The web-based survey program *SurveyMonkey*<sup>TM</sup> was used to deliver the questionnaire to students' email accounts. The online mode was chosen for the questionnaire administration as it expedited the delivery/collection process. The questionnaire was completed in class time and took approximately 15 minutes.

#### **5.6.4. Motivational flow questionnaire**

Egbert (2003) warns that, "there is no objective way to measure flow precisely" (p. 508). Therefore, two instruments were used to investigate students' flow states for each task (RQ4). The first instrument was the motivational flow questionnaire, in which items were taken directly from Egbert's (2003) 'perceptions survey'. This enabled the researcher to compare results with Egbert's (2003) study.

The questionnaire consisted of 14 items that required students to reflect on experiences during the preceding task as they responded to the questionnaire items. After the English version of the questionnaire was drafted, it was translated into Japanese in the same way as the

motivational self system questionnaire (i.e. back-translation). The questionnaire targeted four major dimensions of flow: interest, control, focus, and challenge. Learners responded to each item on a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (strongly disagree) and 7 (strongly agree).

The flow questionnaire was administered during the pilot study and results demonstrated an acceptable level of reliability (Cronbach alpha > .7). In addition, two students who completed the questionnaire during the pilot study were interviewed with the purpose of ensuring the questionnaire items were understood. The interviews suggested that students understood the items and were responding in a manner that the researcher intended. Therefore, the flow questionnaire was implemented without change in the main study.

During the main study, the flow questionnaire was administered to the Inter-cultural group and the Intra-cultural group immediately after the performance of each task, with each administration showing good reliability (see Chapter 7, section 7.3.1 for a detailed description of the main study's reliability analysis). Thus, each Japanese student completed the questionnaire a total of 10 times (i.e. in weeks 2-6 and weeks 8-12). As with the motivation self system questionnaire, the motivation questionnaire was delivered via the web-based survey program *SurveyMonkey*<sup>TM</sup>. The questionnaire was completed in class time immediately after the performance of the task and took approximately 10 minutes to complete. For the complete list of questionnaire items, see Appendix D.

#### **5.6.5. Learner diaries**

As a secondary means of measuring flow, learners were asked to write a diary entry after each task. This method was chosen as diaries provide rich data, which “give us access to participants’ voices” (Bailey & Nunan, 1996, p. 199). The purpose of the learner diary in this part of the study is to gather data on learners’ retrospective thought-processes, attitudes, and feelings about the task process with the intent of using the data to describe the different ways in which flow emerges from interaction. Diaries provided data to address the second part of RQ4 (i.e. the ways in which flow is affected by inter-cultural contact).

Participants wrote their diaries in Japanese and a bilingual Japanese graduate student later translated these into English. To guide students in writing their diaries, the researcher provided participants with questions prompts in order to elicit relevant commentary (e.g. How well do you feel you did the task?). The pilot study trialed the diary instrument on 23 students. Generally, the diaries were satisfactorily done and enriched the data collected on flow. The



prompts provided by the researcher seemed appropriate and directed some students to write a generous number of words for each entry. However, it was felt that some students' entries were not detailed enough, with a few students writing a single word for each prompt. To alleviate this problem, the main study included, in addition to the prompts, an example diary entry that students could refer to while writing. Instructions and the example diary entries were provided to students in both English and Japanese (see Appendix B: Data collection instruments).

During the main study, students in the Inter-cultural and Intra-cultural groups were asked to write diaries only after tasks in Task performance 2 (i.e. in weeks 8-12). Therefore, each student wrote five diary entries. Students wrote their diaries using the online editing software *Google Docs*<sup>TM</sup>. The advantage of using Google Docs was that students did not have to remember to submit their diaries because the document was updated to the researcher in real time; as a result, the researcher could check whether the diary entries had been completed and remind learners if necessary without face-to-face meetings. Before the task performances, the researcher created individual documents for each participant and inserted instructions and diary prompts. The documents were then shared with students on the day of the task. The students were instructed to complete their diary within 24 hours of completing their task.

#### **5.6.6. Self-reported learning chart**

The purpose of the self-reported learning chart was to collect data on what learners perceived they had learned from performing the tasks; this provided data to answer RQ7 and RQ8. The self-reported learning chart was adapted from Slimani's (1989, 1992) uptake recall chart. In addition to Slimani's linguistic categories, the learning chart asked learners to report on 'foreign culture' and 'Japanese culture'. The purpose of the linguistic portion of the learning chart was to obtain a measure of what new linguistic information learners had noticed and remembered during task interaction. Similar to Slimani's uptake recall chart, a distinction was made between linguistic items that were completely new to the student and items that were known before but consolidated during the task. On the other hand, the purpose of the cultural learning portion of the chart was to examine any inter-cultural learning that took place (i.e. perceived acquisition of cultural knowledge). See Chapter 9, section 9.2.2. for specific categories of the chart.

The final version of the self-reported learning chart was developed based on results of the pilot study. Instructions and category labels were provided in both English and Japanese.

When the instrument was piloted, some problematic issues arose. First, certain linguistic categories were underutilized. Second, learners reported almost twice as many items for Task performance 1 than for Task performance 2. Third, learners seemed to interpret the linguistic categories differently than the researcher’s intentions. At the end of the pilot study, the researcher interviewed two participants to shed light on the reasons behind the difficulty in completing the learning chart. The interviews revealed that (1) the meaning of certain categories may have been confusing to students and (2) completing the charts after both Task performance 1 and Task performance 2 may have induced participant fatigue. Based on these results, the version of the instrument used in the main study contained fewer categories and was not administered to students during Task performance 1.

During the main study, the self-reported learning chart was administered to students in the Inter- and Intra-cultural groups after the repeated performance of tasks (Task performance 2). The self-reported learning chart was delivered to students via *SurveyMonkey*<sup>TM</sup>. The chart was completed immediately after the flow questionnaire and took 5-10 minutes to complete. Therefore, in total, each EFL student completed five learning charts.

### 5.7. Summary of procedures

Table 8 summarizes the how each data collection instrument was used in the study.

**Table 8: Summary of procedures**

Instrument	Mode	Time of collection	Participants
Audio-recording	Voice-recorder	During Task performance 1 & 2.	All pairs; Inter- group & Intra- group.
Motivation questionnaire	Online	In class; week 1 & 13	All students; Comp. group, Inter- group & Intra- group.
Flow questionnaire	Online	Immediately after Task performance 1 & 2.	All pairs; Inter- group & Intra- group.
Learner diaries	Online	24 hours after Task performance 2.	All pairs; Inter- group & Intra- group.
Self-reported learning chart	Online	Immediately after Task performance 2.	All pairs; Inter- group & Intra- group.

## 5.8. Analysis

A detailed description of how each data set was analyzed will appear in each relevant results chapter. For this section, Table 9 briefly relates each research question to the data used and the kind of analytical procedures conducted.

All statistical analyses were done using SPSS version 22.0. AMOS version 21.0 was used to complete the CFA. In addition to significance values (alpha set at .05), effect sizes (Cohen's *d*) were also provided as evidence of magnitude of effect independent of sample size. Qualitative descriptions in the form of excerpts from diaries and dialogue from transcripts were provided to support and elucidate quantitative findings. In the case of statistical tests, such as multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and analysis of variance (ANOVA), if interactions effects were found, appropriate post-hoc tests were conducted as deemed necessary in order to answer each research question.

**Table 9: Summary of analysis**

Research question	Data	Analysis
1. Does inter-cultural contact have an effect on the different components of Japanese EFL learners' motivation?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Motivational self system questionnaire (pre- and post-)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>CFA of motivational self system questionnaire</li> <li>Mixed model ANOVA for each motivational component</li> </ul>
2. Does intra-cultural contact have an effect on the different components of Japanese EFL learners' motivation?		
3. Is there any difference in the effects of inter-cultural and intra-cultural contact on the different components of Japanese EFL learners' motivation?		
4. Does interaction arising from inter-cultural contact during the performances of tasks affect learners' motivational flow, and, if so, in what ways?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Motivational flow questionnaire</li> <li>Learner diaries</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Mixed-model MANOVA conducted on mean flow scores</li> <li>Content analysis of learner diaries</li> <li>Chi-squared analysis on tabulated categories</li> </ul>
5. Is there a relationship between motivational flow and the amount of output produced by EFL learners experiencing inter-cultural contact and intra-cultural contact, and, if so, what are the differences in the relationships?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Audio-recording</li> <li>Motivational flow questionnaire</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Correlational analysis between words, turns, words/turn and motivational flow scores</li> </ul>
6. How does inter-cultural contact affect (a) the amount of output and (b) the frequency, type, linguistic focus, complexity, and resolution of language-related episodes generated by learners during the repeated performance of tasks?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Audio-recording</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Identification and classification of LREs in task transcripts</li> <li>Between subjects MANOVA conducted on LRE categories</li> </ul>
7. Does inter-cultural contact affect what learners report learning during the repeated performance of tasks?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Self-reported learning chart</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>One-way ANOVA on frequency of claimed items for each category.</li> </ul>
8. How does inter-cultural contact affect the relationship between the occurrence of language-related episodes and what learners report learning?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Audio-recording</li> <li>Self-reported learning chart</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Traced reported items to transcripts</li> <li>Categorized claim items based on the type of LRE they emerged from</li> <li>Chi-squared analysis on categories</li> </ul>

Specific dependent variables (e.g. categories of LREs) will be outlined in the analysis section of each results chapter.

### **5.9. Summary**

This chapter has presented a detailed account of the research methodology for this study. To examine the effect of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation and learning in a comprehensive manner, this study adopted a process-product approach. Because of the variety of constructs used to measure process and product features, a mixed methods approach was taken. Two types of contact were generated through five dialogic, oral tasks, which were performed twice. The inter-cultural contact treatment was done in the repeated task performance stage, where international students were introduced to provide the inter-cultural contact to the Inter-cultural group. A pilot study informed the development and implementation of the five data collection instruments used in this study. A summary of the analysis has been provided, but a more detailed description of the analyses and procedures relevant to each research component can be found in each results chapter.

## **Chapter 6. The L2 motivational self system**

### **6.1. Introduction**

This chapter addresses the first series of research questions. This first investigation uses the motivational components of Dörnyei's (2005) L2 Motivation Self System to assess the effect of inter-cultural and intra-cultural contact on motivation. In addition, the attitudinal variable International Posture has been added to the system of variables because of its unique relationship with L2 motivation for Japanese EFL learners. This investigation is product-oriented in that it looks at motivational states of learners both before and after the treatment. Specifically, the following research questions will be addressed:

- RQ1. Does inter-cultural contact have an effect on the different components of Japanese EFL learners' motivation?
- RQ2. Does intra-cultural contact have an effect on the different components of Japanese EFL learners' motivation?
- RQ4. Is there any difference in the effects of inter-cultural and intra-cultural contact on the different components of Japanese learners' EFL motivation?

After a brief description of the dependent and independent variables, the treatment will be outlined, followed by a description of the participants and research design. A complete analysis of the validity and reliability of the questionnaire instrument will follow. Results pertinent to each research question will be reported. Finally, a discussion section will attempt to answer the research questions proposed.

#### **6.1.1. Components of the L2 motivational self system**

To briefly reiterate descriptions made in the method section, this investigation employed a pre- and post- questionnaire research design to investigate changes in motivational variables. The L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005), the most prominent L2 motivation theory related to the concept of self and identity, was used as a framework (refer to Chapter 3, section 3.3. for a detailed review). The components of the system, which make up the dependent variables for this investigation, include:

- *Ideal L2 self*: the central self guide in the model, which is described as a learner's idealized version of him/her self in the future. It is what learners hope or aspire to in regards to their L2.
- *Ought-to L2 self*: the second self guide embodies the pressure to meet the language learning expectations of others, thus having a contrasting but complementary role to ideal L2 self.
- *L2 learning experience*: conceptualized on a different level, rather than representing a self guide, L2 learning experience reflects the impact that the immediate learning environment (e.g., the teacher, tasks, classroom atmosphere) might have on a learner's motivation.
- *L2 motivated learning behavior*: examines the amount of effort the student is willing to put into learning English.

In addition, Yashima's (2002, 2009, 2013) construct, international posture, will be measured as the final motivational component:

- *International posture*: describes as an interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas, readiness to interact with inter-cultural partners, and an openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures (Yashima, 2002, p. 57)

The rationale for including international posture as a motivation component stems from empirical evidence that Japanese English students with high international posture also exhibit higher levels of motivated learning behavior (Yashima, 2002; Yashima, 2008; Yashima et al., 2004) and international posture is closely related to the formation of an ideal L2 self (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Yashima, 2009).

### 6.1.2. Inter-cultural and intra-cultural contact

As mentioned in Chapter 5, the independent variable in the study is defined as type of contact with two levels:

- *Inter-cultural contact*: Face-to-face interaction between members of different cultural and linguistic communities arising from the performance of tasks.

- *Intra-cultural contact*: Face-to-face interaction between members of the same cultural and linguistic community arising from the performance of tasks.

The two kinds of contact are scaffolded within a task-based framework. Inter-cultural contact is generated through interactions between Japanese EFL students and International students. Intra-cultural contact is produced when Japanese EFL students interaction between themselves.

## 6.2. Method

### 6.2.1. Participants

A total of 84 students participated in this component of the research. Sixty-three of these participants were first-year university Japanese students, which together comprise three groups: the Inter-cultural group, the Intra-cultural group, and the Comparison group. The Inter-cultural and Intra-cultural groups are made up of students from one intact class each; however, the Comparison group is made up of students randomly chosen from 12 different classes. A summary of participants' characteristics from Chapter 5 is shown in Table 10.

**Table 10: Summary of the three groups**

	Gender	Speaking proficiency	Inter-cultural contact experience	
			<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Inter- group	13F, 8M	Below average	5.24 min/week	7.98
Intra- group	11F, 10M	Below average	4.76 min/week	12.99
Comp. group	12F, 9M	Below average	5.88 min/week	13.65

Inter- group = Inter-cultural group, Intra- group = Intra-cultural group, Comp. group = Comparison group

The three groups were similar in terms of current English course (Intensive English, four skills), number of students (N = 21), self-reported English proficiency (below average), nationality and first language of students (Japanese), and year at university (1<sup>st</sup> year, second semester). Furthermore, as can be seen in Table 10, students self-reported very little contact with international students on campus during the previous semester. In fact, the mode for number of



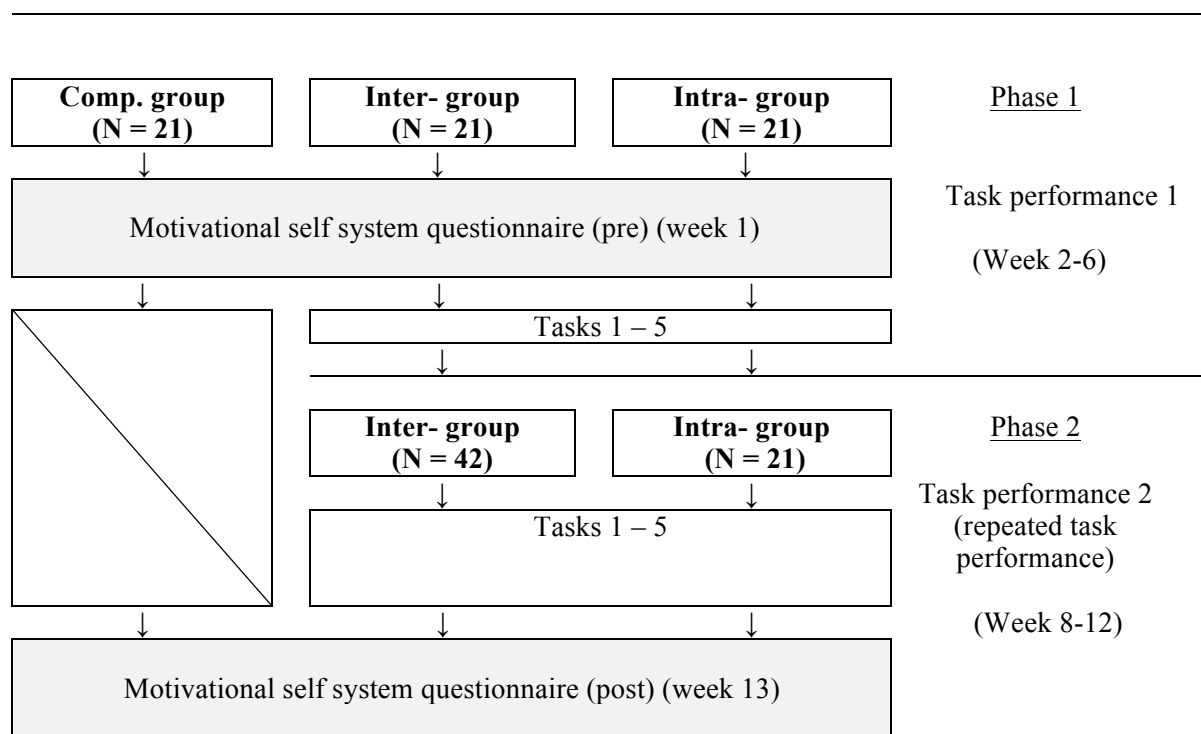
minutes and days of contact per week was zero, indicating that most of these Japanese students are essentially isolated from international students on campus. For the two treatment groups (Inter- and Intra-cultural groups), the teacher variable has been controlled for; the same teacher, using the same textbook, taught students in these two groups.

The 21 international students were selected according to criteria given in Chapter 5. International students reported either being a native English speaker (N =13) or non-native English speaker (N =8). All non-native speakers self-reported having ‘very good’ speaking, listening, reading, and writing English skills. Furthermore, the group consisted of 10 different ethnicities (9 countries).

### 6.2.2. Design

The research was conducted over a thirteen-week period as shown in Table 11.

**Table 11: Design of the experiment**



Inter- group = Inter-cultural Group, Intra- group = Intra-cultural group, Comp. group = Comparison group

Phase 1 of the research was from week 2 to week 6, during which time students

performed one oral paired task per week. Thus, a total of 5 tasks were performed. During week 1 (Time 1), the motivational self system questionnaire was administered to each participant. Participants were then assigned a task partner during week 1 and kept the same partner for all five tasks. However, an odd number of students in each group (21) resulted in there being 9 pairs and one group of three. There were a total of three absences in the Inter-cultural group and three absences in the Intra-cultural group, which meant that in practice, three out of the five task performances were done in 10 pairs for each group.

Phase 2 of the experiment involved the inter-cultural contact treatment. For the Intra-cultural group, each student was paired with another student from within the group. Every student from this group had a different Japanese interlocutor than they had in Phase 1. Also during the Phase 2, international students were invited to the classroom and were paired with Japanese students from the Inter-cultural group only. Therefore, all Japanese students from the Inter-cultural group had an international interlocutor. Participants from both groups then repeated the tasks in their new pairs in weeks 7 to 12. The motivational self system questionnaire (post) was then administered to all students at week 13 (Time 2).

### **6.2.3. Instrument**

The sole data collection instrument for this portion of the research was a motivational self system questionnaire, which consisted of 36 items and was administered to students in English and Japanese. The purpose of the questionnaire was to measure the strength of the following variables: *motivated learning behavior*, *ideal L2 self*, *ought-to L2 self*, *L2 learning environment*, and *international posture*. Items were adapted from previous studies (Nakahira & Yashima, 2012; Taguchi et al., 2009; Yashima et al., 2009) involving Japanese learners of English and consisted of statements to which participants were asked to rate their agreement on a 7-point Likert scale.

#### **6.2.3.1. Validity of questionnaire**

To examine the construct validity of the questionnaire, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted which tested the validity of the specified relationships between the variables and the actual questionnaire items that assess them. Thirty-six items attempted to measure the five motivational variables. Data used for the CFA were from the administration of

the questionnaire at Time 1 (week 1) and Time 2 (week 13). CFAs were done on both data sets. SPSS version 22 was used to organize data and AMOS version 21 was used to complete the analysis.

As a rule of thumb, Kline (2005) recommends a sample size of over 200 for CFA analysis, which he deems to be “large” and sufficient for most models. Data for the CFA were based on the administration of the questionnaire to a sample of learners who did not participate in the study (i.e., not part of the Inter-cultural group, Intra-cultural group or Comparison group). However, all CFA participants were from the same intensive language program as the treatment and comparison groups, but were spread over 12 classes. The number of participants at Time 1 was 223; however, due to absences, only 203 students of these students completed the questionnaire again at Time 2. Thus, 20 students were eliminated from the analysis as they failed to complete the questionnaire at both time periods. The CFA analysis was therefore done on both data sets (Time 1 and Time 2), which both had a sample size of 203.

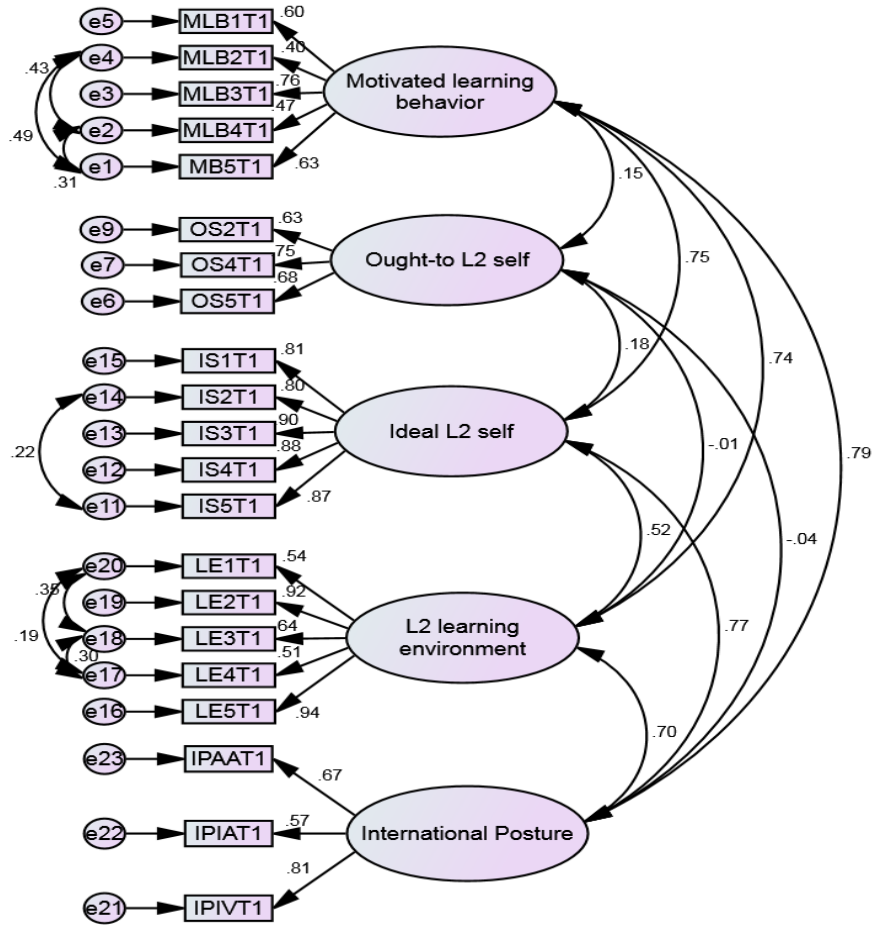
During the CFA process modifications were made in order to satisfy the basic validity requirements of the model. First, for both data sets (Time 1 and Time 2), the following two items on the scale ought-to L2 self were found to be loading very low (less than .35), and as a result were deleted:

OS1 – *It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't study English.*

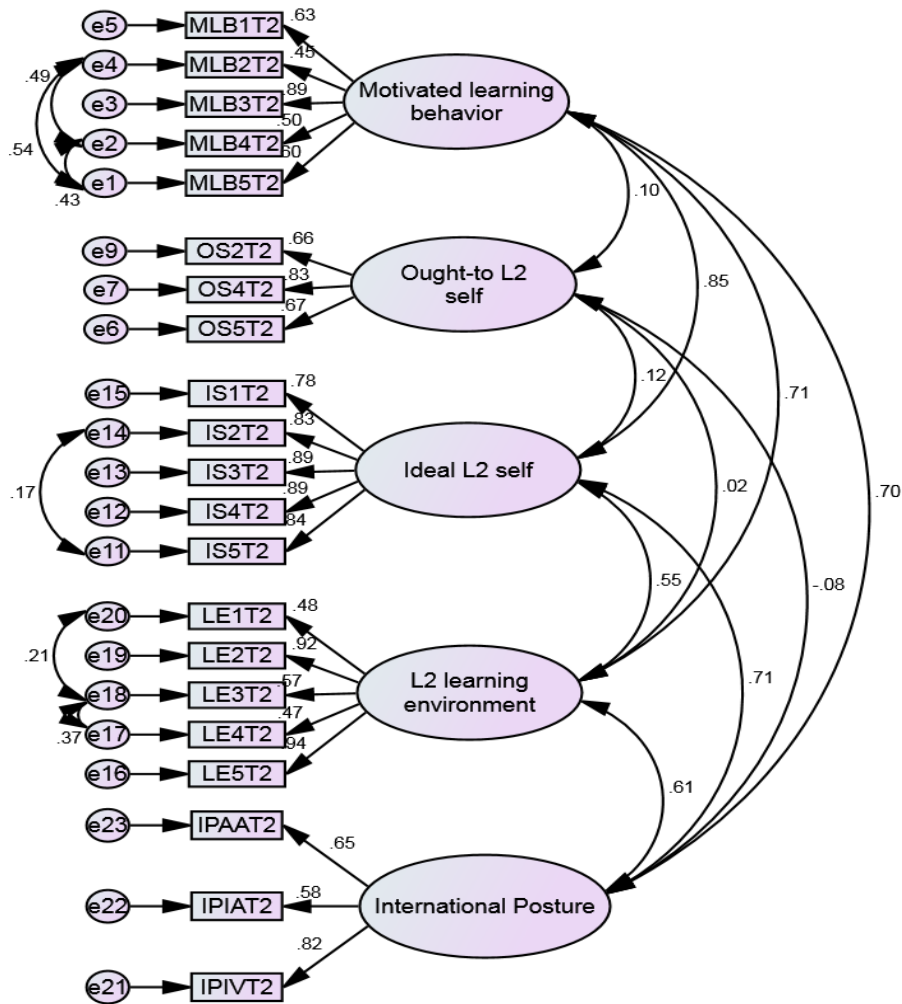
OS3 – *I study English because close friends of mine think it is important*

Secondly, after reviewing the modification indices in the AMOS output, the following error terms of three items were correlated on two separate scales: MLB2-MLB4, MLB4-MLB5, MLB2-MLB5, IS2-IS5, LE1-LE3, LE1-LE4, LE3-LE4 (Time 1) and MLB2-MLB4, MLB4-MLB5, MLB2-MLB5, IS2-IS5, LE1-LE3, LE3-LE4 (Time 2). This was theoretically justified as the items involved were measuring the same variable and were worded similarly. Figure 4 shows the CFA model for Time 1 and Figure 2 shows the CFA model for Time 2.

Figure 2: CFA model for Time 1



**Figure 3: CFA model for Time 2**



To achieve a comprehensive evaluation of fit, the following fit indices were reported: chi-squared, goodness-of-fit index (GFI), comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), incremental fit index (IFI), and root mean squared approximation (RMSEA). The recommended value for model fit is .9 or above for IFI, GFI, TLI, and CFI, and .8 or below for RMSEA (e.g., Byrne, 1998; Hu & Bentler, 1995). These values are reported in Table 12.

**Table 12: Selected fit measures for the CFA measurement**

Fit index	Time 1	Time 2
CFI	.92	.92
TLI	.90	.90
IFI	.92	.92
GFI	.86	.85
RMSEA	.074	.076
Chi-squared	363.125 ( $p < .001$ )	376.270 ( $p < .001$ )

Note: Time 1 represents the first administration during the week 1. Time 2 represents the first administration during the week 13.

Table 12 shows that most indices meet the minimum values for acceptable model fit. Although the value for chi-squared is significant for both models, the fit requirement of  $p > .05$  is notoriously difficult to meet, especially for sample sizes over 200 involving several factors (Schumacher & Lomax, 2004, p. 100). Thus, it can be concluded that, after two items were removed from the analysis, the modified model is a satisfactory fit for the data collected in Time 1 and Time 2.

### **6.2.3.1. Reliability of questionnaire**

In light of the CFA, the questionnaire was deemed to have valid construct validity. Therefore, 34 items were used in the analysis comparing the change in motivational self system variables for the Inter-cultural group, the Intra-cultural group, and the Comparison group, with administrations at Time 1 and Time 2. Table 13 shows the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) for each administration and each group. Kline's (1999) criteria for describing internal consistency claims that an alpha greater than 0.9 constitutes an excellent level of reliability, between 0.7 and 0.9 represents a good level, and between 0.6 and 0.7 is an acceptable level.

**Table 13: Cronbach Alpha coefficients for each scale**

Scales	Group (N = 21)	Cronbach's $\alpha$ (Time 1)	Cronbach's $\alpha$ (Time 2)
Motivated learning behavior	Inter- group	.77	.86
	Intra- group	.75	.80
	Comp. group	.82	.86
Ideal L2 self	Inter- group	.90	.88
	Intra- group	.80	.90
	Comp. group	.91	.92
Ought-to L2 self	Inter- group	.68	.77
	Intra- group	.69	.70
	Comp. group	.75	.80
L2 learning experience	Inter- group	.86	.89
	Intra- group	.79	.86
	Comp. group	.86	.89
International Posture	Inter- group	.86	.87
	Intra- group	.81	.80
	Comp. group	.86	.92

Inter- group = Inter-cultural group, Intra- group = Intra-cultural group, Comp. group = Comparison group

Using Kline's (1999) criteria for internal consistency, all scales were evaluated as having an 'excellent' or 'good' level of reliability, except for ought-to L2 self, which performed at lower – albeit 'acceptable' – level of reliability for the administration at Time 1. The finding that ought-to L2 self is less reliable than other scales is similar to previous findings (e.g. Lamb, 2012; Taguchi et al., 2009). As noted by Lamb (2012), this may be due to the wording of frequently used questionnaire items. In this case, to capture the general notion of possessing an obligation towards others to learn English, items referred to "parental" disappointment, the importance "close friends" put on English, and the expectations of "people surrounding me." For these Japanese students, the expectations from each of these social groups may be different and possibly contradictory. Nevertheless, the questionnaire was deemed reliable and the data

was used in further analysis.

### **6.3. Analysis**

A repeated measures mixed-model ANOVA ( $3 \times 2$ ) was conducted on the mean scores for each motivation variable to test for the comparative effects of the treatments on motivation, with time as the within-subjects factor with two levels (Time 1, Time 2) and group as the between-group factor with three levels (Inter-cultural group, Intra-cultural group, Comparison group). Pertinent to the research questions of this chapter is the determination of any interaction effect (time-by-group) on each motivation variable. Any significant interactions were subjected to a post-hoc analysis. This involved a one-way ANOVA to compare group means at each time for variables where an interaction is observed followed by pairwise group comparisons (with Bonferonni adjustment) to determine whether changes within groups were significant.

### **6.4. Results**

The descriptive statistics of each variable measured at Time 1 and Time 2 is shown in Table 14.



**Table 14: Mean scores for each variable**

Variable	Group ( <i>N</i> = 21)	Time 1		Time 2	
		Mean	<i>SD</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Motivated learning behavior	Inter-	4.50	.92	4.62	1.10
	Intra-	4.40	.54	4.44	.77
	Comp.	4.52	.92	4.59	1.06
Ought-to L2 self	Inter-	3.33	.93	3.44	1.61
	Intra-	3.85	1.15	3.73	1.05
	Comp.	3.65	1.34	4.10	1.55
Ideal L2 self	Inter-	4.41	1.03	4.91	1.08
	Intra-	4.23	.71	4.48	1.09
	Comp.	4.35	1.19	4.35	1.26
L2 learning environment	Inter-	5.38	1.00	5.88	1.11
	Intra-	5.49	.84	5.44	.92
	Comp.	5.14	.96	5.03	1.18
International Posture	Inter-	4.99	.77	5.27	.84
	Intra-	5.06	.72	5.09	.77
	Comp.	4.69	.91	4.58	1.02

Inter- = Inter-cultural group, Intra- = Intra-cultural group, Comp. = Comparison group

A repeated measures mixed-model ANOVA ( $3 \times 2$ ) was conducted on the mean scores for each variable to test for the comparative effects of the treatments on motivation, with time as the within-subjects factor with two levels (Time 1, Time 2) and group as the between-group factor with three levels (Inter-cultural group, Intra-cultural group, Comparison group) for each of the five variables. The dependent variables are scores of each variable obtained at Time 1 and Time 2 (motivated learning behavior, ought-to L2 self, ideal L2 self, L2 learning environment, and international posture). The assumption of homogeneity of variance (as tested by Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices) was not violated; therefore, Wilks' Lambda was reported for significant values. The results are shown in Table 15.

**Table 15: Univariate tests (mixed-model ANOVA) of 3 (group) × 2 (time) design**

Variable	Effect	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	$\eta^2$
Motivated learning behavior	Time	.687	1	.410	.011
	Group	.199	60	.820	.007
	Time × Group	.064	60	.938	.002
Ought-to L2 self	Time	1.051	1	.309	.017
	Group	1.018	60	.368	.033
	Time × Group	1.415	60	.251	.045
Ideal L2 self	Time	5.958	1	.018	.090
	Group	2.065	60	.136	.064
	Time × Group	.665	60	.518	.022
L2 learning environment	Time	1.308	1	.257	.021
	Group	1.875	60	.162	.059
	Time × Group	3.946	60	.025	.116
International Posture	Time	1.308	1	.257	.021
	Group	2.379	60	.101	.073
	Time × Group	3.701	60	.030	.110

Pertinent to the research questions of this chapter were the significant time-by-group interactions for L2 learning environment and international posture. Both L2 learning environment,  $F(2,60) = 3.946$ ,  $p = .025$ ,  $\eta^2 = .116$ , and international posture,  $F(2,60) = 3.701$ ,  $p = .030$ ,  $\eta^2 = .110$ , reached a level of significance, which indicates that the changes in mean scores over time for these variables are not equivalent between the three groups. Thus, changes in mean scores for L2 learning behavior and international posture for each group need to be explored further.

A one-way ANOVA was performed to compare the group means at each time for the two variables where an interaction was observed. Results of mean comparisons are shown in Table 16.

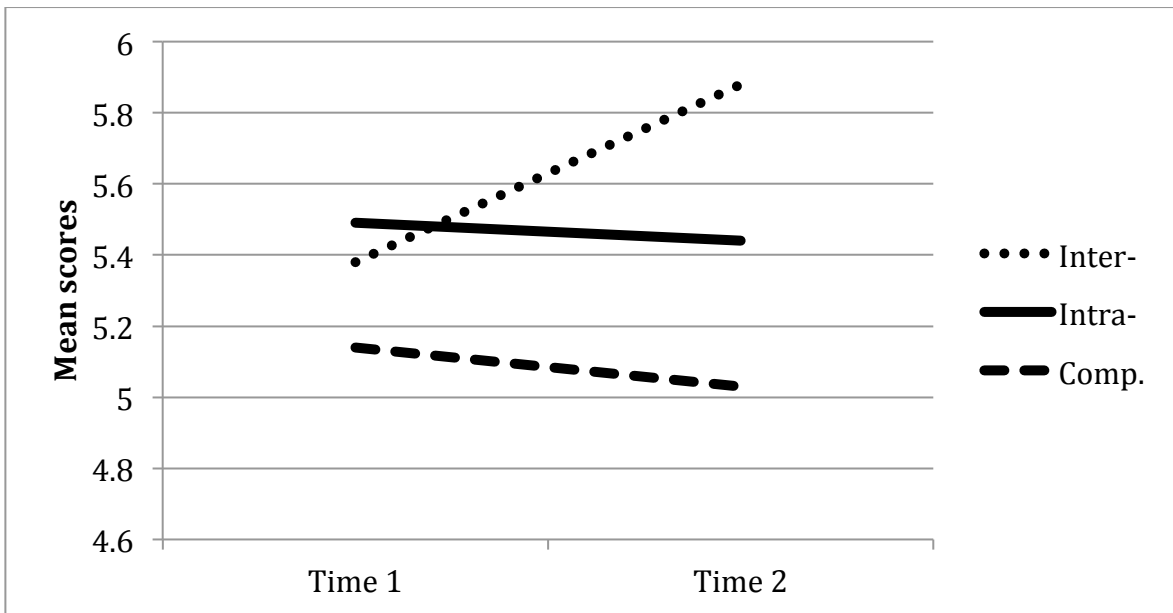
**Table 16: Results of one-way ANOVA comparing means between groups**

	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance	Post-hoc tests
<i>L2 learning experience</i>				
Time 1	.739	2	.482	
Time 2	3.274	2	.045	Inter- > Comp.
<i>International Posture</i>				
Time 1	1.253	2	.293	
Time 2	3.517	2	.036	Inter- > Comp.

*Note:* Inter- = Inter-cultural group, Intra- = Intra-cultural group, Comp. = Comparison group. Pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni adjustment are used for post-hoc analysis

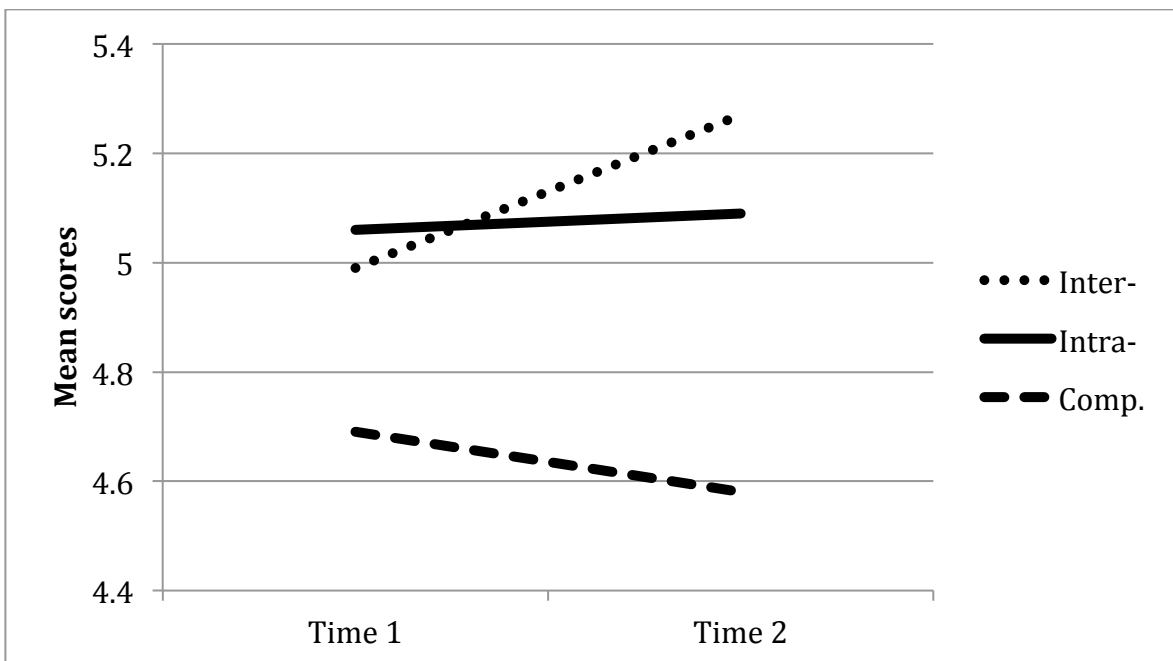
For L2 learning experience, there was no statistical difference between the groups at Time 1. At Time 2, however, there was a significant difference between the groups ( $p = .045$ ). Post-hoc analyses of Multiple Comparisons (with Bonferroni adjustment) indicate that the Inter-cultural group had significantly higher mean scores than the Comparison group ( $p = .039$ ,  $d = .760$ ), but the Intra-cultural group did not differ significantly from either the Inter-cultural group ( $p = .573$ ,  $d = .442$ ) or the Comparison group at Time 2 ( $p = .664$ ,  $d = .397$ ). Similarly, for international posture, there were no statistical differences between the groups at Time 1. However, at Time 2, there was a significant difference ( $p = .036$ ). Post-hoc analyses revealed that the Inter-cultural group scored significantly higher than the Comparison group ( $p = .039$ ,  $d = .757$ ), but the Intra-cultural group did not significantly differ from the Inter-cultural ( $p = 1.00$ ,  $d = .229$ ) or Comparison group ( $p = .194$ ,  $d = .578$ ). This is shown visually in Figure 4 and Figure 5.

**Figure 4: Changes in mean scores for L2 learning experience**



Inter- = Inter-cultural group, Intra- = Intra-cultural group, Comp. = Comparison group

**Figure 5: Changes in mean scores for international posture**



Inter- = Inter-cultural group, Intra- = Intra-cultural group, Comp. = Comparison group

Two one-way within-groups (repeated measures) ANOVAs were conducted to investigate whether the change in L2 learning experience and international posture between the two time periods was significant for each group. Since two ANOVAs are repeated, Bonferroni adjustment is applied and an  $\alpha$  level of .25 is used for claiming .05 level significance per family. Results revealed that the Inter-cultural group significantly increased their L2 learning experience scores from Time 1 to Time 2,  $F(1,20) = .949, p = .006, d = .485$ , whereas the Intra-cultural group and the Comparison group did not (Intra-cultural group:  $F(1,20) = .079, p = .781, d = -.058$ ; Comparison group:  $F(1,20) = .427, p = .521, d = -.105$ ). The effect size indicates that the inter-cultural contact had a medium effect on learners' L2 learning experience. Similarly, the Inter-cultural group also significantly increased their international posture scores from Time 1 to Time 2,  $F(1,20) = 5.970, p = .024, d = .356$ , whereas the Intra-cultural and the Comparison group did not (Intra-cultural group:  $F(1,20) = .128, p = .724, d = .041$ ; Comparison group:  $F(1,20) = .986, p = .332, d = -.117$ ). The effect size reveals that the inter-cultural contact treatment also has a medium effect on international posture.

#### **6.4.1. Summary**

To summarize, the research questions addressed in this chapter focused on the effect that inter-cultural contact (RQ1) and intra-cultural contact (RQ2) had on the motivational components of Japanese EFL learners over a period of 13 weeks, as well as the difference in the effects of each type of contact (RQ3). After establishing the construct validity and reliability of the research instrument, a mixed method ANOVA and subsequent post-hoc tests were conducted on the means of each variable for each group, which revealed some notable results. There was a significant interaction effect of time-by-group for L2 learning behavior and international posture. That is, the change in mean scores for these two motivational components was not the same across the three groups. Further investigation into these interactions revealed that although there were no significant differences between mean scores between groups at Time 1, students who received the inter-cultural contact treatment scored significantly higher on these motivational scales than the Comparison group. Finally, for both L2 learning behavior and international posture, the Inter-cultural group was the only group to significantly increase their mean scores over the duration of the study.

## 6.5. Discussion

RQ1 addressed the effect of inter-cultural contact on the different components of Japanese EFL learners' motivation. The Inter-cultural group was the only group of participants to receive the inter-cultural contact treatment. This group significantly increased their scores for two motivational components: L2 learning environment ( $p = .006$ ,  $d = .485$ ) and international posture ( $p = .024$ ,  $d = .356$ ). The effect size for both variables was medium. Furthermore, the Inter-cultural group was the only group to make significant improvements on these variables. Any changes in mean scores for motivated learning behavior, L2 ideal self, and ought-to L2 self did not significantly differ from the other two groups before or after the treatment. In other words, inter-cultural contact was effective in improving only L2 learning environment and international posture at a statistically significant level.

RQ2 focused on the effect of intra-cultural contact on the different components of Japanese EFL learners' motivation. The Intra-cultural group performed the treatment tasks under the condition of intra-cultural contact; that is, they performed the same tasks but in Japanese-Japanese pairs. From Time 1 to Time 2, there was no significant movement of the Intra-cultural group's scores for any of the motivational variables when compared to the Comparison group. However, there was a non-significant gain in international posture for the Intra-cultural group while the Comparison group decreased their mean scores. Overall, we can conclude that intra-cultural contact has little effect on any motivation variable and no effect at a statistically significant level.

RQ3 asked whether there is a difference in the effect of inter-cultural and intra-cultural contact. For the variable L2 learning experience, there was a time-by-group interaction for the three groups. While the Inter-cultural group significantly increased their mean scores for this scale, the Intra-cultural group showed a non-significant decrease in scores. However, the overall difference in mean scores between these groups was non-significant both at Time 1 and Time 2. For the variable of international posture, both treatment groups increased their mean scores over the 13 weeks period. However, the increase of the Inter-cultural group was significant whereas the increase in the Intra-cultural group was marginal and non-significant. The overall difference in mean scores between these groups was non-significant both at Time 1 and Time 2. We can conclude that the inter-cultural contact treatment was beneficial in significantly improving both

L2 learning environment and international posture scores, but the additional positive effect of inter-cultural contact over intra-cultural contact was not significant.

The fact that there were no significant differences between the Inter-cultural and Intra-cultural group at Time 2 warrants some explanation. One explanation could be due to interpreting this result in terms of statistical significance. A feature of significance is that it is not only a function of the magnitude of the result but also the size of the sample. In the case of this study, the sample size for each group was small ( $N = 21$ ). Perhaps more emphasis, then, should be placed on the effect size. At Time 2, the effect sizes for the differences between groups were: L2 learning experience,  $d = .442$  and international posture,  $d = .229$ . Thus, we can say, the additional benefit of inter-cultural contact over intra-cultural contact can be equated to a medium effect size on L2 learning experience and a small effect size on international posture.

The results of this part of the research suggest that inter-cultural contact most positively impacts L2 learning environment. In fact, students who received inter-cultural contact were from the only group to make any gains in this scale. Students who completed the tasks with intra-cultural contact and students who did not take part in the tasks at all decreased their scores on this scale. L2 learning experience reflects the impact that the immediate learning environment might have on a learner's motivation. As Dörnyei (2009) explains, the trigger for initial motivation commonly comes from an engagement in the learning processes rather than from the generation of internal or external self-guides. Inter-cultural contact, then, seems to be effective in creating an immersive and enjoyable learning environment for students.

International posture was the second variable that was impacted by inter-cultural contact in this research. This lends support to Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide's (2008) finding that Japanese students who interact with speakers of an L2 community gain in terms of international posture. In the case of Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide (2008), students received inter-cultural contact in a study abroad context; it is encouraging, therefore, to see significant gains in this study where students in the Inter-cultural group received relatively little contact – at least in comparison with students experiencing contact in a foreign country. Perhaps this is indicative of the effectiveness of generating inter-cultural interaction in a supportive learning environment where contact occurs and is scaffolded through a task-based framework.

Despite inter-cultural contact significantly impacting international posture, there was no interaction effect for ideal L2 self, indicating that changes in this variable did not significantly differ between groups. This is surprising since Yashima (2013) claims that international posture

and ideal L2 self are highly correlated. If international posture is affected, one would expect ideal L2 self to be affected in the same direction. There was, however, a significant time effect for ideal L2 self. Considering there was no change in ideal L2 self scores for the Comparison group, the significant time effect was due to increases in ideal L2 scores self for both the inter- and intra-cultural groups. This seems to suggest that the tasks themselves (rather than the type of contact) encouraged learners to imagine themselves as proficient English speakers. Perhaps if the treatment were longer, ideal L2 self would show a significant development.

Surprisingly the Inter-cultural group did not make significant gains in motivated learning behavior. Previous studies have shown that L2 learning environment has a strong and direct impact on motivation (Taguchi, 2013; Taguchi et al., 2009; Csizér & Kormos, 2009). International posture has also been shown to effect motivation both directly (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004; Yashima, 2008) and indirectly through L2 ideal self (Csizér & Kormos, 2009). Yet, despite significant gains in both variables, the inter-cultural contact group failed to significantly improve its motivated learning behavior scores. One explanation for this is that L2 learning behavior and international posture capture attitudes that are more susceptible to short-term change, whereas changes in motivated learning behavior requires students to redirect and reprioritize their time and effort. A relatively short inter-cultural contact treatment may be sufficient to cause more positive attitudes towards the classroom environment and towards inter-cultural interaction. However, changes in motivated learning behavior means that English is recognized as a more important subject than it was before, a subject that deserves more attention both inside and outside of class. Perhaps a longer treatment would have caused positive changes in this variable. A second explanation relates to Tatsuya's (2013) claim that a positive attitude towards the classroom environment that is not connected to a learner's ideal L2 self "does not trigger strong motivation" (p. 184). Students may have enjoyed participating in the treatment activities without relating it to how they intend to use English in their future. Nevertheless, this portion of the study indicates that inter-cultural contact causes a positive change in attitudes towards the English learning environment and is useful in improving attitudes towards the international community.

## **6.6. Conclusion**

The first portion of this research applied the L2 motivational self system to an EFL classroom environment in order to examine changes in the motivational components of learners



who performed a series of tasks under the conditions of inter-cultural contact, intra-cultural contact, and learners who did not perform any tasks. The results revealed that the Inter-cultural group increased their scores significantly for the variables international posture and L2 learning experience. In contrast, there were no significant changes in mean scores either in the intra-cultural group or the comparison group. This suggests that inter-cultural contact results in a more positive attitude towards the classroom environment (i.e., engagement in tasks) and a more positive attitude towards the international culture in general. The differential effect of inter- and intra-cultural contact was not significant for the two variables, suggesting that the tasks themselves were well received by learners in both treatment groups.

It is important to emphasize that data collection for this investigation relied solely upon questionnaire data to investigate changes in motivation. Questionnaire items were intentionally simple so learners could easily understand and respond appropriately. The disadvantage of this, however, is that the research instrument did not require learners to think deeply about their motivational dispositions; therefore, the data may not have captured some of the more interesting differences between the two groups. Furthermore, a pre- and post- questionnaire design is not revealing of the ebbs and flows of motivation during the treatment period (i.e. motivation as a process). It is conceivable that each separate task experience had a different impact on learners' attitudes towards the class, their attitudes towards English in general, and ultimately on their ability to see themselves as successful future English speakers. This research component did not investigate these motivational trajectories. The next chapter may shed some light on this issue as it takes a process approach to motivation – that is, it looks at learner engagement during each task interaction.

## **Chapter 7. Motivational flow**

### **7.1. Introduction**

This chapter presents the results and discussion for RQ4. The investigation is process-oriented in that it examines the engagement of learners while they perform each task during the research period. It draws on Flow Theory (Csikszentihlyi, 1975, 1988, 1990, 1997) to investigate whether inter-cultural contact affects the motivational intensity of learners during task interaction. This chapter attempts to answer the following research question:

RQ4. Does interaction arising from inter-cultural contact during the performances of tasks affect learners' motivational flow, and, if so, in what ways?

This chapter will start with a short description of Flow Theory (see Chapter 3, section 3.2.2. for a more detailed review of flow), and how it is generated through intra-cultural and inter-cultural task interaction in the classroom. The research design follows the outline given in Chapter 6. There were two research instruments used in this portion of the study: a motivational flow questionnaire and learner diaries. Therefore, the method will outline the questionnaire reliability analysis and diary content analysis procedures. Results relevant to the research question will be reported both quantitatively and qualitatively. Finally, a discussion section will attempt to interpret and answer the research question proposed.

#### **7.1.1. Flow Theory**

Flow is described as a state that reflects complete involvement in an activity (Csikszentmihalyi, 1988, 1990, 1997). If the activity is a language task, a state of flow could be considered a process goal of teachers and learners alike. Arising completely independent of instrumental factors, the attainment of flow occurs when learners are completely immersed in the task at hand, resulting in peak activity and creativity. In other words, flow is a result of elevated task engagement (Dörnyei, 2005).

Egbert (2003) claims that flow can exist in the language classroom, provided that language tasks are developed in such a way as to 1) challenge the learner to the point up to the learner's skill-level, 2) provide opportunities for learners to focus their attention, 3) be perceived as intrinsically interesting or authentic, and 4) afford learners control over the task process and

outcome. The tasks used in this study contain a number of features that, according to Egbert's (2003) criteria, may facilitate flow. The type of contact may also affect a learner's flow state. Inter-cultural interactions will most likely challenge the learner in ways that intra-cultural interaction do not, thus affecting the ways in which flow emerges. An interesting but minor observation from Egbert (2003) was that the highest flow levels among students occurred when students participated in a task involving computer-mediated inter-cultural contact. This research component further explores the relationship of inter-cultural contact and flow.

## **7.2. Method**

### **7.2.1. Tasks and procedures**

The researcher designed five dialogic, oral tasks that were performed by students in pairs. Each task had two parts: a self-guided research stage and a task performance stage. The task performance included an information-gap and a decision-making portion (which included the sharing of opinions). Two days before students performed each task, the teacher introduced the task goals and procedures. For homework, students completed a task research worksheet. The purpose of the task research worksheet was for students to choose an item (e.g., a person, place, animal, job) and collect information on their item to be used in the task. In this sense, the researcher selected the topic but the students generated the informational content.

Student pairs were given 25 minutes to complete each task activity and instructed to only speak English. The topics were chosen to facilitate an exchange and analysis of cultural knowledge before making a decision. The task topics were travel (Task 1), nature (Task 2), history (Task 3), careers (Task 4), and celebrations (Task 5). During all task performances, a task performance worksheet was provided to learners, where they wrote down their partners' answers to questions asked. A detailed description of each task goals, task characteristics, and implementation procedure was given in Chapter 5, section 5.6.1.

### **7.2.2. Task pairings**

As described in Chapter 5, learners who performed the tasks comprised two groups: the Inter-cultural group and the Intra-cultural group. The five tasks were performed (one per week) and then repeated for the next five weeks. Inter-cultural contact was provided to students in the Inter-cultural group only during the repeated performance of tasks (Task performance 2).

Students in the Intra-cultural group repeated the tasks with another Japanese student in the class. In order to ensure that changes in motivational flow from Task performance 1 to Task performance 2 were due to the treatment condition, task pairings were carefully planned.

During Task performance 1, students were randomly paired with another student in their group. However, to control for the effect of gender on interaction, the researcher attempted to pair students with an interlocutor of the opposite gender. However, because of an uneven number of male/females in the Inter-cultural group, Inter-cultural group had one female/female/female group, one female/female pair, and eight male/female pairs. Similarly, the Intra-cultural group had one male/female/female group and nine male/female pairs. Students kept the same interlocutor for all five tasks.

During Task performance 2, students changed interlocutors. Students in the Intra-cultural group were paired with Japanese group members of the opposite gender with one group of three. However, students in the Inter-cultural group were paired with an international student. In the Inter-cultural group, there were 18 male/female pairs and three female/female pairs. Students kept the same interlocutor for all five tasks.

There were a total of three absences in the Inter-cultural group (three students each absent once) and three absences in the Intra-cultural group (one student absent once and one learner absent twice) during Task performance 1. There were no absences during the Task performance 2. Therefore, a total of 18 participants in the Inter-cultural group and 19 participants in the Intra-cultural group completed all tasks for both task performances.

### **7.2.3. Instruments**

#### **7.2.3.1. Motivational flow questionnaire**

Participants completed the motivational flow questionnaire immediately after the completion of each task, which was identical to the perceptions survey developed by Egbert (2003). The questionnaire consists of 14 items that required students to reflect on their perceptions of their experiences during the preceding task. The questionnaire targeted four major dimensions of flow: interest, control, focus, and challenge. Learners responded to each item on a 7-point Likert scale anchored by 1 (*strongly disagree*) and 7 (*strongly agree*).

### 7.2.3.2. Learner diaries

Retrospective data was collected through learner diaries (McDonough and McDonough, 1997). Learners were asked to write a diary entry after each task. The purpose of the learner diary in this part of the study was to gather data on learners' retrospective thought-processes, in order to determine the ways in which flow emerged from performing the tasks. All learners were instructed to complete their diaries for homework within 24 hours after the task had been completed. Participants wrote their diaries in Japanese and these were later translated into English. To guide students in writing their diaries, the researcher provided participants with prompt questions and an example diary entry in order to elicit relevant commentary. The prompts are given below:

1. How well do you feel you did the task? 今日のタスクはどれくらいよくできたと思いますか。
2. How did you feel about your performance during the task activity? あなたがこのタスクを行っている最中、あなたの英語力に関してどう感じましたか。
3. Would you like to do this activity again? Why / Why not? この活動をもう一度したいですか。それは何故（したい／したくない）ですか。
4. Did you like working with your task partner? Why? Why not? このタスクで一緒に活動を行ったパートナーはあなたにとって活動をし易い相手でしたか。それとも難しかったですか。またそれは何故ですか。
5. Is there anything else you would like to say? If yes, write it. 他に何か感想や意見はありますか。どのような事でも構いません。あれば、是非教えて下さい

All the learners performed all five tasks in phase two of the research. However, one learner from each group failed to complete one diary entry. Therefore, 42 diaries were collected for Task 1, 42 diaries for Task 2, 42 diaries for Task 3, 42 diaries for Task 4, and 40 diaries for Task 5, for a total for 208 post-task diary entries.

### 7.3. Analysis

#### 7.3.1. Reliability of the motivational flow questionnaire

In total, twenty administrations of the motivational flow questionnaire were conducted. To examine the reliability of the questionnaire, Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each task. Table 17 shows the reliability coefficients (Cronbach's  $\alpha$ ) for each administration.

**Table 17: Cronbach's  $\alpha$  coefficients for motivational flow questionnaire**

Group	Cronbach's $\alpha$ (Task performance 1)					Cronbach's $\alpha$ (Task performance 2)				
	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5	T1	T2	T3	T4	T5
Inter-	.88	.89	.88	.92	.94	.79	.79	.78	.86	.76
Intra-	.75	.85	.85	.91	.92	.90	.94	.93	.95	.93

Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group

T1 = Task 1, T2 = Task 2, T3 = Task 3, T4 = Task 4, T5 = Task 5

The *N* size was 21 for each of the administrations, except for Task 2, Task 3, and Task 5 (Task performance 1) when the *N* size was 20 for each group. Using Kline's (1999) criteria for internal consistency, Table 17 shows that the questionnaire was evaluated at either a good or excellent level for all administrations, indicating that the questionnaire used to measure flow is a reliable instrument.

#### 7.3.2. Analysis of the motivational flow questionnaire

To analyze the motivational flow questionnaire data, students' questionnaire scores for each task were entered into SPSS. The questionnaire data for students who were absent from any of the tasks were eliminated from this part of the analysis. This resulted in a sample size of 18 the Inter-cultural group and 19 for Intra-cultural group.

The dependent variables are the five mean flow scores for each task. Task repetition, therefore, consists of two levels: Task performance 1, Task performance 2. The analysis was done in three parts: task performance-, task-, and individual learner-levels.

### *Task performance-level*

A repeated measures multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted on mean flow scores with task repetition as the within-subjects factor with two levels (Task performance 1, Task performance 2) and group as the between-group factor with two levels (Inter-cultural, Intra-cultural). Any interaction effect was identified and subjected to post-hoc analysis. This involved a one-way MANOVA comparing the group means for Task performance 1 and Task performance 2 to determine if there were significant changes between groups and within groups.

### *Task-level*

A second analysis was done to determine any interaction effects of individual tasks. Repeated measures MANOVA and post-hoc tests on interactions revealed changes between and within groups for Tasks 1 to 5.

### *Individual learner-level*

A final analysis of flow scores was done at the individual learner-level. This was done to investigate individual learner experiences in each group. To do this, a questionnaire score threshold was established, above which learners were designated as having achieved flow. Following the procedures of Egbert (2003), the threshold for achieving flow was set to an average score of 5.0 for the 14-item flow questionnaire. This score represents an ‘agree’ response for all statement-like items. In other words, this is equivalent to being above average on all four dimensions of flow captured by the questionnaire (control, interest, skills and challenge, and attention). Using this criteria, the number of students ‘in flow’ and ‘out of flow’ for each task were calculated.

### **7.3.3. Analysis of learner diaries**

A content analysis (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007) was conducted on all 208 diary entries (104 for each group) in order to determine the ways in which interaction influenced flow experiences. This involved a) an initial review of the data, b) deciding a unit of analysis, c) initial coding of data, d) categorizing codes, e) establishing acceptable inter-rater agreement, and f) statistical analysis. An overview of the coding and categorization steps is given below.

1. The initial data set, which included diary entries from all learners, was first reviewed with the purpose of eliminating comments that were irrelevant to the study. For example, some learners wrote summaries of the tasks, descriptions of experiences outside of class, or expectations for the future. As the research was only interested in students' descriptions of experiences during the task, these segments were not included in the analysis.
2. After reviewing the data, the 'theme' was chosen as the unit of analysis. Each unit of text conveyed a separate flow experience. Units of text occurred mostly as complete sentences, but sometimes several themes were embedded in individual sentences, and occasionally groups of sentences embodied only one theme.
3. Themes underwent an initial coding (open coding). This involved reading all diary entries and noting any patterns or differences between the groups. The first level of coding involved a simple labeling of units as 'flow-enhancing' or 'flow-inhibiting'. Flow-enhancing units of text describe positive task experiences (enhanced flow states). In contrast, flow-inhibiting units of text convey a negative feeling towards the task experience (depressed flow states).
4. Units of text were then subjected to a second level of coding, which sought to label the condition that impacted flow. As the data had been translated from Japanese to English, the researcher looked at both key words (e.g., "interesting", "enjoy") and the diarists' qualitative explanation in the whole entry. On four occasions it was impossible to infer the intentions of diarist. For these cases, the ambiguous sentences were eliminated from the analysis. Codes were then grouped together to form sub-categories with care taken that there was no overlap between categories.
5. Finally, codes were reduced to more generalizable categories in order to convey the more dominant themes in the data. As is the case in many studies, both an inductive and deductive approach was used in the categorization process (Berg, 2007, p. 247). Initial categorization was based on Egbert's (2003) model of flow for categories, but when codes did not fit with the model, new categories were formed.

To illustrate in more detail how the researcher approached the analysis, Example 1 shows a complete diary entry from a student in the Intra-cultural group after the learner had completed Task 3. The topic of Task 3 is 'history' and requires each student in the pair to share information on a person in history whom they would like to meet. The task outcome involves



choosing between the two historical figures and creating questions they would ask if they could go back in time to meet the person. The diarist has written nine sentences.

### **Example 1. Diary entry (Intra-cultural group, Task 3)**

<sup>1</sup>Today, we talked about the figures we would like to meet if we could go back in the past. <sup>2</sup>Things went more smoothly than last time because I was well prepared. <sup>3</sup>I enjoyed his talk because I learned about people in world history, which I forgot since in high school. <sup>4</sup>My partner talked about Joan of Arc. <sup>5</sup>I did research for Marie Antoinette. <sup>6</sup>We both did research on French people. <sup>7</sup>It felt good that my partner and I found out that we had so many things in common as we were talking about the advantages and disadvantages. <sup>8</sup>It was frustrating because I needed the ability to immediately come up with English words connected to what I think in Japanese, and I couldn't do it this time. <sup>9</sup>I will try to do my best next time, so thank you.

According to Berg (2007), “in its simplest form, a theme is a simple sentence, a string of words with a subject and a predicate” (p. 312) Note that sentences 1, 4, 5, 6, and 9 are factual and not related to the learners’ feelings during the task performance, and, therefore, shed no light on her flow experience. The initial step, therefore, was eliminating these sentences from further analysis (as Weber, 1990, suggests). The remaining sentences were categorized as to whether they indicated flow-enhancing or flow-inhibiting experiences, followed by a further classification based on the cause of flow. The analysis of each mention in the above example is shown in Table 18.

**Table 18: Example of the coding process**

Theme from diary	Effect on flow	Condition for flow
<sup>2</sup> Things went <u>more smoothly</u> than last time because I was <u>well prepared</u> .	Flow-enhancing	Preparation for the task
<sup>3</sup> I <u>enjoyed</u> the talk because I learned about people in world history, which I forgot since in high school.	Flow-enhancing	Enjoyment of the task process or content
<sup>7</sup> It <u>felt good</u> that my partner and I found out that we had so many things in <u>common</u> as we were talking about the advantages and disadvantages.	Flow-enhancing	Feeling of accomplishment related to relationship with interlocutor
<sup>8</sup> It was <u>frustrating</u> because I needed the ability to immediately come up with English words connected to what I think in Japanese, and I couldn't do it this time.	Flow-inhibiting	Perception of (insufficient) language/communication skills

Key words and phrases (underlined in Table 18) such as “well prepared” and “enjoyed” facilitated flow-enhancing/inhibiting and subsequent categorization. This was done in order to keep interpretation to a minimum. However, for other comments, such as sentence 7 and 8, the full context of the sentence was considered in order to make categorization decisions.

Weber (1990) warns that, “sometimes long, complex sentences must be broken down into shorter thematic units or segments” (p. 122). Although the vast majority of diary entries could be analyzed at the sentence-level, there were some sentences that contained multiple flow-related descriptions as well as multiple sentences that described a single experience. Example 2 illustrates how more than one flow-related comment is embedded in a single sentence.

**Example 2. Excerpt from a diary entry (Intra-cultural group, Task 3)**

My partner was good because they corrected my English and told me about a personal story, which I thought was very funny.

The sentence in Example 2 was counted as two separate flow-enhancing mentions as it describes two different conditions that impacted flow. Firstly, “My partner was good because they corrected my English” indicates that there is successful collaboration between the two speakers, with one speaker providing feedback on the other speakers’ linguistic errors. Secondly, “... and told me about a personal story, which I though was very funny” indicates that the diarist feels a level of enjoyment related to the content of what her interlocutor has said. Example 3 shows how a single flow-experience is contained in multiple sentences.

**Example 3. Excerpt from a diary entry (Inter-cultural group, Task 5)**

I still don’t really understand the words my partner used. I had a hard time understanding him at first because he pronounced words in a different way from what I usually hear. This was probably because he was Indonesian.

The sentences in Example 3 all pertain to the same learner’s experience during the task and so were classified as a single thematic unit. The first sentence describes a communication problem related to the comprehension of the interlocutors’ utterances. The subsequent sentences provide details for the cause of the communication breakdown, but do not introduce additional flow-related problems.

**7.3.3.1. Category descriptions**

The final categorization process involved grouping the specific codes into generalizable categories. This stage of categorization was aided – but not restricted by – Egbert’s (2003) description of flow-related themes that emerged during her interviews, as well as categories found by Ghani and Deshpande (1994). In this way, the analysis took a somewhat deductive approach. However, when data did not fit with previously, new categories were developed. Six distilled categories – or what Egbert (2003) called “dimensions” – of flow (as reported by learners) were found to be: *interest*, *enjoyment*, *attention*, *skills and challenge*, *control*, and *sense of accomplishment*. To better understand how these categories relate for flow, a short description of each will follow:

*Skills and challenges*

Skills and challenge have previously been identified as important components of flow

(Csikszentmihalyi, 1990; Ghani & Deshpande, 1994; Koufaris, 2002; Trevino & Webster, 1992; Liao, 2006). Flow is enhanced when “one’s skills are balanced to the challenges” (Liao, 2006, p. 47). Sub-categories grouped into *skills and challenge* were directly related to the ease or difficulty of performing the task with consideration given to both the perceived challenges inherent in the task process and the perceived skills possessed by learners to overcome those challenges. Table 19 illustrates the four subcategories of *skills and challenges* as found in the data.

**Table 19: Subcategories that comprise skills and challenges**

Subcategories	Example
1. Perception of language/communication skills	Today’s task was the most <u>challenging</u> for me especially because I was <u>struggling</u> so hard to come up with appropriate words.
2. Language/communication collaboration with interlocutor	My partner was good because she <u>corrected my English</u> .
3. Preparation for the task	Things went more smoothly than last time because I was <u>well prepared</u> .
4. Difficulty of task content or process.	What was <u>really difficult</u> for me was that we were not allowed to speak Japanese.

Words and phrases that are underlined were used to aid in the categorization.

As Table 19 shows, the *skills and challenge* dimension was seen to emerge in learners’ diary entries in four ways. First, the data suggested that for many learners’, lacking or possessing certain language skills that made the task process easier or more difficult (e.g. lack of vocabulary). Second, some comments suggested that the level of success in collaborating (e.g. negotiating communication breakdowns, understanding accents) contributed to the overall feeling of being challenged. Third, the amount of preparation done (e.g. completing the task research worksheet) determined to some extent their usable knowledge in the task. Finally, learners found parts of the task or task process itself challenging (e.g. task topic, exchanging information). Classifying a mention as flow-inhibiting was facilitated by the identification of key words, such as “frustrating”, “too difficult”, “too easy” or “insufficient”, which indicates that learners’ skills are not in balanced with task challenges. Similarly, the flow-enhancing classification was aided by identifying words such as “smooth”, “less difficult”, or “just right”.

## Control

Control is defined as a sense of power over the environment and one's own actions (Koufaris, 2002). A certain degree of freedom and an ability to exercise autonomy during the performance of a task have been shown previously to facilitate flow (Egbert, 2003). Subcategories that subsume the flow dimension of control are associated with the learners' decisions over the task content, the task process, and whom they interact with. Table 20 illustrates the two subcategories of control.

**Table 20: Subcategories that comprise control**

Subcategories	Example
1. Control over the task content or process	...today's task was exciting as we went even <u>further beyond</u> the topic to talking about some movies.
2. Control of interlocutor	I had the same partner as last time. <u>I feel it would be better if</u> we choose our partners every time otherwise I get bored.

Words and phrases that are underlined were used to aid in the categorization.

As Table 20 shows, control manifested in learners' diary entries in two ways. First, some learners reported feeling restricted by researcher-imposed guidelines for the task process (e.g. time constraints, goals), while other learners commented on exercising autonomy by interpreting these guidelines in a more flexible manner. In this way, learners who chose to explore topics or ask questions that were 'off script' provided themselves with more opportunities for flow as they were able to direct the task process into unpredictable and interest-related areas. Second, as learners were not free to choose their interlocutor, the data suggested this lack of control over whom they spoke with was constraining for some students. Flow-enhancing mentions often connected a high level of control to a sense of excitement, while flow-inhibiting mentions linked a lack of control to boredom and frustration.

## Interest

Mitchell (1988) stresses that flow is aroused primarily when the person perceives a task to be important, urgent, or meaningful. Similarly, the category of *interest* relates to the learner's

feeling of interactional authenticity or sense of value in doing the activity. Units of text in diary entries that were categorized along this dimension either referred to an interest in the task content or process, or an interest in the interlocutor. Table 21 shows the two subcategories of interest.

**Table 21: Subcategories that comprise interest.**

Subcategories	Example
1. Interest in task content or process	All the things that this task offered me were <u>valuable and meaningful</u> , communicating with international friends, and coming into contact with <u>real</u> English.
2. Interest in interlocutor	I found it <u>interesting</u> that my partner thinks the Japanese way of celebrating anniversaries is different from the American way

Words and phrases that are underlined were used to aid in the categorization.

Table 21 illustrates the two ways in which learners related interest to their task experience. First, the task content, which was self-selected by students, was a source of intrigue for many students, as during the guided research stage, students chose cultural items that were personally relevant; furthermore, the process of sharing information and opinions was viewed by many learners as an authentic communication experience (i.e. displayed interactional or ‘real world’ authenticity). Second, interest seemed to be generated from interlocutors who either had unique personal qualities or viewpoints. Flow seemed to be induced if the learner and his/her interlocutor had common interests; however, for some learners, unfamiliar interlocutor qualities also induced curiosity. Flow-enhancing mentions often related interest to excitement, creativity, and meaningfulness, while flow-inhibiting mentions frequently linked a lack of interest to irrelevancy.

### *Enjoyment*

Whereas interest is associated with something meaningful and valuable, enjoyment, as it emerged in the data, is connected to a sense of playfulness. Language play or playfulness has been mentioned previously in SLA (e.g., Cook, 2000) as a characteristic that can cause learner engagement. Furthermore, Csikszentmihalyi (1975) states that “play is the flow experience par

excellence” (p. 37). Diary entries often connected enjoyment to an environment with low levels of anxiety and high levels of familiarity, which were conducive for ‘play’ to occur. Table 22 shows the two subcategories that form *enjoyment*.

**Table 22: Subcategories that comprise enjoyment**

Sub-categories	Example
1. Enjoyment of task process or content	I was feeling relieved and started to have <u>fun</u> once the task began.
2. Enjoyment of interlocutor	My partner told me about his personal stories, which I thought was <u>very funny</u> .

Words and phrases that are underlined were used to aid in the categorization.

Table 24 shows that learners derived enjoyment from the task in two ways. First, learners frequently described their level of anxiety while performing the tasks. Low levels of anxiety were usually linked to fun experiences and playful interactions; high levels often were followed by descriptions of frustrated and disappointed feelings. The second subcategory related experiences of enjoyment specifically to the interlocutor. Flow-enhancing mentions described humorous interactions, interlocutors who had a relaxed demeanor, and familiarity with the task. Key words that facilitated categorization included “relaxed”, “fun”, and “enjoy,” “loosen up.” Flow-inhibiting mentions connected a lack of enjoyment to high levels of anxiety. Key words for lack of enjoyment included “nervous” and “worry.”

#### *A sense of accomplishment*

A sense of accomplishment is related to the dimension of flow Jackson and Marsh (1996) call “unambiguous feedback”, which they describe as feedback on performance that allows “the person to know he or she is succeeding in the goal” (p. 19). It also encompasses the process of “appraisal” in Dörnyei’s and Ottó’s (1998) process model of L2 motivation through which learners evaluate their progress by comparing their actual performance with previous or predicted performances.

Students constantly evaluate how well they are doing in terms of approaching the desired outcome, and if they feel that their action is conducive to reaching that outcome they experience a feeling of success, which then provides further motivation. In Boekaerts’ (1988) words:

When a learner perceives a contingent path between his potential actions and the learning outcome, his confidence will be high and his performance will not be impeded by debilitating anxiety. When the opposite relation holds, mental withdrawal from the threatening demands may result as well as the perception of discomfort and tension. (p. 275)

The data indicated that learners felt accomplishment after acknowledging success (personally or through feedback from their interlocutor) at some aspect of the task, or a feeling of accomplishment as learners compared their task performance with previous performances, which in turn led to feelings of confidence and further motivated them to complete the task. Table 23 shows the four subcategories that form *a sense of accomplishment*.

**Table 23: Subcategories that comprise a sense of accomplishment**

Sub-categories	Example
1. Sense of improvement in language/communication skills	I want to try this task another time because I can <u>feel my own progress</u> , though even a little, as we've gone through these tasks over and over.
2. Strengthening of relationship with interlocutor	I'm feeling good that my partner and I <u>became much closer</u> and, more than anything else, that's why I'm happy.
3. Successful task performance	The task we did today went <u>more smoothly</u> than the first and second times.
4. Improved motivation related to task performance	There is no doubt this task <u>helped enhance my motivation</u> toward English learning.

Words and phrases that are underlined were used to aid in the categorization.

Table 23 illustrates that learners derive a sense of accomplishment in four ways. Firstly, diary data suggests that as learners progressed through the tasks, there was a realization that their communication skills had improved. This was either reported as a self-realization or through their interlocutors' positive feedback. These comments were usually linked to a sense of empowerment or gains in confidence and motivation. The second subcategory is associated with a strengthening of the interlocutor relationship. Learners frequently emphasized that accomplishing a strong partnership was an important source of satisfaction. Thirdly, there were



comments that gave a general assessment of their performance in the task. Finally, learners commented more explicitly on increases in motivation associated with the successful task experiences as a whole. Flow-enhancing categorization was facilitated by an explicit mention of success or improvement (of skills, relationships or confidence), with key words being “motivation”, “improvement” and phrases such as “compared with the last task”, “satisfied”, “good job”, and “got to know each other”. A flow-inhibiting categorization included a mention of a worsening of skills and confidence.

### *Attention*

Attention is characterized by intense concentration and automaticity (Egbert, 2003). The ability to focus on what one is doing without breaking concentration has been linked to high levels of flow (Mandigo & Thompson, 1998). Learner diary data suggests increased levels of attention are related to an enhanced level of concentration. Table 24 shows the four sub-categories associated with *attention*.

**Table 24: Sub-categories that comprise attention**

Sub-categories	Example
1. Attention to interlocutors’ language	I was <u>intensely focusing</u> on my partner’s speech
2. Attention to own language	What’s good was I tried to be more <u>conscious of</u> grammar this time whenever I spoke
3. Attention to external environment	It was a <u>shame</u> that the <u>recorder was broken</u> .
4. Distorted perception of time	<u>The time went by so fast</u> because we were all tensed up <u>concentrating</u> so much on the task.

Words and phrases that are underlined were used to aid in the categorization.

Attention contributes to flow in four ways. Firstly, the data suggests that attention was sometimes derived from intense focus on language produced by interlocutors. Secondly, learners reported on moments of concentration when producing their own language. Thirdly, the external classroom environment, which consisted of many other students, electronic devices,

and a watchful teacher, sometimes were the cause of distraction, inhibiting a learner's flow. Finally, learners' related elevated levels of sustained attention to a distorted perception of time – that is, time seemed to pass more quickly. Flow-enhancing categorization was facilitated by key words such as “conscious”, “attention”, “focus”, “concentration” and “tried hard”. Flow-inhibiting categorization described disturbances that distracted learners' attention from the task. Table 25 provides a summary of flow categories and subcategories.

**Table 25: Flow categories, sub-categories and example for each.**

Flow category	Subcategory	Example
1. Skills/Challenge	Perception of language/communication skills	Today's task was the most challenging for me especially because I was struggling so hard to come up with appropriate words.
	Language/communication collaboration with interlocutor	My partner was good because she corrected my English.
	Preparation for the task	Things went more smoothly than last time because I was well prepared.
	Difficulty of task content or process.	What was really difficult for me was that we were not allowed to speak Japanese.
2. Control	Control over the task content or process	... today's task was exciting as we went even further beyond the topic to talking about some movies.
	Control of interlocutor	I had the same partner as last time. I feel it would be better if we choose our partners every time otherwise I get bored.
3. Interest	Interest in task content or process	All the things that this task offered me were valuable and meaningful, communicating with international friends, and coming into contact with real English.
	Interest in interlocutor	I found it interesting that my partner thinks the Japanese way of celebrating anniversaries is different from the American way
4. Enjoyment	Enjoyment of task process or content	I was feeling relieved and started to have fun once the task began.
	Enjoyment of interlocutor	My partner was he told me about his personal stories, which I thought was very funny.
5. Sense of accomplishment	Sense of improvement in language/communication skills	I want to try this task another time because I can feel my own progress, though even a little, as we've gone through these tasks over and over.
	Strengthening of relationship with interlocutor	I'm feeling good that my partner and I became much closer and more than anything else, that's why I'm happy.
	Successful task performance	The task we did today went more smoothly than the first and second time.
	Improved motivation related to task performance	There is no doubt this task helped enhanced my motivation toward English learning.
6. Attention	Attention to interlocutors' language	I was intensely focusing on my partner's speech
	Attention to own language	What's good was I tried to be more conscious of grammar this time whenever I spoke
	Attention to environment Distorted perception of time	It was a shame that the recorder was broken The time went by so fast because we were all tensed up concentrating so much on the task

### **7.3.3.2. Inter-coder reliability**

Inter-coder reliability refers to the extent which a classification framework produces the same results when two or more independent raters code a data sample. To test for this measure of reliability, the researcher and a graduate student (who work at the same university) independently coded a random sample of 20% (42) of the diary entries. Coding was based on the categories *skills and challenges*, *control*, *interest*, *enjoyment*, *sense of accomplishment*, and *attention*. The researcher provided the second coder with a coding scheme similar to Table 25. Part of the coder training involved the researcher going through the coding process of three diaries with the second coder.

There was an 82% agreement between the raters (Cohen's Kappa = .76). The inter-coder reliability was comparable to other diary studies that have implemented content analysis (e.g., Fullwood, Sheehan, & Nicholls, 2009; Swim, Hyers, Cohen, & Ferguson, 2001) which report Kappa values of between .7 and .8. Furthermore, based on established benchmarks set by Fleiss (1981) (excellent if Kappa > .75), Landis and Koch (1977) (substantial if Kappa = .61-.80), and Altman (1991) (good if Kappa = .61-.80), the inter-coder reliability result was considered high enough for the researcher to code the remaining diaries alone.

### **7.3.3.3. Flow comparisons**

After the data were coded, an analysis was done to compare how components of motivational flow differed between groups for Task performance 2, for each task, and for each individual.

The first analysis compared categorized units of text for the Inter-cultural group and the Intra-cultural group for all diaries. Two overall comparisons were made: 1) flow-enhancing frequency counts between groups, and 2) flow-inhibiting frequency counts between groups. Pearson's Chi-squared tests were conducted on the total frequency count and categorical counts of flow-inhibiting and flow-enhancing comments to determine significant differences. For significant chi-squared results, excerpts from learner diaries were used to illustrate how flow experiences were described differently for learners in each group.

Similarly, Pearson's Chi-squared tests were conducted on flow-enhancing and flow-inhibiting frequency counts at the task-level to determine if, and to what degree, flow differed for each task between groups.

Finally, an analysis was done to determine the number of individuals who experienced flow in each task. Learners were designated as having achieved a flow experience on a task if their diary entry contained more flow-enhancing mentions than flow-inhibiting mentions.

## 7.4. Results

### 7.4.1. Motivational flow questionnaire

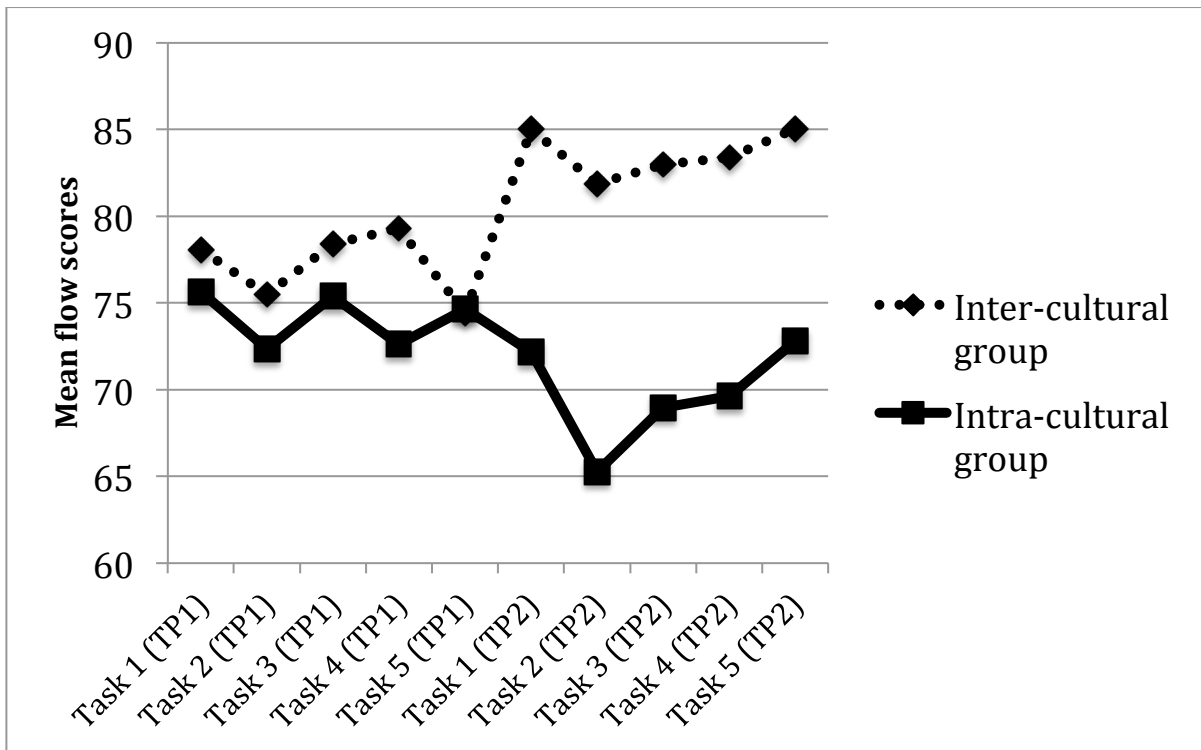
Table 27 shows the descriptive statistics for motivational flow scores. The total scores for each group are presented visually in Figure 6.

**Table 26: Scores for motivational flow questionnaire**

Variable	Group	Task performance 1			Task performance 2		
		Mean	SD	N	Mean	SD	N
Task 1	Inter-	78.06	11.58	18	85.00	10.32	18
	Intra-	75.63	7.82	19	72.16	7.85	19
Task 2	Inter-	75.50	10.51	18	81.89	10.34	18
	Intra-	72.37	9.14	19	65.26	13.22	19
Task 3	Inter-	78.39	9.49	18	83.00	10.23	18
	Intra-	75.37	10.10	19	68.95	13.10	19
Task 4	Inter-	79.28	11.52	18	83.39	10.75	18
	Intra-	72.63	11.39	19	69.63	14.14	19
Task 5	Inter-	74.44	15.22	18	85.06	9.56	18
	Intra-	74.63	11.86	19	72.79	14.13	19

Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group

**Figure 6: Scores for motivational flow questionnaire**



TP1 = Task performance 1; TP2 = Task performance 2

As can be seen in Figure 6, it appears that during Task performance 1 the flow scores are only slightly higher for the Inter-cultural group than for the Intra-cultural group, except for Task 5. During the repeated task performance (Task performance 2), there appears to be a much larger difference between the two groups. These differences in mean scores are investigated in the next section.

#### **7.4.1.1. Group comparisons (Task performance-level)**

A repeated measures MANOVA was conducted on the mean scores for each questionnaire administration to test for the effect of contact on motivational flow, with task repetition as the within-subjects factor with two levels (Task performance 1, Task performance 2) and group as the between-group factor with two levels (Inter-cultural, Intra-cultural). The results are shown in Table 27. The assumption of homogeneity of variance (as tested by Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices) was not violated; therefore, Wilks' Lambda was reported for significant values.

**Table 27: Results for repeated measures multivariate test**

Effect	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	$\eta^2$
Repetition	1.31	5	.287	.174
Group	2.76	5	.036	.308
Repetition × Group	3.33	5	.016	.349

Table 28 shows the overall effect (over all five motivational flow scores) as learners completed Task performance 1 and 2 (task repetition). Relevant to the research objective of this chapter was the repetition-by-group interaction. The repeated measures MANOVA revealed a significant multivariate effect  $F(5,31) = 3.33, p = .016, d = 0.617$ , which indicates that the changes in mean scores from the Task performance 1 to Task performance 2 are not equivalent between these two groups.

One-way MANOVAs were performed to compare the group means for each task performance. Results of mean comparisons are shown in Table 28.

**Table 28: Results of one-way MANOVA comparing means between groups**

	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance	Post-hoc tests
<i>Motivational flow</i>				
Task performance 1	.959	5	.458	
Task performance 2	3.666	5	.009	Inter->Intra-

Inter- = Inter-cultural group, Intra- = Intra-cultural group

There are no statistical differences for motivational flow scores between the groups when learners had completed Task performance 1. However, for the repeated task performance, the Inter-cultural group had significantly higher mean scores than the Intra-cultural group.

To investigate whether the change in motivational flow scores between Task performance 1 and Task performance 2 was significant for each group, two one-way MANOVAs were conducted. This revealed that the overall increase in scores for the Inter-cultural group was not significant from Task performance 1 to Task performance 2,  $F(5,13) = 2.021, p = .142, d = .481$ . The effect size was medium. For the Intra-cultural group, however,

there was a significant decrease in motivational flow scores from Task performance 1 to Task performance 2,  $F(5,14) = 3.428$ ,  $p = .031$ ,  $d = .626$ , with a medium to large effect size.

#### 7.4.1.2. Group comparisons (task-level)

Since there is a significant effect over all dependent variables, the change in each individual variable (motivational flow scores for each of the five tasks) from Task performance 1 to Task performance 2 was investigated by looking at the test of within-subject contrasts. Results are shown in Table 29.

**Table 29: Test of within-subjects contrasts**

Variable	Effect	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	$\eta^2$
Task 1	Repetition	.891	1	.352	.025
	Group	9.228	1	.004	.209
	Repetition × Group	8.028	1	.008	.187
Task 2	Repetition	.186	1	.669	.005
	Group	12.049	1	.001	.256
	Repetition × Group	9.848	1	.003	.220
Task 3	Repetition	.276	1	.603	.008
	Group	7.461	1	.010	.176
	Repetition × Group	10.262	1	.003	.227
Task 4	Repetition	.073	1	.789	.002
	Group	9.088	1	.005	.206
	Repetition × Group	2.973	1	.093	.166
Task 5	Repetition	3.45	1	.072	.090
	Group	2.944	1	.095	.078
	Repetition × Group	6.958	1	.012	.166

Inter- = Inter-cultural group, Intra- = Intra-cultural group

Table 31 shows that there are significant repetition-by-group effects for motivational flow for Task 1,  $F(1,35) = 8.028$ ,  $p = .008$ , Task 2,  $F(1,35) = 9.848$ ,  $p = .003$ , Task 3,  $F(1,35) = 10.262$ ,  $p = .003$ , and Task 5,  $F(1,35) = 6.958$ ,  $p = .012$ , indicating that for these tasks, the mean



change in motivational flow scores were not the same between groups. Only motivational flow scores for Task 4 did not reveal a significant interaction effect.

A multivariate test of between subject effects was conducted to compare the mean flow scores between groups for each task where there was an interaction effect. (i.e. all tasks except Task 4)

**Table 30: Test of between-group effects**

Motivational Flow scores	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Significance	Post-hoc tests
<i>Task 1</i>				
Task performance 1	.567	1	.456	
Task performance 2	11.771	1	.001	Inter- > Intra-
<i>Task 2</i>				
Task performance 1	1.632	1	.210	
Task performance 2	15.976	1	.000	Inter- > Intra-
<i>Task 3</i>				
Task performance 1	.877	1	.356	
Task performance 2	9.709	1	.003	Inter- > Intra-
<i>Task 5</i>				
Task performance 1	.002	1	.967	
Task performance 2	9.077	1	.004	Inter- > Intra-

Inter- = Inter-cultural group, Intra- = Intra-cultural group

For the motivational flow scores of each task, there were no statistical differences between the groups for Task performance 1. For Task performance 2, however, the Inter-cultural group had significantly higher mean scores than the Intra-cultural group for all tasks investigated.

To investigate whether the change in motivation flow for each task between Task performance 1 and 2 was significant for each group, a repeated measure MANOVA was conducted for each group. Univariate tests show that for the Inter-cultural group, there was a significant increase in motivational flow for Task 1,  $F(1,17) = 4.452, p = 0.050, d = .654$ , and Task 5,  $F(1,17) = 8.902, p = 0.008, d = .859$ , but there was no significant increase for Task 2,  $F(1,17) = 3.433, p = 0.081, d = .535$ , and Task 3,  $F(1,17) = 3.651, p = 0.073, d = .481$ . For the

Intra-cultural group, there was a significant decrease in motivational flow for Task 2,  $F(1,18) = 6.798, p = 0.018, d = -.642$  and Task 3,  $F(1,18) = 6.863, p = 0.017, d = .564$ , but there was no significant change for Task 1,  $F(1,18) = 3.898, p = 0.064, d = -.427$ , and Task 5,  $F(1,18) = .347, p = 0.563, d = -.145$ .

#### 7.4.1.3. Group comparisons (individual learner-level)

Thus far, flow comparisons have been made between Task performance 1 and Task performance 2 as well as for each individual task within each performance. This section looks at individual learner experiences in each group; that is, the extent to which individuals, based on questionnaire data, experienced flow during each task for both performances.

To do this, a threshold of an average score of 5.0 was established, to determine whether an individual learner has achieved flow. A score of 5.0 is equivalent to “above average” on all four dimensions of flow captured by the questionnaire. Table 31 shows the number of learners who attained flow during each task.

**Table 31: Number and percentage of students who achieved flow**

		Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5
Inter- g.	TP1	15 (83.3%)	12 (66.67%)	15 (83.33%)	15 (83.33%)	11 (61.11%)
	TP2	17 (94.44%)	15 (83.33%)	17 (94.44%)	17 (94.44%)	17 (94.44%)
Intra- g.	TP1	14 (73.68%)	10 (52.63%)	13 (68.42%)	11 (57.89%)	14 (73.68%)
	TP2	15 (78.95%)	8 (42.11%)	10 (52.63%)	11 (57.89%)	11 (57.89%)

Inter- g. = Inter-cultural group; Intra- G. = Intra-cultural group; TP1 = Task performance 1; TP2 = Task performance 2

Table 33 indicates that, except for Task 2 (Task performance 2), over half of all learners in each group experienced flow during every task. During Task performance 2, all but one learner in the Inter-cultural group experienced flow for four out of five tasks. In contrast, just over half of learners in the Intra-cultural group experienced flow during the repeated performance of tasks.

Further investigation into individual mean flow scores revealed that of the 370 questionnaires analyzed, only 10 questionnaires indicated a very high degree of flow (a response of 7 for each questionnaire item). All 10 of these heightened flow experiences were during Task performance 2, and eight of the 10 were from the Inter-cultural group. In both groups, every

learner experienced flow at least once during the ten tasks. However, there was one learner in the Inter-cultural group who did not achieve a flow state for any of the tasks when subjected to inter-cultural contact. Similarly, two learners in the Intra-cultural group never achieved a flow state for any of the tasks done during the repeated task performance.

#### 7.4.2. Learner diaries

The main purpose of the qualitative diary data in this study is to provide a comparative overview of the ways in which flow was generated from inter-cultural and intra-cultural interaction with the hope that detailed accounts of task experiences will elucidate how flow differed between the two groups. The data set totaled 104 diary entries by learners in the Inter-cultural group and 104 entries in the Intra-cultural group. After diaries were translated into English and irrelevant sentences were discarded, the total word count was 10,096 for the Inter-cultural group and 10,263 for the Intra-cultural group, indicating that learners in each group wrote a very similar amount of relevant content.

##### 7.4.2.1. Overall group comparison

As outlined in detail previously, a content analysis of all learner diaries resulted in six general flow categories, each representing a separate dimension of flow as experienced by learners in this study (see section 7.3.3.1).

A total of 449 flow-related mentions were identified from learner diaries in the Inter-cultural group, and 414 flow-related mentions were identified in the Intra-cultural group's diary entries. Table 32 shows the frequency count and percentage of total flow-enhancing and flow-inhibiting mentions for each group as well as results for the Pearson's Chi-squared test.

**Table 32: Frequency of flow-enhancing / flow-inhibiting counts and chi-squared test results**

Flow	Inter-cultural group		Intra-cultural group		Chi-squared test		
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Value	<i>df</i>	Sig.
Enhancing	335	74.61	248	59.90	21.26	1	.000
Inhibiting	114	25.39	166	40.10	21.26	1	.000
Total	449	100	414	100			

There is a proportionately significant difference between the number of flow-enhancing units of text for the Inter-cultural group’s diary entries and the Intra-cultural group’s entries, in favor of the Inter-cultural group ( $\chi^2 = 21.26, p < .001$ ). This gives some indication that inter-cultural interaction has facilitated flow experiences more than the intra-cultural interactions. To investigate which components of flow may have contributed to higher or lower states of flow, a Pearson’s chi-squared test was conducted on each flow category for each group.

**Table 33: Frequencies of flow-enhancing category counts and chi-squared test results.**

Flow category	Inter-cultural group		Intra-cultural group		Chi-squared test		
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Value	df	Sig.
Skills/Ch.	56	16.71	63	25.40	4.238	1	.040
Control	3	.90	3	1.21	.073	1	.787
Attention	32	9.55	17	6.85	2.019	1	.148
Interest	63	18.81	53	21.37	.077	1	.781
Enjoyment	82	24.48	52	20.98	2.289	1	.130
Accomplish.	99	29.55	60	24.19	4.401	1	.044
Total	335	100	248	100			

Skills/Ch. = Skills and challenges; Accomplish. = A sense of accomplishment

As shown in Table 33, a sense of accomplishment was the most frequently occurring flow-enhancing component identified in the diary data of the Inter-cultural group, whereas for the Intra-cultural group, the skills and challenge component was most prominent. For both groups, learners rarely mentioned control as a contributor to a positive task experience. There were two significant differences between the groups: the category of sense of accomplishment ( $\chi^2 = 4.401, p = .044$ ) and the category of skills and challenges ( $\chi^2 = 4.401, p = .040$ ), which indicates that learners in the Inter-cultural group reported feeling a greater sense of accomplishment, but learners in the Intra-cultural group felt their skills were more balanced with the challenges of the task.

The following diary excerpts from the Inter-cultural group’s diaries elucidate the positive experiences associated with a sense of accomplishment as a result of inter-cultural contact:

- They all told me that my English was not bad, and that made me feel good (Task 1, Inter-cultural group).
- The task makes it clear how much my English is understood by foreigners (Task 1, Inter-cultural group).
- However, my international partners helped a lot. They helped me to gain confidence so I could say things in English eventually (Task 2, Inter-cultural group).
- ... after I repeatedly tried hard, I gained confidence in my way of speaking (Task 5, Inter-cultural group)

All four examples clearly illustrate the positive effects of inter-cultural contact on learners' sense of accomplishment, with many comments in the data associating the perception of success with "confidence". The following two examples show how learners in the Intra-cultural group may have been advantaged in terms of skills and challenges.

- My partner helped me a lot throughout the task. He used gestures to explain things hard to understand. We had insight and sometimes could guess what we were thinking (Task 1, Intra-cultural group).
- My partner still understands what I try to say because he/she is Japanese and understands this Japanese English, but it won't make sense to foreigners probably (Task 3 Intra-cultural group).

The above examples clearly illustrate a possible advantage of intra-cultural contact over inter-cultural contact: some Japanese in intra-cultural pairs perceive they have a communication "insight" that may help many overcome some misunderstandings during interaction. Table 34 shows the frequency count for flow-inhibiting categories of both groups.

**Table 34: Frequencies of flow-inhibiting categories and chi-squared test results**

Flow category	Inter-cultural group		Intra-cultural group		Chi-squared test		
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Value	<i>df</i>	Sig.
Skills/Ch.	90	78.95	85	51.12	1.016	1	.313
Control	1	.88	22	13.25	13.730	1	.000
Attention	3	2.63	10	6.02	1.757	1	.185
Interest	0	0	4	2.41	2.787	1	.095
Enjoyment	9	7.89	8	4.82	1.121	1	.290
Accomplish.	11	9.65	37	22.29	7.602	1	.006
Total	114	100	166	100			

Skills/Ch. = Skills and challenges; Accomplish. = A sense of accomplishment

As can be seen in Table 34, the vast majority of diary texts that described negative flow experiences were categorized as skills and challenge for both groups, suggesting that either a lack of communication/language skills or a high difficulty of the task topic or process were the primary factors preventing an attainment of flow. There were two significant differences between the groups: the category of control ( $\chi^2 = 4.401, p = .044$ ) and the category of sense of accomplishment ( $\chi^2 = 4.401, p = .040$ ). The high frequency of mentions relating to control suggests that learners in the Intra-cultural group lacked a sense of control over the task process or over whom they talked to. In addition, the Intra-cultural group disproportionately reported a lack of sense of accomplishment.

The following examples of diary excerpts for the Intra-cultural group shed light on the negative experiences associated with control:

- I think we should maybe switch topics (Task 1, Intra-cultural group).
- Also, topics need more flexibility since they've been decided most of the time and some of the topics are not even spoken about on a daily basis (Task 1, Intra-cultural group).
- I had the same partner as last time. I feel it would be better if we choose our partners every time (Task 2, Intra-cultural group).
- I didn't like that I had to stick with the same partner. I'm afraid that the work will become tedious with the same partner, so I think we should change partners so we can avoid this. If we work with the same partners for such a long time, we won't be able to

maintain a good sense of nervous tension and will be less responsible for what we do (Task 5, Intra-cultural group).

The first two examples indicate a feeling of constraint related to a lack of control of the task topic. The second two examples illustrate a frustration due to restriction of choice over interlocutor. Comments such as these were conspicuously absent from diaries of the Inter-cultural group.

The following four examples show how learners' flow levels in the Intra-cultural group were also inhibited by a lack of perceived accomplishment.

- Although it was my second time to do this task, I couldn't see such big progress on my English, especially I was not able to respond to others' remarks the way I wanted, so that was disappointing (Task 1, Intra-cultural group).
- I didn't feel any progress since the last time as I couldn't speak fluently at all. Maybe my English seemed to be even worse (Task 4, Intra-cultural group).
- I just didn't feel much progress in my English skill probably because we had a blank period of time for practice because of the school festival break (Task 4, Intra-cultural group).
- I don't think I did better than last time, so I couldn't feel like I could end the task well (Task 5, Intra-cultural group).

For learners experiencing intra-cultural interactions, it seems, there is a perception of little language improvement compared to those experiencing inter-cultural interaction, which learners associated with "disappointment", a feeling that has depressed the flow state of these learners.

#### **7.4.2.2. Group comparison (task-level)**

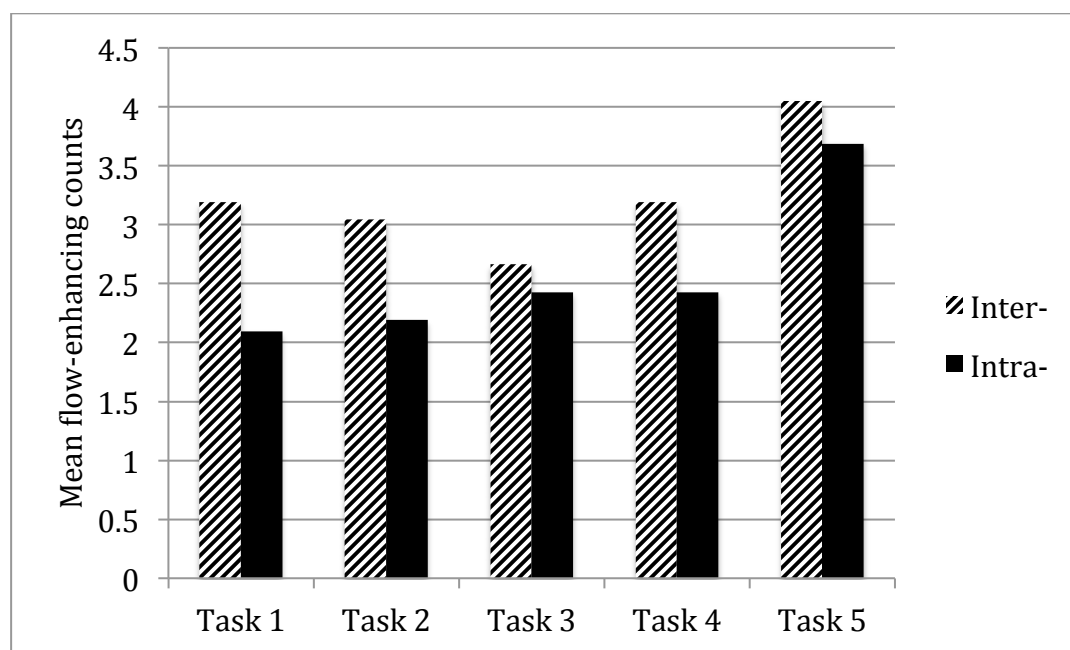
Units of diary text were then classified by task in order to understand how much each task contributes to the overall flow for each group. The mean number of flow-enhancing counts for each task and group is given in Table 35 and the results are shown visually in Figure 10.

**Table 35: Mean flow-enhancing counts for each task and group**

	Inter-cultural group			Intra-cultural group		
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Task 1	3.19	1.60	21	2.10	1.26	21
Task 2	3.05	1.32	21	2.19	1.47	21
Task 3	2.67	1.35	21	2.43	1.50	21
Task 4	3.19	1.54	21	2.43	1.36	21
Task 5	4.05	1.61	20	2.80	1.32	20

As can be seen in Figure 7, for every task, learners in the Inter-cultural group reported more flow-enhancing experiences than for learners in the Intra-cultural group. There is also a general increase in flow-enhancing experiences toward the latter tasks, with Task 5 diaries containing the most for each group.

**Figure 7: Mean flow-enhancing counts**



In order to understand how interaction during each task affects the specific dimensions of flow, we need to examine the number of flow-enhancing experiences for each task. Table 36



shows the frequency counts of flow-enhancing units for each flow category along with the percentage contribution of each flow component.

**Table 36: Flow-enhancing component contributions for tasks**

		Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5
Skill/Ch.	Inter-	12 (17.91%)	14 (21.88%)	11 (19.64%)	9 (13.43%)	10 (12.35%)
	Intra-	12 (27.27%)	13 (28.26%)	12 (23.23%)	12 (23.52%)	14 (25.00%)
Control	Inter-	0	0	1 (1.79%)	2 (2.99%)	0
	Intra-	0	0	0	1 (1.96%)	2 (3.57%)
Attent.	Inter-	8 (11.94%)	5 (7.81%)	4 (7.14%)	4 (5.97%)	11 (13.58%)
	Intra-	2 (4.55%)	3 (6.52%)	2 (3.92%)	4 (7.84%)	6 (10.71%)
Interest	Inter-	8 (11.94%)	16 (25.00%)	13 (23.21%)	11 (16.42%)	15 (18.52%)
	Intra-	11 (25.00%)	10 (21.74%)	12 (23.53%)	9 (17.64%)	11 (19.64%)
Enjoy.	Inter-	27 (40.30%)	13 (20.31%)	11 (19.64%)	15 (22.39%)	16 (19.75%)
	Intra-	11 (25.00%)	6 (13.04%)	12 (23.53%)	11 (21.57%)	12 (21.43%)
Accomp	Inter-	12 (17.91%)	16 (25.00%)	16 (28.57%)	26 (38.81%)	29 (35.80%)
	Intra-	8 (18.18%)	14 (30.43%)	13 (25.49%)	14 (27.45%)	11 (19.64%)

Skill/Ch. = Skills and challenges; Attent. = Attention; Enjoy. = Enjoyment; Accomp. = A sense of accomplishment; Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group

Table 36 reveals some similarities in the pattern of flow-enhancing counts between the two groups. For both groups, mentions of skills and challenge were relatively constant across all tasks. During the later task performances (Tasks 3, 4, 5), a few learners mentioned having more control in both groups. For example, one learner commented that “our conversations get exciting when we don’t talk about the topic.” This suggests that after becoming more familiar with the task structure and interlocutors, learners started experimenting with new ways of completing the task.

Differences between the two groups of learners are also apparent. For Task 1, the Inter-cultural group experienced heightened enjoyment at a significantly higher rate than for learners in the Intra-cultural group. This could be attributed to the ‘newness’ or novelty of ‘first contact’ with their non-Japanese partner. Some of these learners commented that their first experience was “fun and inspirational”, “amazing”, and “exciting”, and others expressed mixed feelings of

“nervousness” followed by “excitement”. The tension that many Inter-cultural group learners felt in Task 1 probably contributed to the higher levels of attention, with some learners noting they had to “intensely” focus on their partners’ speech to understand them.

Perhaps the most significant difference between the two groups of learners is the increasing pattern of sense of accomplishment across the tasks. As learners completed more tasks with their partners, they were more capable of comparing their current performance with previous performances, and thus benefited from a feeling of success and confidence. This pattern is very clear for learners in the Inter-cultural group, as the contributions of sense of accomplishment to flow rapidly increase from Task 1 (17.91%) to Task 5 (35.80%). However, after an increase from Task 1 (18.18%) to Task 2 (30.43%), learners in the Intra-cultural group attributed a decreasing proportion of their flow to a sense of accomplishment for the remaining tasks (Task 5 = 19.64%).

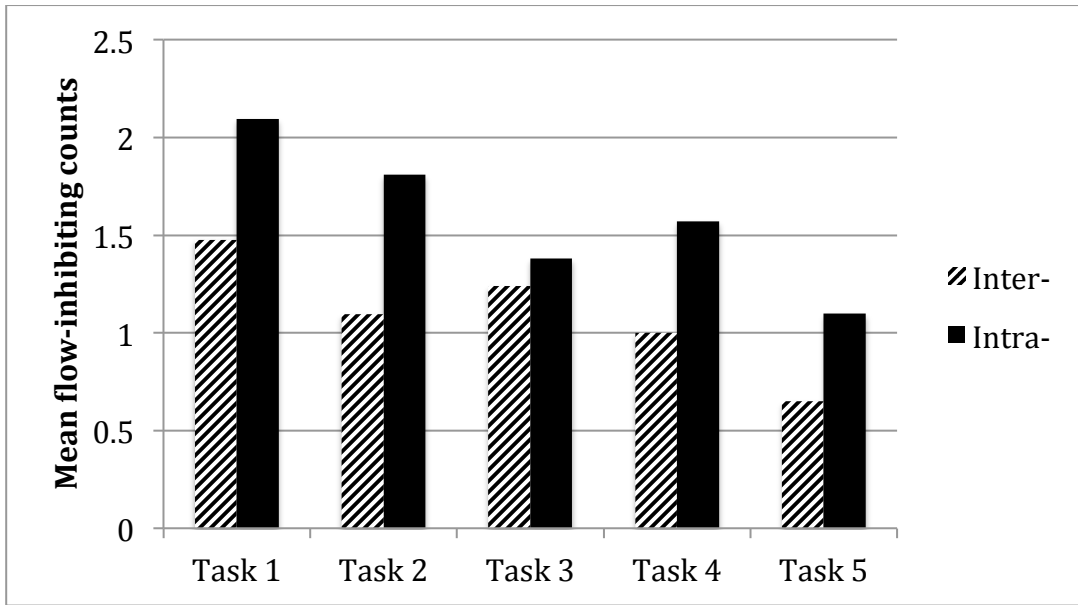
The mean number of flow-inhibiting counts for each task and group is given in Table 37. These results are shown visually in Figure 8.

**Table 37: Mean flow-inhibiting counts**

	Inter-cultural group			Intra-cultural group		
	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Task 1	1.48	1.21	21	2.10	1.22	21
Task 2	1.09	.77	21	1.81	.87	21
Task 3	1.23	.94	21	1.38	1.28	21
Task 4	1.00	.77	21	1.57	1.21	21
Task 5	.65	.75	20	1.10	.91	20

A clear difference again can be seen between the two groups. On average, learners in the Intra-cultural group reported more flow-inhibiting experiences than learners in the Inter-cultural group did for every task. Task 1 and 2 appear to show the largest differences between groups while Task 3 counts were very similar.

**Figure 8: Mean flow-inhibiting counts**



Specific components that serve to depress flow for each task will now be examined. Table 38 shows the flow-inhibiting frequency counts for each flow category along with the percentage contribution.

**Table 38: Flow-inhibiting component contributions for each task and group**

		Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5
Skill/Ch.	Inter-	26 (83.87%)	18 (78.26%)	20 (76.92%)	15 (71.43%)	11 (84.62%)
	Intra-	18 (40.91%)	29 (76.32%)	14 (48.26%)	14 (42.42%)	10 (45.45%)
Control	Inter-	0	0	1 (3.85%)	0	0
	Intra-	7 (15.91%)	3 (7.89%)	5 (17.24%)	5 (15.15%)	2 (9.09%)
Attent.	Inter-	0	1 (4.35%)	0	2 (9.52%)	0
	Intra-	4 (9.09%)	1 (2.63%)	1 (3.45%)	3 (9.09%)	1 (4.55%)
Interest	Inter-	0	0	0	0	0
	Intra-	2 (4.55%)	0	0	2 (6.06%)	0
Enjoy.	Inter-	4 (12.90%)	2 (8.70%)	2 (7.69%)	1 (4.76%)	0
	Intra-	2 (4.55%)	1 (2.63%)	3 (10.34%)	1 (3.03%)	1 (4.55%)
Accomp.	Inter-	1 (3.22%)	2 (8.70%)	3 (11.54%)	3 (14.28%)	2 (15.39%)
	Intra-	11 (25.00%)	4 (10.53%)	6 (20.69%)	8 (24.24%)	8 (36.36%)

Table 38 reveals some differences between the two groups at the task-level. Skills and challenges is a higher contributor to reported flow-inhibiting experiences for learners in the Inter-cultural group compared to learners in the Intra-cultural group for every task. However, Task 2 seems to have generated considerably more challenges for the Intra-cultural group than all other tasks (76.32%). The topic of Task 2, ‘Nature’, posed a challenge for Japanese pairs, who reported on the difficulty of “technical terms of animals” and a “topic we have not learned about in class”.

Task 1 seemed to have generated many more flow-inhibiting experiences than the rest of the tasks, especially for the Intra-cultural group. A lack of control, experiences that interfered with attention, and a perceived lack of success tended to plague these learners. For some in the Inter-cultural group, Task 1 generated high anxiety, which prevented them from enjoying the task as much as other tasks.

Finally, for each task, a much larger proportion of flow-inhibiting comments are attributed to a perceived lack of accomplishment for the Intra-cultural group than the Inter-cultural group for each task. One student from the Intra-cultural group wrote regarding Task 5: “I still cannot speak English. I think this could do harm to our motivation and environment where we try to improve ourselves.” For a few learners in the Intra-cultural group, the frustration of not noticing success even after Task 5 was apparent.

#### 7.4.2.3. Group comparison (individual learner-level)

This final results section looks at individual learner experiences in each group; that is, the extent to which individuals, based on diary data, experienced flow during each task for both attempts. Learners are designated as having achieved a flow experience on a task if their diary entry contains more flow-enhancing counts than flow-inhibiting. Based on this criterion, Table 39 shows the number of learners who have attained flow during each task.

**Table 39: Number of learners who achieved flow according to diary data**

	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5
Inter- G.	15 (71.43%)	17 (80.95%)	15 (71.43%)	15 (71.43%)	16 (80.00%)
Intra- G.	7 (33.33%)	10 (47.62%)	11 (52.38%)	13 (61.90%)	16 (80.00%)

Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group

Table 39 indicates that during the treatment stage of the study (i.e. Task performance 2), most learners in the Inter-cultural group experienced flow for all tasks. For the Intra-cultural group, considerably fewer learners achieved flow states, with less than half of the learners reporting more flow-enhancing experiences than flow-inhibiting for Tasks 1 and 2. These results indicate that more learners who received the inter-cultural contact treatment attained a flow state <sup>1</sup>.

Further investigation into individual diary entries revealed that of the 208 entries analyzed, 34 diary entries indicated a very high degree of flow (all flow-enhancing and no flow-inhibiting), with 24 (70.59%) of these heightened flow experiences reported by students who experienced inter-cultural contact. Moreover, nine learners reported particularly low flow states (all flow-inhibiting and no flow-enhancing). All learners reported an overall positive flow experience in at least one of their diary entries.

### **7.4.3. Summary**

To summarize, learners in both groups attempted five paired tasks and then repeated the tasks, with the Inter-cultural group receiving the inter-cultural treatment during Task performance 2. Flow questionnaires were used to investigate differences in flow-related experiences between the two groups at the task performance-level, the task-level, and individual learner-level. Learner diaries were used to investigate the specific components of flow occurring during the Task performance 2 only. At each level of analysis, the results served to compare the two groups.

#### **7.4.3.1. Group comparison (Task performance-level)**

A repeated measures MANOVA and subsequent post-hoc tests were conducted on mean flow questionnaire scores to determine whether there were significant changes between and within groups. At the task performance-level, results revealed there was a significant interaction effect of repetition-by-group for motivational flow; in other words, the change in mean flow scores from Task performance 1 to Task performance 2 was not the same for each group. Further investigations found that there were no significant differences between groups for the Task performance 1; however, the Inter-cultural group scored significantly higher than the Intra-cultural group on the repeated task performance. Within group comparisons revealed that the

Intra-cultural group significantly decreased their scores from the Task performance 1 to Task performance 2, while there was a non-significant increase for the Inter-cultural group.

A content analysis of learner diaries shed light on the ways in which interaction affected flow differently in each group during Task performance 2. Six components of flow emerged from the diary data: skills and challenge, control, attention, interest, enjoyment, and sense of accomplishment. Pearson's chi-squared tests conducted on frequency counts indicated that learners in the Inter-cultural group reported proportionately more flow-enhancing experiences and fewer flow-inhibiting experiences than learners in the Intra-cultural group, which lends support to the questionnaire results. In addition, the diary analysis revealed that although intra-cultural interaction resulted in a more flow-inducing balance of skills and challenge, a lack of control over the task topic, process, and choice of interlocutor, as well as a lack of perceived sense of accomplishment inhibited flow states for learners during intra-cultural interaction. Moreover, an elevated level of flow during inter-cultural interactions could be further attributed to a more frequently reported sense of accomplishment, leading to increased L2 self-confidence.

#### **7.4.3.2. Group comparison (Task-level)**

At the task-level, the mean flow questionnaire scores for learners in the Intra-cultural group significantly decreased for two tasks (Tasks 2 and 3) from Task performance 1 to Task performance 2, while for the Inter-cultural group, mean scores significantly increased for two tasks (Tasks 1 and 5). There was no significant change in mean flow scores for either group in the remaining three tasks. However, both Task 1 and 5 had the highest flow scores for each group for the both task performances, while Task 2 had the lowest scores. These results are supported by the diary data, in which learners in both groups reported the most flow-enhancing experiences during Task 1 and 5 during the repeated task performance. The Inter-cultural group attributed an increasingly larger proportion of flow to a sense of accomplishment as learners progressed through the tasks, while this trend was not observed for the Intra-cultural group. Overall, both groups scored the lowest mean flow questionnaire scores for Task 2. The diary data reveals that this depression in flow for Task 2 could be attributed to the task topic, which required students to use unfamiliar and more challenging vocabulary.

### **7.4.3.3. Group comparison (Individual learner-level)**

At the individual learner-level, all but one learner who had received the inter-cultural contact treatment achieved a flow state in four out of five of the tasks, while considerably fewer learners (just over half) who completed the tasks intra-culturally achieved a similar flow state. Similarly, most learners in the Inter-cultural group reported more flow-enhancing experiences than flow-inhibiting experiences for all tasks (71.41-80.95%), while considerably fewer learners experienced a net positive flow state (33.33-80%).

## **7.5. Discussion**

The research question in this chapter addressed whether (and how) interaction arising from inter-cultural contact during the performance of tasks affects learners' motivational flow. When all the learners performed tasks intra-culturally (Task performance 1), the questionnaire data showed no significant difference in mean flow scores between groups, indicating that learners in both groups experienced the tasks in similar ways. However, when the tasks were repeated, mean flow scores were significantly higher for learners who received the inter-cultural contact treatment than learners who completed the tasks intra-culturally. This significant difference was attributed to a decrease in flow scores across attempts for the Intra-cultural group and no significant difference across attempts for the Inter-cultural group. Therefore, it can only be concluded that inter-cultural contact was beneficial in that it served to maintain the flow levels of learners, while a lack of inter-cultural contact caused flow levels to decline. These results, therefore, shed light on two factors which appear to strongly shape the flow trajectory of learners as they progressed through the tasks: 1) task repetition and 2) inter-cultural contact.

### **7.5.1. Task repetition**

The decline in flow from Task performance 1 to Task performance 2 (in the absence of inter-cultural contact) is related to the notion of task repetition. Although research has shown that task repetition can facilitate the quality of oral production (e.g. Bygate, 2001), its effect on motivation specifically is less clear. In this study, learners who did not receive inter-cultural contact during the repeated task performance had lower scores overall and considerably fewer learners achieved flow levels during the repeated task performance. These results are in line with the few previous studies that have connected task repetition to a decline in motivation (e.g.,

Kim, 2013; Plough & Gass, 1993; Gass, Mackey, Alvarez-Torres, & Fernández-García, 1999). For instance, Gass, et al. (1999) found that for ESL learners repeating a listening task a third time, “at a certain point... the novelty of the task may have ended and disinterest settles in” (p. 572). The results do not support the argument of Hawkes (2009), who claims that if learners are given an opportunity to improve during a repeated performance, they may gain in motivation from “a sense of achievement, which might build their expectation for success” (p. 463). Unfortunately, the diary data cannot shed light on the learners’ feelings towards task repetition, but if the repeated task performance did in fact enhance the dimension of flow associated with “a sense of achievement”, this was not enough to maintain learners’ overall flow levels (as measured by the questionnaire) across task performances.

However, a distinction should be made between *task repetition*, in which both the content and procedure of the task is repeated, and *procedural repetition*, in which the content changes but the task process is repeated. Within Task performance 2, a general pattern of increasing flow from Task 2 to Task 5 was observed, which indicates procedural repetition may have induced flow for many learners. Furthermore, the diary analysis revealed that the latter tasks (Task 4 and Task 5) provided conditions that enhanced the flow of learners to a greater extent than the earlier tasks (Task 1 and Task 2). These results are congruent with that of Kim (2013), who found that procedural repetition enhances learners’ interests in the tasks while task repetition causes learners to be less interested. It can therefore be suggested that familiarity with the task procedure and interlocutors may keep learners interested, curious, and more willing to communicate, but repeating both the content and procedure of the task can cause learners’ motivation to wane.

### **7.5.2. Inter-cultural contact and L2 self-confidence**

Although task repetition seems to have had a negative affect on motivational flow, this decrease in flow seems to have been offset by the inter-cultural contact treatment. It is pertinent then to explore the flow enhancing nature of inter-cultural contact.

The diary data was useful in providing insight into which specific components of flow were enhanced through inter-cultural contact. Interestingly, of the six components of flow that emerged from the data, a sense of accomplishment was the only category to appear more frequently in the diaries of the Inter-cultural group than in the Intra-cultural group when looking



specifically at flow-enhancing mentions. An examination of the role of L2 self-confidence as it relates to inter-cultural contact is perhaps needed to explain this result.

A sense of accomplishment relates to a learner's perception of success, which positively influences beliefs about possible future performances. These beliefs, in turn, enhance self-confidence to communicate in the L2. Diary entries, as in the examples below, often made explicitly clear the relationship between achievement and self-confidence.

- Somehow, I think I could understand what she said better than before. It's maybe because of my partner. Thanks to her help, I gained confidence in myself (Inter-cultural group).
- I'm highly satisfied with my English improvement after this task. I could feel myself speak better and better as I was doing the task (Inter-cultural group).

Other researchers have made similar connections between perception of success and self-confidence (e.g., Burrows, 2008; Mori, 1999). Not only were mentions of achievement and resulting self-confidence more frequent in the diaries of learners subjected to inter-cultural contact, but also several diaries explicitly included inter-cultural contact as the cause.

- I would like to do this again because it made me realize that I had confidence to talk with international students, and I also learned so many things that I didn't know before. I believe I couldn't have done any of that if it had not been for this task (Inter-cultural group).
- Finally, this whole series of the tasks with international students is over. Honestly, I'm full of sad feelings. This experience gave me so many things. For example, I have gained motivation toward my English learning from valuable experiences talking with international students (Inter-cultural group).

This result corroborates several studies that have investigated the effect of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation. Clément and Kruidenier's (1985) found that frequent and pleasant contact experience led to an increased linguistic self-confidence for Francophone learners of English in Canada, which, in turn, affected students' motivation in a positive way. Since then, the positive effect of inter-cultural contact on self-confidence and motivation has been supported in a number of further studies that include ESL, study abroad, and naturalistic settings (e.g., Clément, et al, 1994; Csizér & Kormos, 2008; Dörnyei et al, 2006; Labrie & Clément, 1986; Noel et al. 1996).

A more relevant comparison should be made to EFL classroom-based studies looking at the effects of inter-cultural contact. There is no research that the author is aware of that has

looked at the effect of face-to-face inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation using tasks in the foreign language classroom environment. However, in a study which looked at the motivation of Japanese and Taiwanese EFL students as they participated in an online synchronous chat, Freiermuth and Huang (2012) found that Japanese students were “motivated to use real language (not artificially generated)” with many students connecting motivation to self-confidence gained through the interaction (p. 84). The following comment by a learner in their study illustrates this feeling:

When I talk with foreigner, they understand what I am talking about, this thing makes me happy and feel more confident. The motivation for learning increased comes the confidence increased when using the target language (Freiermuth & Huang, 2012, p. 77).

Comparing this with a diary entry from a learner who experienced face-to-face contact in this study, obvious similarities can be seen:

... there were moments when I could feel accomplishment, for example when what I said was understood at last, and when I could relate the ideas to what my [international] partner said. It felt like I was a real English speaker (Task 1, Inter-cultural group).

The self-confidence gained as learners recognized achievements during the task process could be amplified when speaking to an international interlocutor as task experiences may be perceived as authentic moments of communication rather than simply an “artificially generated” language activity.

Perhaps the most similar result to this study comes from Egbert (2003), who measured flow using a “students’ perceptions survey” – an instrument identical to the one used here. Egbert, who measured the flow of 13 Spanish learners in a US secondary school, administered the perceptions survey to students after completing seven tasks. The mean score for each task is shown in Table 40.

**Table 40: Mean flow scores over all tasks from Egbert (2003)**

	Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	Task 7
Mean	4.09	5.10	5.09	4.55	5.72	4.73	3.94

Using a threshold score of 5.0 to determine which tasks were effectively inducing flow, Egbert (2003) concluded that three out of seven tasks (42.86%) had a score above the threshold, and so demonstrated “a pattern of flow” (p. 511). Task 5 induced the highest flow scores among participants. Interestingly, only during Task 5 did learners experience (computer-mediated) inter-cultural contact, engaging in open-ended, one-on-one dialog with native Spanish speakers via electronic chat. Furthermore, Egbert’s observational findings suggest that all flow dimensions investigated (control, focus, interest, and challenge) were “at play”, with 92% of students achieving a flow state. Incidentally, this is identical to the percentage of students (92.22%) who achieved flow when learners were interacting with international students in this study.

## **7.6. Conclusion**

The purpose of this portion of the study was to investigate (1) whether inter-cultural contact affects learners’ motivational flow, and (if it does) (2) the ways in which flow is affected. The results show that interaction arising as a result of inter-cultural contact does in fact positively affect flow, but only to the extent that it offsets the negative effect of task repetition. The flow-enhancing nature of inter-cultural contact has been observed at the task performance-, task-, and individual learner-levels. Results of an analysis of learner diaries has partially supported these results, and also provided insight into the ways in which flow is affected by inter-cultural contact. Of the antecedents of flow that emerged from the data, ‘inter-cultural’ flow seems to be distinguished by an enhanced sense of accomplishment, which in turn leads to increased L2 self-confidence.

These results support Egbert’ (2003) findings that flow can be achieved in the classroom. Furthermore, it has expanded on her finding that interacting with native speakers “excited curiosity” to the more generalizable conclusion that inter-cultural contact facilitates flow. Results are also in line with previous studies that have connected L2 self-confidence with motivation during inter-cultural encounters outside of the classroom (e.g. Dörnyei et al, 2006; Labrie & Clément, 1986; Freiermuth & Huang, 2012). Egbert (2003), in her model of flow and language learning, proposed that heightened flow states could provide the ideal conditions for interaction-driven language learning. The next chapter will look at the results related to process features of task interaction and relate some of these features to flow.

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## Notes

<sup>1</sup> The differential effect of contact with native-speakers of English versus non-native speakers was not addressed in the analysis. However, it was possible to identify interactions involving self-identified native and non-native English speakers via the background questionnaire. Based on motivational flow questionnaire data, a flow state was not achieved by learners (i.e., had a score 3.0 or below) during interactions involving three non-native and seven native English speakers. The proportion of learners not achieving flow states while interacting with non-native speakers ( $3/10 = 3.0$ ) is comparable to the proportion of non-native speakers in this study ( $8/21 = .38$ ). Thus, whether a Japanese learner's interlocutor was a native English speaker or non-native English speaker did not appear to have an effect on flow.

## **Chapter 8. Task interaction**

### **8.1. Introduction**

This chapter presents the results for RQ5 and RQ6. It represents a transition in the investigation, which, up until this point, has been concerned with L2 motivation. This portion of the investigation explores the differences in interactional (process) features of inter-cultural and intra-cultural task performances, using the framework of language-related episodes (LREs). It also attempts to connect interaction to the motivational flow results of the previous chapter. Specifically, this chapter attempts to answer the following research questions:

- RQ5. Is there a relationship between motivational flow and the amount of output produced by EFL learners experiencing inter-cultural contact and intra-cultural contact, and, if so, what are the differences in the relationships?
- RQ6. How does inter-cultural contact affect (a) the amount of output and (b) the frequency, type, linguistic focus, complexity, and resolution of language-related episodes generated by learners during the repeated performance of tasks?

This chapter will start with a brief introduction to the framework chosen to investigate intra- and inter-cultural interactions. Data collection involved the audio recordings of participants as they performed each task. LREs were identified in the transcriptions of these recordings and categorized based on frequency, type, linguistic focus, complexity, and resolution; therefore, a detailed account of the how these occurrences were identified and categorized will be outlined in the method section. Results relevant to the research questions will be reported both quantitatively and qualitatively. Finally, a discussion section will attempt to interpret the findings.

#### **8.1.1. Inter-cultural and intra-cultural interaction**

This chapter uses a discourse analytic approach to describe the impact of inter-cultural contact on learner interaction. The discourse measure of LREs was chosen to investigate instances when learners attend to form during task interaction. The number of turns, words, and words-per-turn of each learner was used as a measure of the quantity of speech production.

Pertinent to this research component is the issue of how interlocutors of different

proficiency levels and cultural backgrounds collaborate in the solution of linguistic problems (for a detailed review of studies, see section 4.3.2.3.). Research suggests that when learners interact with a more proficient peer, the ensuing interaction generates a greater number of LREs (e.g. Kim & McDonough, 2008, Leaser, 2004). However, if one interlocutor in a pair is from a different cultural background, findings are less clear. While both Fernández Dobao (2012) and Bowles et al., (2014) found that interactions involving a culturally different interlocutor result in more frequent LREs that are more likely to be successfully resolved, studies such as Sato and Lyster (2007) and Sato (2007) found that learner-native speaker interaction does not generate significantly more LREs than learner-learner interaction. In fact, Sato (2007) warns that learner-native speaker interaction generates feelings of pressure for learners, leading to fewer opportunities for learners to modify their output after feedback. This chapter attempts to investigate this issue further.

This chapter also will relate interaction to motivational flow. In past research, Dörnyei (2002) established a link between interaction and motivation. His correlational study looked at both language output and task motivation during learner-learner interaction. Results showed several associations between motivational and language variables. Specifically, the number of words produced by learners during task performances showed a significant positive correlation with self-confidence and task attitudes, while the number of turns taken showed a significant positive correlation with task attitudes and Willingness to Communicate (WTC).

## **8.2. Method**

The research design follows the outline given in Chapter 6 and 7. Data took the form of audio recordings of task performances. Thus, each pair's Task performance 1 and Task performance 2 were recorded for all five tasks.

### **8.2.1. Participants**

As detailed in Chapter 7 (section 7.2.2.), there were three absences in each group during the Task performance 1, but no absences during Task performance 2. The number of participants in each task for each group is summarized in Table 41.

**Table 41: Number of participants for each task.**

Task	Task performance 1		Task performance 2	
	Inter- group	Intra- group	Inter- group	Intra- group
1	<i>N</i> = 21	<i>N</i> = 21	<i>N</i> = 42	<i>N</i> = 21
2	<i>N</i> = 20	<i>N</i> = 20	<i>N</i> = 42	<i>N</i> = 21
3	<i>N</i> = 20	<i>N</i> = 20	<i>N</i> = 42	<i>N</i> = 21
4	<i>N</i> = 21	<i>N</i> = 21	<i>N</i> = 42	<i>N</i> = 21
5	<i>N</i> = 20	<i>N</i> = 20	<i>N</i> = 42	<i>N</i> = 21

Inter- group = Inter-cultural group; Intra- group = Intra-cultural group. Rows highlighted in grey indicate that all students in each group were present and participated in the tasks across both task performances.

As can be seen in Table 41, all students were present in each group during Task 1 and Task 4 for both task performances; therefore, a decision was made to include in the analyses only recorded interaction data for Task 1 and Task 4. This ensured that comparisons were being made between learners present during all tasks.

Also noted in section 7.2.2. was the fact that during Task performance 2, when there was full participation (*N* = 21), each group consisted of nine pairs and one group of three. Upon inspection of the recordings, it was found that the interactions of participants in the group of three were considerably different from the paired interactions in terms of talk time and number of turns taken for each participant. Therefore, the decision was made to eliminate these participants' interactions from the analysis.

As a result of these decisions, analyses were carried out using audio-recorded data of task interactions for Task 1 and Task 4 and for performances involving pairs only.

### **8.2.2. Preparing transcripts**

The researcher prepared transcripts of task performances for Task 1 and Task 4 interactions for all pairs. Participants were given 25 minutes to complete each task; however, some participants finished slightly before the time limit, after which, they either continued to talk on the task topic, continued to talk on a different topic, or stopped interacting altogether until the 25 minute mark had been reached. Therefore, in order to capture interactions while all

learners were ‘on task’, only the first 20 minutes of the performance were transcribed. Two versions of the transcripts were made: an *unpruned* version and a *pruned* version.

The first step involved making the unpruned transcripts. In total, 90 transcripts were prepared. Audio recordings were transcribed in detail, which included indications of mispronunciation, overlapping turns, false starts, backchanneling, and silences. Of the two transcription versions, the unpruned transcripts included more information. Therefore, unpruned transcripts were used to identify the language-related episodes.

The next step involved preparing a pruned version of each transcript. This was done with the intention of providing a more accurate measure of learners’ speech production. The procedure involved eliminating backchannels, fillers, false starts, and incomplete words from the unpruned transcripts. The following examples illustrate some of the utterances that were identified and deleted:

- Backchannels and fillers: *eto, un, eh, ah, er, um, hm, huh, and oh.*
- False starts: *I- I- I- can’t play tennis; they... they ah... never do.*
- Incomplete words: *Yes... inter- inter... ah... across the road.*

However, in line with transcription conventions used in previous studies (Lasito & Storch, 2013; Nakahama, et al., 2001), backchannels that were uttered in response to a question were included in the pruned transcripts. An extract of an unpruned transcription and the pruned version is shown in Example 1 and Example 2.

**Example 1:** Unpruned transcript (Intra-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 1)

- |     |       |   |
|-----|-------|---|
| 104 | Rika: | So ah... what country- what country would you like to go there? |
| 105 | Kako: | I- yes, I like to go to Bangkok                                 |
| 106 | Rika: | Bangkok.  |
| 107 | Kako: | In Thailand.  |
| 108 | Rika: | Thailand... um... do they- do people in Bangkok speak English?  |
| 109 | Kako: | Ah maybe no   |



**Example 2:** Pruned transcript (Intra-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 1)

104	Rika:	So... what country would you like to go there?
105	Kako:	Yes, I like to go to Bangkok
106	Rika:	Bangkok.
107	Kako:	In Thailand.
108	Rika:	Thailand... do people in Bangkok speak English?
109	Kako:	Maybe no

The pruned transcripts resulted in a more conservative turn and word count. Furthermore, each turn in a pruned transcript reflects a 'string of speech' that serves to contribute to the content and direction of the interaction. Overlapping talk was counted as a turn for each speaker as well as contributing to the word count of each speaker. Pruned transcripts, therefore, were used to get a word and turn count for each learner.

### **8.3. Analysis**

The focus of the analysis was on the between groups comparison of the repeated task performance (Task performance 2). Analysis was done on Task performance 1 but only to establish that interactions arising in each group were similar.

#### **8.3.1. Language output comparisons**

RQ5 and RQ6 require a measurement of language output. The measures of spoken output were quantified using the pruned transcripts. The dependent variables for this analysis are:

1. Number of turns taken for each learner
2. Word count for each learner.
3. Words-per-turn for each learner

The analysis for language production was done on each individual Japanese learner. In order to determine whether inter-cultural contact had an effect on spoken production, a one-way between-groups (Inter-cultural group, Intra-cultural group) MANOVA was carried out on each dependent variable for Task performance 1 (Task 1, Task 4). The objective of this procedure

was to establish that there were no significant differences between groups during task performances under the intra-cultural condition. Once it was established that learners produced a similar amount of language during the first performance, a one-way between groups MANOVA was conducted on dependent variables for Task performance 2 (Task 1, Task 4). This second objective was to investigate whether the groups generated a significantly different amount of output during the treatment phase (Task performance 2).

### **8.3.2. Relating language output to motivational flow**

To investigate the strength of the relationship between language output and motivational flow, a Pearson's Product-Moment Correlation was conducted for Task performance 2. Correlation coefficients were computed to relate motivational flow questionnaire scores (using results from Chapter 7) to number of turns, words produced, and words-per-turn. This analysis was done only on Task performance 2 as the aim was to compare correlations found during inter- and intra-cultural task performances.

### **8.3.3. Analysis of transcripts for LREs**

The second stage of analysis necessitated the identification and classification of LREs. Transcripts were consulted and LREs were identified and coded for the following four characteristics:

- Linguistic focus
- Type
- Complexity
- Resolution

The following sections will describe the procedures for each stage of coding. In order to capture the more subtle nuances of interlocutor intentions, the unpruned transcripts were consulted.

#### **8.3.3.1. Identification of LREs**

The first stage of analysis involved identifying LREs in the transcripts. Swain and Lapkin (1998) define LREs as “any part of a dialogue where the students talk about the

language they are producing, question their language use, or correct themselves” (p. 328). However, after an initial inspection of the transcripts, there were some issues that needed to be dealt with in order to operationalize this definition.

In line with other analytical frameworks (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001; Fortune, 2013; Fortune & Thorpe, 2001; Loewen, 2005) it was decided that LREs should constitute “identifiable units of collaborative activity” (Fortune & Thorpe, 2001, p. 46). In other words, the concern here is on interactional behavior. As such, any episodes of self-correction that were initiated and resolved within a single turn were excluded. The following utterance is an example of a self-correction. Yuki produces the grammatically incorrect utterance “when I watching” then immediately self-corrects to produce the correct version “when I watch”.

**Example 3:** Self-correction (Inter-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 1)

31            Yuki:            Ah clear voice... hm.... ah.... I hear- when I watching-  
   when I watch news on TV news program... I can hear clear  
   voice... announcer is very clear.

Example 3 illustrates a legitimate LRE episode under Swain and Lapkin’s (1998) definition. Furthermore, similar ‘one-turned’ LRE examples have been provided in the literature (e.g. Leeser, 2004). However, I have two reasons to exclude such episodes in the analysis of this data. Firstly, requiring LREs to be collaborative (i.e., involving more than one turn) reflects the very objectives of the language tasks used in this study: to reach an outcome through collaborative interaction. Secondly, excluding these episodes avoids the practical problem of distinguishing between false starts – and other disfluent speech behavior – and LREs. However, there were examples in the data of self-corrections that existed within collaborative talk. Example 4 illustrates such an episode.

**Example 4:** Self-correction LRE (Intra-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 1)

217            Akira:            It’s a commerce.  
218            Ayaka:            Yes.  
219            Akira:            I mean, it's commercial- it’s a commercial  
220            Ayaka:            Oh yes.

In this instance, Akira produces the incorrect word “commerce” (line 217) and self-corrects to produce the correct form “commercial” (line 219). This example is identified as an LRE in this study as it exists in interaction (i.e., it lasts more than one turn) and therefore can be distinguished from disfluent speech.

Some LREs that were identified served the function of solving a linguistic problem, but some did not. Example 5 illustrates an interaction in which no linguistic gap is apparent, yet linguistic information is being preemptively provided.

**Example 5:** LRE (Intra-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 1)

34	Dai:	Yes, Renault is French company, and Nissan ah... everyone know Japanese company... and Avtovaz=
35	Aoi:	=I know, I know.
36	Dai:	These are automobile companies.
37	Aoi:	Oh
38	Dai:	Avtobaz spell is A V
39	Aoi:	A V
40	Dai:	T
41	Aoi:	T
42	Dai:	O
43	Aoi:	O
44	Dai:	B
45	Aoi:	B
46	Dai:	A
47	Aoi:	A
48	Dai:	Z
49	Aoi:	Z
50	Dai:	It is Russian [company]
51	Aoi:	[Okay. ]

Dai initiates an exchange with the purpose of clarifying to Aoi the spelling (lines 38 – 49) and meaning (line 50) of the proper noun “Avtovaz”. Aoi may or may not know the spelling or meaning of “Avtovaz”. According to Swain and Lapkin’s (1998) definition, LREs do not

necessarily exist simply to solve a linguistic problem; therefore, this exchange would indeed be counted as an LRE.

Example 6 shows an interaction in which an LRE is initiated as a result of a linguistic gap in knowledge, which both students attempt to resolve.

**Example 6:** LRE (Inter-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 2)

- 58        Emi:            Eighteen sixty seven to nineteen eighteen... Austria and  
                                 Hungary Emperor... maybe=  
59        Akira:           =What mean emperor?  
60        Emi:            Austria... Hungary king  
61        Akira:           Ah... king  
58        Emi:            Eighteen sixty seven to nineteen eighteen, Austria and  
                                 Hungary emperor... maybe?

It is clear from the transcript Akira does not understand the word “emperor”. The LRE is resolved when Akira acknowledges that “king” is a synonym for emperor. The dialogue represents an observable language need that is successfully resolved through interaction.

In addition, the following instances of interaction were not identified as LREs: producing a linguistic error in which no attempt is made to resolve it, and episodes involving the linguistic form of a non-English utterance.

With these issues in mind, in this study, an LRE is operationally defined as an instance during interaction when, because of a problematic utterance, a misunderstanding or a desire to preemptively provide or ask for linguistic information, there is an incidental shift to focus on linguistic form and there is an attempt to reach a resolution. Classification issues related to specific categories of LREs will now be addressed.

**8.3.3.2. Coding for linguistic focus**

After LREs were identified, they were coded for linguistic focus. Classifications for linguistic focus in previous research on LREs “vary considerably” (Fortune, 2013, p. 173) with particular confusion about whether ‘talk about spelling’ should be classified as ‘lexical’ or ‘orthographic’. In an effort to avoid this confusion, categories were based on Storch and Aldosari (2013) and divided into lexical, grammatical, and spelling/pronunciation LREs.



203 Etsuko: Yes. Much money.

### *Spelling/pronunciation LREs*

Spelling/pronunciation LREs include both pronunciation and spelling of words. In the data, deliberations about pronunciation often came in the form of recasts – such as in Example 9 – where an interlocutor reformulates an incorrectly pronounced word.

#### **Example 9:** Spelling/Pronunciation LRE (Inter-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 2)

133 Hideo: I'd like to visit Ro/ma in Italy.  
134 Tom: Rome?  
135 Hideo: Ro/ma-... Ro/ma- Ro/ma  
136 Tom: ROME... Rome in=  
137 Hideo: =Italy.

It was often the case that learners spelled a word in response to a pronunciation difficulty. These deliberations were classified as a single episode. Example 10 illustrates how this can occur.

#### **Example 10:** Spelling/Pronunciation LRE (Inter-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 2)

82 Tom: Kangaroo.  
83 Hideo: Kan-  
84 Tom: K A N G  
85 Hideo: Ah... kangaroo=  
86 Tom: =Kangaroo.

Hideo is unable to pronounce the entire word “kangaroo” (turn 83). In response to this, Tom spells the problematic part of the word (turn 84), which successfully enables Hideo to produce the word.

The data also revealed instances when learners would echo their interlocutors' previous utterance, which does not necessarily mean the learner is topicalizing a pronunciation issue. In order to distinguish between echoing and a pronunciation-related LRE, one student had to either: a) explicitly request for help in pronunciation (e.g. How do you *pronounce* that word?),

b) explicitly provide pronunciation help (e.g. Here's how you *pronounce* this word), c) incorrectly pronounce the word or phrase, or d) be unable to say the entire word or phrase.

#### *Other LREs*

Other LREs include episodes that cannot be easily classified into the three categories above. Example 11 illustrates an episode in which both learners are deliberating how to say a number that has been written down.

#### **Example 11:** Other LRE (Inter-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 2)

287	Katsu:	Eighty thousand yen and=
288	Malori:	=Wow
289	Katsu:	Plus five thousand yen=
290	Malori:	=Five thousand or five hundred?
291	Katsu:	Ah this is- this is
292	Malori:	Five hundred? No- no it's five thousand... Sorry
293	Katsu:	Yes, thousand.
294	Malori:	Oh it's five thousand... okay... okay. Five thousand yen.

The issue of converting numerals into spoken English is not clearly related to lexical, grammatical, or spelling/pronunciation issues. Thus, in such unique cases, the category of “other” was used. The category of other was also used when students discussed punctuation (which only happened once).

#### **8.3.3.3. Coding for type**

The next step involved categorizing LREs into two types: preemptive and reactive. Based on Ellis et al. (2001), this categorization is concerned with which of the interlocutors involved in the interaction initiated the LRE. The application of these categories to this study's LRE framework is important as it gives insight into whether inter-cultural contact affects how learners initiate a focus on form. The definitions of preemptive and reactive LREs, together with example extracts from the data are provided below.



### *Reactive LREs*

Reactive LREs occur when a participant responds to an utterance that is problematic either because the meaning is not clear or because it contains a lexical, grammatical, pronunciation or – in very few cases – a spelling error. In Example 12, Etsuko produces an unclear utterance (line 125) to which Kate immediately reacts by offering a more appropriate word choice (line 126).

#### **Example 12:** Reactive LRE (Inter-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 2)

- 124 Kate: Yeah.  
125 Etsuko: But when we become higher level- higher- higher  
126 Kate: Famous?  
127 Etsuko: Yeah. Yes- yes. Famous... Famous director. We will get a lot  
of [money]  
128 Kate: [Yes ]

### *Pre-emptive LREs*

Preemptive LREs are episodes in which a participant initiates a change in topic (topicalizes) to focus on a language issue, not because of a response to a problematic utterance, but because either one student predicts that the feature may be problematic for his/her interlocutor (which leads to a pre-emptive explanation) or because a learner asks a question about form unrelated to the proceeding utterance. In Example 13, Kazu predicts that the term “monster parents” may not be understood by Sandra, and so defines the phrase in line 257.

#### **Example 13:** Preemptive LRE (Inter-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 2)

- 253 Kazu: Disadvantages.  
254 Sandra: Hm... okay, so disadvantages.  
255 Kazu: Hm... do you know monster parents?  
256 Sandra: Uh  
257 Kazu: Students' parents are scold the- the teacher.  
258 Sandra: Yes

#### 8.3.3.4. Coding for complexity

In an attempt to capture the complexity of episodes in the data, LREs were classified into two categories: simple and complex. The importance of measuring the complexity of LREs has been mentioned in previous research. For example, Fortune and Thorpe (2001) stated that “a numerical count does not... capture the fact that episode length varies from extremely long to extremely short” (p. 152). Furthermore, Ellis et al. (2001) found that complex episodes were significantly more likely to be uptaken by the learner. Therefore, I have again drawn on Ellis et al. (2001) for the basis of these categories.

##### *Simple LREs*

Simple LREs are episodes in which a language issue is resolved in a single turn. Example 14 is an example of reactive, lexical LRE, where Haru signals that she does not understand the meaning of “creativity” (line 67). Masa provides a simple definition (line 68), which appears to sufficiently resolve the issue.

**Example 14:** Simple LRE (Intra-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 1)

66	Masa:	Ah nothing... nothing. But he have to have creativity
67	Haru:	Creativity?
68	Masa:	Mean imagination.
69	Haru:	Yes

##### *Complex LREs*

Complex LREs are episodes that involve more than one turn to be resolved. A complex LRE is illustrated in Example 15, in which Sam reformulates an erroneous utterance (line 155). Satoru continues to produce the same error in two subsequent turns (line 156 and 158), which prompts Sam to provide two additional recasts (line 160 and 162), after which the issue is resolved.

**Example 15:** Complex LRE (Inter-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 2)

152	Satoru:	But now he is less- less popular
153	Sam:	Oh

154	Satoru:	Small- small
155	Sam:	Declining popularity
156	Satoru:	Declining- declining [popular]
157	Sam:	[Yes ]
158	Satoru:	So his- his population... population? His population?
159	Sam:	Popularity
160	Satoru:	His popularity is- is- his popularity is declining
161	Sam:	Yes
162	Satoru:	Popularity. Okay.
163	Sam:	His popularity is declining?

### 8.3.3.5. Coding for resolution

The last coding procedure involved categorizing LREs according to resolution. The resolution of LREs in past research has almost exclusively been based on Swain (1998) and Leeser (2004), who proposed the categories of “correctly resolved”, “unresolved”, and “incorrectly resolved”. According to Leeser (2004), a correctly resolved episode is one in which a “problem or question was solved correctly either by one learner’s self-correction or by one learner answering or correcting the other” (p. 65). A problem with this definition is that it sheds no light on whether or not a correctly resolved LRE contains evidence of successful uptake. The coding of resolution in this study, therefore, will incorporate categories of uptake moves from Ellis et al. (2001), and extend it to four categories: resolved (with uptake), resolved (without uptake), incorrectly resolved, and unresolved. These categories are illustrated in the following examples.

#### *Resolved (with uptake) LREs*

Resolved (with uptake) LREs are episodes in which a language problem is correctly solved or corrected by one learner and the other learner successfully demonstrates uptake. In the case of a reactive LRE, as in Example 16, successful uptake of the word “ladyboy” is evidenced by the correct production of the word in line 122.

**Example 16:** Resolved (with uptake) LRE (Inter-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 2)

117        Kako:        There is- there are... many trans... shows.  
118        Rika:        Trans... shows?... ah... man like woman?  
119        Kako:        Ah yes.  
120        Rika:        Man is ladyboy  
121        Kako:        Ladyboy.  
122        Rika:        Yes... Bangkok is so famous about... so famous for  
                 ladyboys.

For LREs related to spelling, an episode was considered uptaken only if the complete word was spelled, though it did not matter how many turns the learner takes to spell the word. It was often the case a learner would repeat each letter of the word as his/her interlocutor spelled out the word in its entirety, resulting in several turns.

*Resolved (without uptake) LREs*

Resolved (without uptake) LREs are episodes in which one learner correctly solves a language problem, but there is no evidence of uptake by his/her interlocutor. Example 17 shows a grammatical LRE that is triggered when Kazu produces the incorrect utterance “more high”. The language problem is correctly resolved in the form a recast; however, in the same turn, the topic is changed and Kazu does not have a chance to correctly produce the corrected form “higher”.

**Example 17:** Resolved (without uptake) LRE (Inter-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 2)

102        Kazu:        But some [salary]  
103        Junko:        [Okay ]  
104        Kazu:        Is really high.  
105        Junko:        Okay, okay. Than seven million?  
106        Kazu:        More high.  
107        Junko:        More- more high- higher... or some are higher than seven  
                 million. Okay, what is your choice... tell me=

108 Kazu: =Vacation.

Uptake moves in which a learner simply acknowledges feedback (e.g. *yes, okay, yeah, ah*) were not considered to constitute evidence of uptake (classified as unsuccessful uptake in Ellis et al. (2001)) and, therefore, such episodes were categorized as resolved without uptake.

### *Incorrectly resolved LREs*

Incorrectly resolved LREs are episodes in which one or both learners incorrectly resolve a language problem. Example 18 illustrates a grammatical, reactive LRE that is incorrectly resolved. Tadashi offers the correct form “cheapest” in response to the erroneous utterance “best cheap”, which is followed incorrectly by “best cheaper”. The episode is concluded when both learners settle (incorrectly) on “best cheap”.

#### **Example 18:** Incorrectly resolved LRE (Inter-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 1)

109 Kayo: Ah... cost of travel from Japan- ticket is eto... the best- the best cheap.  
110 Tadashi: Cheapest?  
111 Kayo: Cheap... cheap... Huh? Best- best- best cheaper.  
112 Tadashi: Cheaper.  
113 Kayo: Best cheaper is one- one- one thousand  
114 Tadashi: Ah the best cheaper price. Okay.

### *Unresolved LREs*

Unresolved LREs occur when both learners abandon any attempt at resolving a language issue. In Example 19, learners are deliberating the correct way of saying a number that one learner has written down. Deliberations involve the possibilities of “six thousand”, “six hundred”, and “six hundred thousand”. After multiple turns, both learners cannot make a decision and the LRE is left unresolved.

#### **Example 19:** Unresolved LRE (Intra-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 2)

118 Emi: Six thousand... six hundred

119	Akira:	Thousand?
120	Emi:	Eh?
121	Akira:	Six=
122	Emi:	=Thousand
123	Akira:	Six=
124	Emi:	=Thousand
125	Akira:	Hundred thousand?... huh?
126	Emi:	Huh?
127	Akira:	I don't know
128	Emi:	I don't know

### 8.3.4. Inter-coder reliability

After the framework for LRE identification was established and definitions for each category were finalized, the researcher and a research assistant coded 10% of the data (9 transcripts) independently. The research assistant was an instructor of English who worked at the same university as the researcher. He was also a PhD student in Applied Linguistics and therefore was thought to have sufficient background to undertake the coding. For what constituted an LRE, there was 85% agreement between the two raters. Of the LREs that both raters agreed upon, the following inter-coder reliability values were computed.

**Table 42: Inter-coder reliability (Cohen's Kappa) for each category of LRE**

	Linguistic focus	Type	Complexity	Resolution
Cohen's Kappa	.949	.820	.905	.751

The inter-coder reliability results for LRE categorization are comparable to other studies that have identified LREs (e.g. Fernández Dobao, 2012; Kim & McDonough, 2008; Bowles et al., 2014). However, the reliability of LREs (resolution) was slightly lower. Ellis et al. (2001), who identified successful uptake with a Kappa of .82, offers a point of comparison. Based on established benchmarks set by Fleiss (1981) (excellent if Kappa > 0.75), Landis and Koch (1977) (substantial if Kappa = .61-.80, almost perfect if Kappa = .81-1.00), and Altman (1991) (good if Kappa = .61-.80, very good if Kappa = .81-1.00), the inter-coder reliability results were considered high enough for the researcher to code the remaining data alone.

### 8.3.5. LRE comparisons

After LREs were identified and coded, raw frequencies were tabulated, and an analysis was done to compare the frequency, linguistic focus, type, complexity, and resolution between the two groups. Following the procedures of previous research on paired collaboration, the analysis was carried out on each pair, not on individual students; in other words, as each LRE was generated collaboratively, the N size refers to the number of pairs involved in the task performances. Table 43 shows the dependent variables for each category of LRE.

**Table 43: Dependent variables for each category of LRE**

Category of LRE	DV1	DV2	DV3	DV4
Linguistic focus	Lexical	Grammatical	Sp./Pron.	Other
Type	Preemptive	Reactive	-	-
Complexity	Simple	Complex	-	-
Resolution	With uptake	Without uptake	Incorrect	Unresolved

DV = dependent variable; Sp./Pron. = spelling and pronunciation

The first objective of the analysis was to determine if there were significant differences between groups in terms of the distribution of LRE productions in order to show if there was an association between LRE category and group. To achieve this, a series of Pearson's Chi-squared tests were performed on each category of LREs. For example, to compare the frequency of preemptive as opposed to reactive LREs in the inter-cultural and intra-cultural groups a contingency table were constructed.

The second objective was to determine if the groups generated a significantly different amount of LREs during each task performance. A one-way between-subjects MANOVA was conducted on dependent variables to test for the effect of group (Inter-cultural group, Intra-cultural group) for each task performance. Results for the main effect of group showed if there were significant differences in the production of LREs between groups for the first and second task performance. Finally, results for the effect of group on each dependent variable demonstrated if there were significant differences in the production of each LRE subcategory.

The treatment occurred only during the Task performance 2; therefore, reported results pertain to between-group comparisons for the repeated task performance. However, between-

group comparisons were done on Task performance 1 for the purpose of establishing whether there were any significant differences between the interactions between learners in both groups.

## 8.4. Results

### 8.4.1. Language production

Three measures of production were used: words, turns, and words-per-turn for each learner per task. To establish whether learners in intra-cultural pairs produced a similar amount of output during Task performance 1, a one-way, between-subjects MANOVA was conducted to test for the effect of group on each of the three measures. No significant differences were found for either measure of output, indicating that, in terms of words, turns and words-per-turn, learners in both groups produced a very similar amount of output.

To determine the effect of inter-cultural contact on learners' output, the data of Task performance 2 is now relevant. Descriptive statistics for each measure during the repeated performance (Task performance 2) are presented in Table 44, Table 45, and Table 46.

**Table 44: Descriptive statistics for number of words produced per learner**

	Inter-cultural group ( $N = 18$ )			Intra-cultural group ( $N = 18$ )		
	Total	$M$	$SD$	Total	$M$	$SD$
<i>Task performance 2</i>						
Task 1	11046	613.67	154.28	9304	516.89	125.12
Task 4	10798	599.89	166.54	9356	519.78	150.76
Total	21844	1213.56	227.02	18660	1072.06	200.01

**Table 45: Descriptive statistics for number of turns produced per learner**

	Inter-cultural group ( $N = 18$ )			Intra-cultural group ( $N = 18$ )		
	Total	$M$	$SD$	Total	$M$	$SD$
<i>Task performance 2</i>						
Task 1	2396	133.11	36.77	1904	105.78	27.94
Task 4	2197	122.06	31.26	1401	77.83	24.27
Total	4593	255.17	48.26	3305	183.61	37.01



**Table 46: Descriptive statistics for number of words-per-turn produced per learner**

	Inter-cultural group ( $N = 18$ )			Intra-cultural group ( $N = 18$ )		
	Total	$M$	$SD$	Total	$M$	$SD$
<i>Task performance 2</i>						
Task 1	86.40	4.80	1.33	92.88	5.16	1.82
Task 4	90.54	5.03	1.16	129.96	7.22	3.00
Total	176.94	9.83	1.55	222.84	12.38	6.12

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to test for the effect of the treatment condition (Inter-cultural group, Intra-cultural group) on the word, turns, and words-per-turn produced. Table 47 shows the results for the test of between-subjects effects for each group. The assumption of homogeneity of variance (as tested by Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances and Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices) was not violated; therefore, Wilks' Lambda was reported for significant values.

**Table 47: Multivariate test for group**

Variable	$F$	$df$	Sig.	Post-hoc
Words	2.106	2	.138	
Turns	11.300	2	.0002	Inter- > Intra-
Words-per-turn	5.079	2	.012	Intra- > Inter-

Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group

It was found that the Inter-cultural group produced a significantly greater number of turns than the Intra-cultural group,  $F(2,33) = 11.30$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 1.153$ . Furthermore, the Intra-cultural group produced a significantly greater number of words-per-turn than the Inter-cultural group,  $F(2,33) = 5.079$ ,  $p < .012$ ,  $d = .588$ . However, there was no significant difference between the number of words produced in each group,  $F(2,33) = 2.106$ ,  $p = .138$ ,  $d = .498$ .

#### 8.4.2. Motivational flow and language production

Table 48 presents the correlations between motivational flow and language output measures for Task performance 2.

**Table 48: Pearson's correlation values for motivational flow and language output**

	Inter-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)			Intra-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)		
	Words	Turns	Words /turn	Words	Turns	Words /turn
Flow	.161	.166	.094	-.147	.359*	-4.29**

\* =  $p < .05$ , \*\* =  $p < .01$

Table 48 reveals significant positive correlations between turns of talk and motivational flow and words-per-turn and motivational flow for the Intra-cultural group whereas no significant correlations were found for the Inter-cultural group. This provides some evidence that turn-taking during task performance is related to learners' self reported motivational flow during intra-cultural interaction, while words produced do not seem to reflect learners' flow states.

#### 8.4.3. Between-group comparisons of LRE production (Task performance 1)

To establish whether learners in intra-cultural pairs produced a similar number of LREs in each category during Task performance 1, a one-way, between-subjects MANOVA was conducted to test for the effect of group on each category of LRE. In addition, between-subjects effects were investigated for differences in each subcategory (dependent variable). No significant differences were found, indicating that, in terms of the frequency of LREs generated, pairs in both groups interacted in a very similar manner.

To establish whether there was a significant difference between groups in terms of the distribution of LRE productions in each category during Task performance 1, Pearson's Chi-squared-tests were performed for each dependent variable. The only significant difference found was for that of LRE type ( $\chi^2 = 6.79$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .009$ ,  $d = .964$ ). This significant association can be explained by looking at the descriptive statistics for LRE type in Table 49.

**Table 49: Descriptive statistics for LRE type during task performance 1**

	Inter-cultural group ( $N = 9$ )				Intra-cultural group ( $N = 9$ )			
	Total	M	SD	%	Total	M	SD	%
<i>Reactive</i>	128	14.22	5.60	72.32	137	15.22	4.12	84.05
Task 1	66	7.33	3.71		74	8.22	2.44	
Task 4	62	6.89	4.20		63	7.00	3.32	
<i>Preemptive</i>	49	5.44	4.32	27.68	26	2.89	2.65	15.95
Task 1	35	3.89	3.69		19	2.11	2.47	
Task 4	14	1.56	2.24		7	.78	.97	
Total	177	19.67	7.95	100	163	18.11	4.94	100

As can be seen, a larger percentage of preemptive LREs occurred during interactions in the Inter-cultural group than occurred in the Intra-cultural group. Upon inspection of individual pair LRE counts, it was noticed that this difference in distribution could be attributed to the interactions of a single pair (Pair 4) in the Inter-cultural group, in which 66.67% of all LREs generated were preemptive. For all other pairs, preemptive LREs accounted for less than 50%. The transcripts of Pair 4 task performances showed that both learners adopted the strategy of preemptively providing the Japanese equivalent of an English lexical item before using it in conversation. This type of preemptive LRE was rarely observed in other interactions. Therefore, a decision was made to classify the Pair 4 performance as an outlier and eliminate their LRE count from the data.

After eliminating the outlier, the above procedures were conducted again, and no significant differences between groups were found.

#### **8.4.4. Between-group comparisons of LRE production (Task performance 2)**

After establishing that there was no significant difference between groups in regards to LRE production during Task performance 1, the effect of inter-cultural contact can now be investigated by looking at differences between groups for the repeated performance of the tasks (Task performance 2). These results report on interactions during the treatment phase, looking at only inter-cultural interactions and intra-cultural interactions.

#### 8.4.4.1. Linguistic focus

LREs were categorized for linguistic focus and tabulated. Table 50 shows the descriptive statistics for LREs produced, including the total LREs produced and LREs produced in each category of linguistic focus for each pair Task 1 and Task 4.

**Table 50: Descriptive statistics for LREs (linguistic focus)**

	Inter-cultural group ( $N = 18$ )				Intra-cultural group ( $N = 9$ )			
	Total	$M$	$SD$	%	Total	$M$	$SD$	%
<i>Lexical</i>	244	13.55	4.56	43.42	64	7.11	2.70	49.61
Task 1	139	7.72	3.12		40	4.44	2.46	
Task 4	105	5.83	3.33		24	2.67	1.12	
<i>Grammatical</i>	111	6.17	3.15	19.75	9	1.00	1.03	6.98
Task 1	42	2.33	2.38		5	.55	.73	
Task 4	69	3.83	2.07		4	.44	.73	
<i>Sp./Pron.</i>	180	10.00	4.16	32.03	48	5.33	4.63	37.21
Task 1	92	5.11	2.42		27	3.00	2.65	
Task 4	88	4.89	3.38		21	2.33	2.23	
<i>Other</i>	27	1.5	1.01	4.80	8	.89	1.03	6.20
Task 1	19	1.06	.87		4	.44	.73	
Task 4	8	.44	.51		4	.44	.73	
Total LREs	562	31.22	7.01	100	129	14.33	4.63	100

Sp. / Pron. = spelling and pronunciation

Table 50 shows that pairs in both groups produced more lexical LREs than any other linguistic focus, indicating that interactions were mainly facilitated by a focus on the meaning of utterances as opposed to form. The category of *other* was the least produced LRE for both groups.

To determine if there was a significant difference between groups in terms of how the categories of linguistic focus were distributed for the repeated task performance, Pearson's Chi-squared tests were performed for dependent variable. Chi-squared results are presented in Table 51.

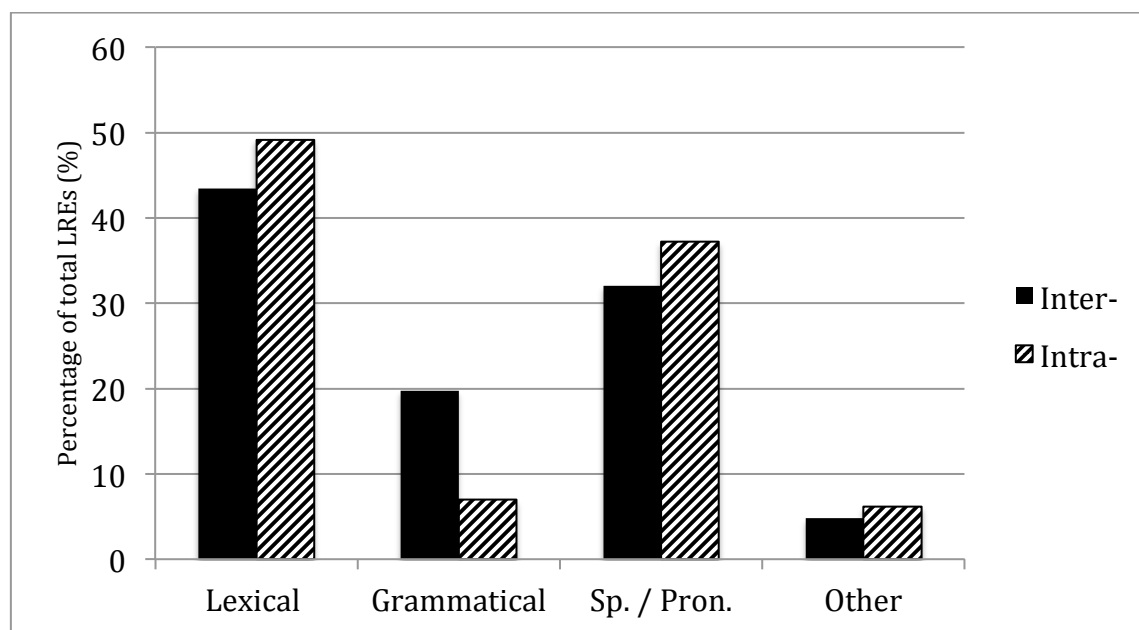
**Table 51: Pearson's Chi-squared test results.**

Dependent variable	Value	<i>df</i>	Significance
Lexical	1.630	1	.202
Grammatical	11.930	1	.001
Sp./Pron.	1.274	1	.259
Other	.087	1	.768

Sp./Pron. = Spelling/Pronunciation

Table 51 shows that the production of grammatical LREs was proportionally more frequent in the Inter-cultural group ( $p = .001$ ,  $d = 1.408$ ). All other dependent variables show no significant differences. The distribution of LREs by linguistic focus for each group is depicted in Figure 9.

**Figure 9: Distribution of LREs (linguistic focus)**



Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group; Sp./Pron. = Spelling/Pronunciation

To investigate whether the groups generated a significantly different total number of LREs, a one-way MANOVA was conducted to test for the effect of treatment condition (Inter-cultural group, Intra-cultural group) on the linguistic focus of LREs. It was found that the Inter-cultural group produced a significantly greater number of LREs than the Intra-cultural group,  $F(2,52) = 9.288$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = .897$ ; that is, learners who received the inter-cultural treatment

produced significantly more LREs than those who performed the tasks intra-culturally. Table 52 shows the results for the test of between-subjects effects for each group.

**Table 52: Test of between-subjects effects for group**

Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Post-hoc
Lexical	14.125	1	.0004	Inter- > Intra-
Grammar	21.112	1	.00003	Inter- > Intra-
Sp./Pron.	8.667	1	.005	Inter- > Intra-
Other	1.996	1	.164	

Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group; Sp./Pron. = Spelling/Pronunciation

As can be seen, there were significantly more lexical LREs,  $F(2,52) = 14.125, p < .001, d = 1.106$ , Grammatical LREs,  $F(2,52) = 21.112, p < .001, d = 1.352$ , and Spelling/Pronunciation LREs,  $F(2,52) = 8.667, p = .005, d = .866$ , produced from pairs in the Inter-cultural group than those produced from pairs in the Intra-cultural group

#### 8.4.4.2. Type

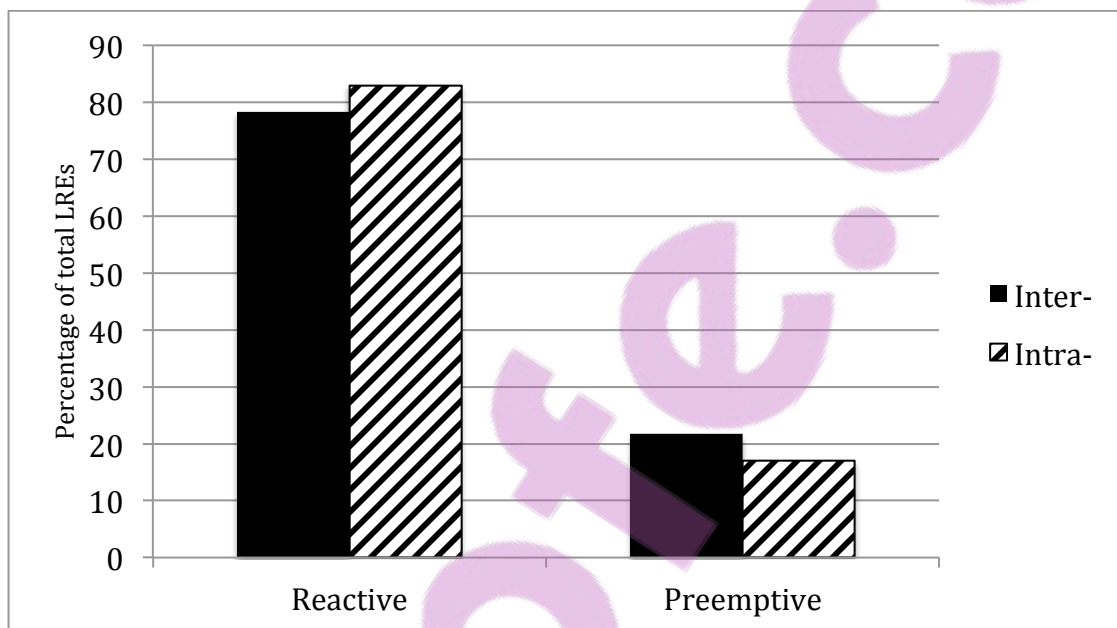
LREs were then categorized by type and tabulated. Table 53 shows the total LRE frequency counts, broken down by type (reactive and preemptive), generated for the repeated task performance.

**Table 53: Descriptive statistics for LREs (type)**

	Inter-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)				Intra-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 9)			
	Total	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%	Total	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%
<i>Reactive</i>	440	24.44	7.36	78.29	107	11.89	4.64	82.95
Task 1	220	12.22	4.60		66	7.33	3.61	
Task 4	220	12.22	5.75		41	4.56	2.92	
<i>Preemptive</i>	122	6.78	3.12	21.71	22	2.44	1.69	17.05
Task 1	72	4.00	2.17		10	1.11	1.36	
Task 4	50	2.78	2.24		12	1.33	1.00	
Total	562	31.22	7.01	100	129	14.33	4.63	100

Table 53 reveals that the majority of LREs generated (78.29 – 82.94%) within each group were reactive. That is, most LREs were in response to a misunderstood or problematic utterance. To determine whether LRE type is more associated with one group’s performance, a Pearson’s Chi-squared test was performed to compare the distribution of each type between groups. There was no significant difference found for LRE type ( $\chi^2 = 1.378$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p = .241$ ,  $d = .399$ ), indicating that both groups generated preemptive and reactive LREs in similar proportions. This distribution of LRE type for both groups is depicted in Figure 10.

**Figure 10: Distribution of LREs (type)**



Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group

A one-way MANOVA was performed on the two dependent variables for type. Table 54 shows the results for the between-subjects effect for groups on LRE type.

**Table 54: Test of between-subjects effects for group**

Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	Post-Hoc
Reactive	21.818	1	.0002	Inter- > Intra-
Preemptive	14.526	1	.0004	Inter- > Intra-

Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group

It was found that learners in the Inter-cultural group produced significantly more reactive LREs,  $F(2,52) = 21.818$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 1.374$ , and preemptive LREs,  $F(2,52) = 21.112$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 1.352$ , than the Intra-cultural group.

#### 8.4.4.3 Complexity

Next, LREs were categorized according to complexity and tabulated. Table 55 shows the total LRE frequency counts categorized by complexity (simple and complex).

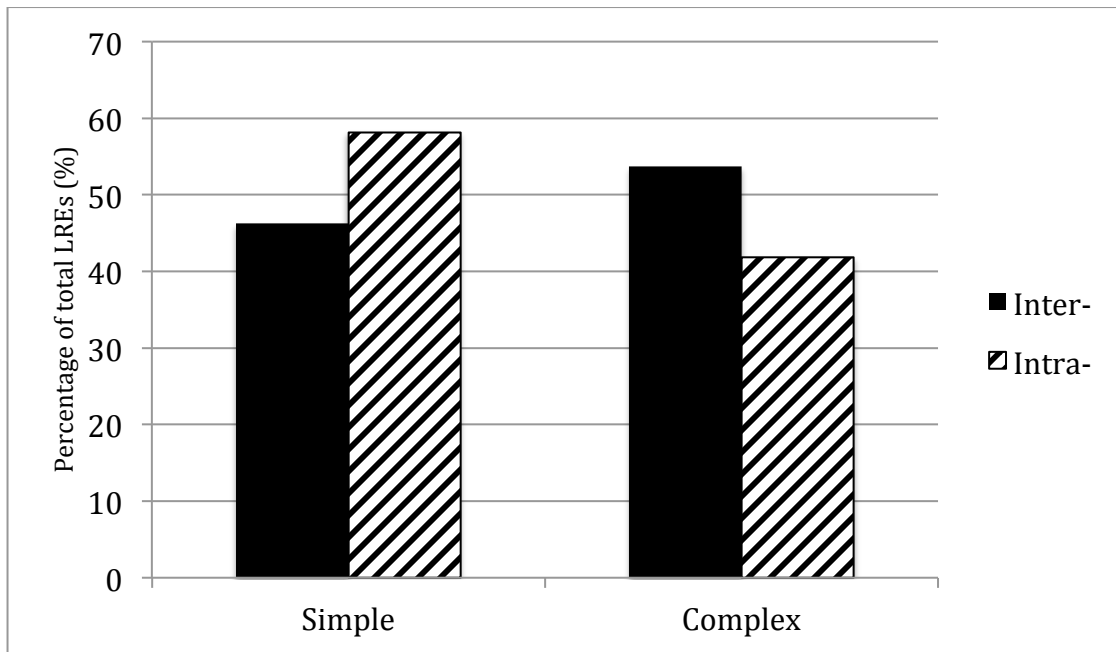
**Table 55: Descriptive statistics for LREs (complexity)**

	Inter-cultural group ( $N = 18$ )				Intra-cultural group ( $N = 9$ )			
	Total	$M$	$SD$	%	Total	$M$	$SD$	%
<i>Simple</i>	260	14.44	4.67	46.26	75	8.33	2.64	58.14
Task 1	141	8.61	2.87		42	4.67	1.58	
Task 4	119	6.61	3.68		33	3.67	2.12	
<i>Complex</i>	302	16.78	6.23	53.74	54	6.00	4.48	41.86
Task 1	151	7.61	4.03		34	3.78	3.07	
Task 4	151	8.39	4.76		20	2.22	1.64	
Total	562	31.22	7.01	100	129	14.33	4.63	100

Table 55 reveals that simple LREs were more commonly produced than complex LREs for the Intra-cultural group, while the Inter-cultural group produced more complex episodes. To determine whether complex LREs were in fact associated more with the Inter-cultural group, a Pearson's Chi-squared test was performed on simple and complex LREs. There was a significant difference found for LRE type ( $\chi^2 = 5.925$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .015$ ,  $d = .888$ ), indicating that the Inter-cultural group produced a significantly greater proportion of complex LREs than the Intra-cultural group. The distribution of LRE complexity for both groups is depicted in Figure 11.



**Figure 11: Distribution of LREs (complexity)**



Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to test for the effect of group (Inter-cultural group, Intra-cultural group) on LRE complexity (simple and complex). Results of the test of between-subjects effects are presented in Table 56.

**Table 56: Test of between-subjects effects for group**

Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Post-Hoc
<i>Task performance 2</i>				
Simple	12.869	1	.001	Inter- > Intra-
Complex	23.952	1	.00001	Inter- > Intra-

Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group

Results show that the Inter-cultural group produced a greater number of both simple LREs,  $F(1,52) = 12.869, p = .001, d = 1.055$ , and complex LREs,  $F(1,52) = 23.952, p < .001, d = 1.440$ .

#### 8.4.4.4. Resolution

Finally, LREs were categorized according to resolution. Table 57 shows the total LRE frequency counts for each category of resolution.

**Table 57: Descriptive statistics for LREs (resolution)**

	Inter-cultural group ( $N = 18$ )				Intra-cultural group ( $N = 9$ )			
	Total	$M$	$SD$	%	Total	$M$	$SD$	%
<i>With uptake</i>	198	11	5.24	35.23	47	5.22	3.29	36.43
Task 1	104	5.78	3.26		26	2.89	2.61	
Task 4	94	5.22	4.10		21	2.33	2.00	
<i>Without uptake</i>	332	18.44	5.69	59.07	66	7.33	2.16	51.16
Task 1	173	9.61	3.16		40	4.44	1.81	
Task 4	159	8.83	4.73		26	2.89	1.17	
<i>Incorrect</i>	9	.50	.69	1.60	11	1.22	1.33	8.53
Task 1	2	.11	.32		6	.67	.87	
Task 4	7	.39	.61		5	.56	1.01	
<i>Unresolved</i>	23	1.28	1.18	4.09	5	.56	.80	3.88
Task 1	13	.72	.89		4	.44	.73	
Task 4	10	.56	.78		1	.11	.33	
Total	562	31.22	7.01	100	129	14.33	4.63	100

The above table reveals that the majority of LREs (51.16–59.07%) were resolved without uptake. In other words, most LREs reached a correct solution, but there was no evidence of successful uptake. The case of an LRE being left unresolved was the least common outcome for the Intra-cultural group while LREs being resolved incorrectly was the least common outcome the Inter-cultural group.

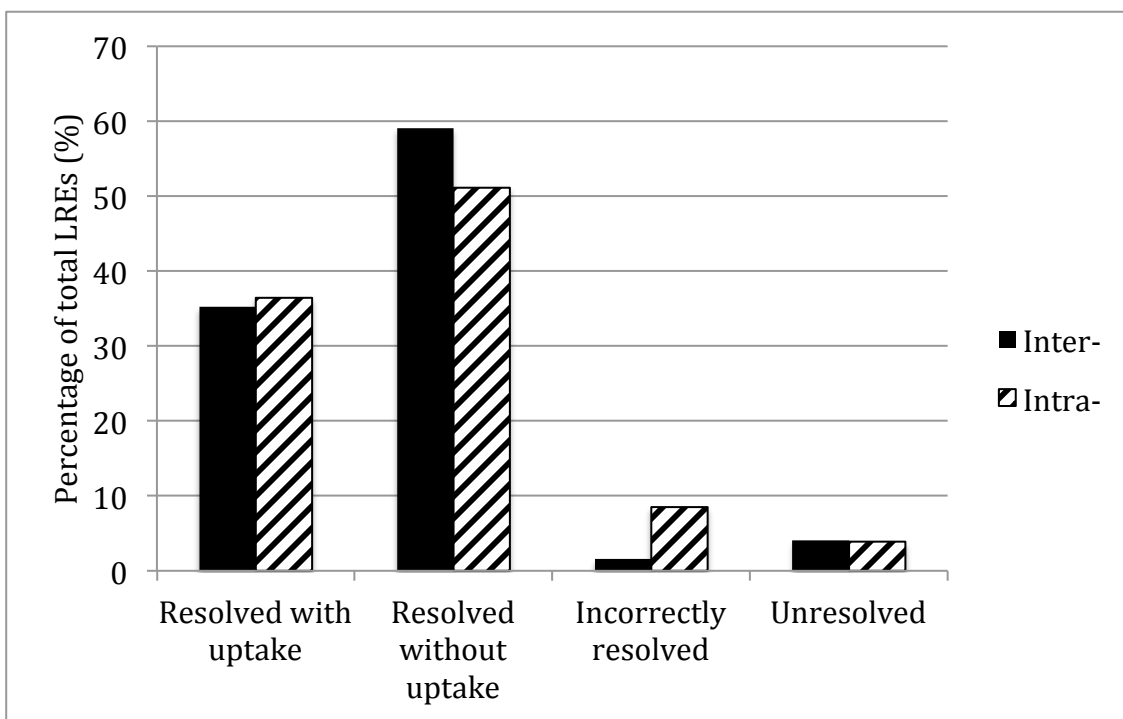
A Pearson's Chi-squared test was conducted on each category of resolution to determine if there is indeed an association with any one group. These results are shown in Table 58 below.

**Table 58: Pearson's Chi-squared test results.**

Dependent variable	Value	<i>df</i>	Sig.
With uptake	.066	1	.797
Without	2.689	1	.101
Incorrect	17.905	1	.00002
Unresolved	.013	1	.910

Results show that the Intra-cultural group generated a significantly greater percentage of LREs that had an incorrect resolution than the Inter-cultural group did ( $\chi^2 = 17.905$ ,  $df = 1$ ,  $p = .00002$ ,  $d = 1.989$ ), indicating that a lack of inter-cultural contact during the repeated task performance increases the level of LREs that are resolved incorrectly. The distribution of LREs (resolution) for both groups is depicted in Figure 12.

**Figure 12: Distribution of LREs (resolution)**



Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group

A one-way MANOVA was conducted to test for the effect of group on LRE resolution. Results of the test of between-subjects effects are presented in Table 59.

**Table 59: Test of between-subjects effects for group**

Variable	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig.	Post-Hoc
<i>Task performance 2</i>				
With uptake	9.345	1	.004	Inter- > Intra-
Without	31.874	1	.000001	Inter- > Intra-
Incorrect	3.534	1	.066	
Unresolved	2.720	1	.105	

It was found that the production of resolved LREs *with uptake*,  $F(1,52) = 9.345$ ,  $p = .004$ ,  $d = .899$ , and resolved *without uptake*,  $F(1,52) = 31.874$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $d = 1.661$ , were significantly greater in the Inter-cultural group than the Intra-cultural group.

#### 8.4.5. Summary

To summarize, transcripts of interactions for Task 1 and Task 4 were created and analyzed in terms of language output and LREs. Pruned versions of the transcripts were used to obtain a word, turn, and words-per-turn count for each learner in each group across both task performances. These measures of language production were used to determine if inter-cultural contact had an effect on output. Words, turns, and words-per-turn were correlated with motivational flow scores in order to relate oral output to motivation. Unpruned transcripts were used to identify LREs, which were then categorized in terms of linguistic focus, type, complexity, and resolution.

##### 8.4.5.1. Language Output

A one-way MANOVA was conducted on both words, turns, and words-per-turn produced by individual learners during the Task performance 1 to determine if there were significant changes between and within groups. This was done to establish that both groups were comparable in terms of words and turns produced in interaction. Results revealed no significant effect for group for all measures. Thus, it was concluded that before the treatment phase, both the Inter- and Intra-cultural group generated a similar amount of output. To determine the effect of inter-cultural contact on language production, a one-way MANOVA was conducted to test for the effect of treatment condition (Inter-cultural group, Intra-cultural group)

on words, turns, and words-per-turn produced. It was found that the Inter-cultural group produced a significantly greater number of turns and significantly fewer number of words-per-turn than the Intra-cultural group (large effect size for both) while there was no significant difference for the number of words produced. Therefore, inter-cultural contact has a positive effect on the number of turns produced, a negative effect on words-per-turn, and no effect on the number of words produced by each learner.

A Pearson's product moment correlation test was done to assess whether there was a relationship between language output and motivational flow scores for each group during the repeated performance of tasks. Results show that there was a non-significant correlation between words and motivational flow, indicating that the number of words produced by learners when performing tasks was not related to their perceived ability to achieve a flow state. In contrast, there was a significant positive correlation between turns and motivational flow, and significant negative correlation between words-per-turn and motivational flow, but only for the Intra-cultural group, which provides partial evidence that the number of turns taken during tasks is positively related to a learner's flow level.

#### **8.4.5.2. Language-related episodes**

The identification and categorization of LREs, and subsequent comparisons between groups during the repeated performance of tasks, shed light on how inter-cultural contact affects language-learning opportunities. The first part of the analysis used a series of MANOVAs to investigate differences between groups for each dependent variable. The second part of the analysis used Chi-squared tests on each dependent variable to determine if there were significant distributional differences between groups. Table 60 provides a summary of the effect of inter-cultural contact on all dependent variables.

**Table 60: Summary of significance levels for dependent variables**

Dependent variable	MANOVA results		Pearson Chi-squared results	
	Significance	Direction	Significance	Direction
<i>Linguistic focus</i>				
Lexical	$p < .001$	Inter. > Intra.	<i>Non-sig</i>	-
Grammatical	$p < .001$	Inter. > Intra.	$p = .001$	Inter. > Intra.
Sp./Pron.	$p = .005$	Inter. > Intra.	<i>Non-sig</i>	-
Other	<i>Non-sig.</i>	-	<i>Non-sig</i>	-
<i>Type</i>				
Reactive	$p < .001$	Inter. > Intra.	<i>Non-sig</i>	-
Preemptive	$p < .001$	Inter. > Intra.	<i>Non-sig</i>	-
<i>Complexity</i>				
Simple	$p < .001$	Inter. > Intra.	$p = .015$	Intra. > Inter.
Complex	$p < .001$	Inter. > Intra.	$p = .015$	Inter. > Intra.
<i>Resolution</i>				
With uptake	$p = .004$	Inter. > Intra.	<i>Non-sig</i>	-
Without uptake	$p < .001$	Inter. > Intra.	<i>Non-sig</i>	-
Incorrect	<i>Non-sig.</i>	-	$p < .001$	Intra. > Inter.
Unresolved	<i>Non-sig.</i>	-	<i>Non-sig</i>	-
Total LREs	Large	Inter. > Intra.	-	-

Results reveal that repeated task performances with inter-cultural contact produced significantly more LREs than task performances without inter-cultural contact in 10 out of the 13 dependent variables investigated. For all significant changes, the effect size was large ( $d > .8$ ). In terms of proportional differences, four out of twelve of the Chi-squared tests conducted produced significant results. Specifically, inter-cultural interaction produced proportionately more grammatical LREs and complex LREs, while intra-cultural interaction produced proportionately more simple LREs and LREs that were incorrectly resolved.



- there sea in Toronto? I don't know but maybe. Toronto has sea. Castle- castle... cost. Do you- you know many words... I think... and they have many famous to go... yes. Disadvantage... is
- 124 Goro: I think there is cold
- 125 Manami: It's north side of earth. Okay, cold. It's cold. Toronto... I can't think of disadvantages... which country do you want to go?
- 126 Goro: Um
- 127 Manami: I want to- I also want to go London, so let's go London. To decide what to do while travel to city together. Write down activities you can do in your city... first, I'd like to eat fish and chips at once. Fish and chips... I will eat fish and chips at once... at once.

Manami dominated the interaction throughout her task performance with Goro, producing 527 words, or 75.61% of the total, which does not necessarily suggest that she is engaged in the task. It may be that she was frustrated with Goro's unresponsiveness, or that she was simply filling uncomfortable silences. For Manami – and for other learners performing tasks under the intra-cultural condition – a high word/low turn count reflects less task engagement (interactivity) – and thus diminished flow.

The reason why significant relationships between flow and language output exist for the Intra-cultural group but not for the Inter-cultural group is more difficult to explain. As Chapter 7 has shown, inter-cultural and intra-cultural interaction impact flow in different ways. In this chapter, results show that flow during intra-cultural interaction is more closely related to turns of talk than during inter-cultural interaction. It seems that Japanese-Japanese interaction that is collaborative and interactive, in the sense that learners respond and react to their interlocutor in a way that generates ample turns with few lengthy monologues, creates a condition for flow to emerge. However, this isn't the case for inter-cultural interactions, suggesting that interactivity and flow are not related. I can only speculate that other variables are at play – unique to inter-cultural interactions – which influence flow. Perhaps 'inter-cultural' flow is more related to non-verbal elements, such as listening to or simply observing a culturally unfamiliar interlocutor.



These factors may have promoted interest and curiosity (flow), but may not be reflected in learners' observed output.

However, the fact that turns and words-per-turn were not related to motivational flow for inter-cultural interactions does not mean that learners in the Inter-cultural group were less interactive. In fact, the opposite is true: results suggest that learners in the Inter-cultural group used a similar number of words as learners in the Intra-cultural group but used smaller strings of speech to express themselves. In other words, learners in the Inter-cultural group produced significantly more turns and less words-per-turn than learners in the Intra-cultural group. Thus, to answer RQ6(a), inter-cultural contact has the effect of increasing task engagement (or interactivity) between participants.

### **8.5.2. LREs in inter-cultural and intra-cultural interaction**

RQ6(b) asks whether inter-cultural contact affects the frequency, type, linguistic focus, complexity, and resolution of LREs. Results suggest that the inter-cultural contact condition led to a significantly greater number of LREs being produced when compared to the intra-cultural contact condition. Furthermore, for the specific categories of LREs, there were significant differences between groups for 9 of the 12 variables investigated in favor of the Inter-cultural group. These findings provide strong support in favor of inter-cultural interaction as an advantageous learning condition. The following sections will discuss the similarities and differences of inter-cultural and intra-cultural interactions that gave rise to LREs. Similarities can generally be attributed to the interlocutor's need to facilitate communication, whereas differences are associated with the interlocutor's proficiency and cultural background.

#### **8.5.2.1. Similarities: The need to facilitate communication**

It is unsurprising that the LREs observed were primarily lexical for both inter-cultural (51.98%) and intra-cultural (55.82%) interactions. This supports the findings of studies that have used meaning-focused, oral tasks (e.g. Bowles et al., 2014; Lasito & Storch, 2013; Nakahama et al., 2001; Phil et al., 2010). This is most likely because resolving lexical issues are of more value when conveying meaning. Unlike research using dictogloss or other writing tasks (e.g. Kim & McDonough, 2008; Leaser, 2004; Swain & Lapkin, 2001), for tasks used in this study there was no intervention embedded in the task design that elicited linguistic deliberation.

Therefore, students were not pushed towards grammatical problem solving. In line with Williams' (2001) finding, participants relied mostly on lexical items to communicate meaning and formed their interactional strategies accordingly. Thus, in a meaning-based, oral task, it seems that there is a natural inclination to prioritize elements that facilitate comprehension, regardless of interlocutor differences between groups.

Both inter-cultural and intra-cultural interactions showed similar rates of resolution *with uptake* – 35.23% and 36.43% respectively. This is far below the level of successful uptake found by Ellis et. al (2001) (successful uptake = 71.0%). This points to the notion that LREs produced in student-student interaction are not as conducive for promoting uptake as teacher-learner interaction. This is not surprising as student-student interaction, whether inter-cultural or intra-cultural, does not have the same purpose as teacher-learner interaction. As Philp et al. (2010) note, teachers may use linguistic difficulties as a learning opportunity, which often results in eliciting correct responses, whereas in peer interaction, participants see these difficulties as simply a barrier to communication (p. 273). In this way, participants in this study tended to avoid deliberate breaks in communication to confirm understandings of new linguistic forms, instead, forgoing uptake to forge ahead in the direction of the task goal.

This is related to concepts of “negotiation of meaning” and “negotiation of form.” Negotiation of meaning is defined as “an activity that occurs when a listener signals to a speaker that the speaker’s message is not clear, and the listener and speaker work linguistically to resolve this impasse” (Pica, 1992, p. 200). Although the analysis here did not code for negotiation, it seems that most LREs involved negotiation of meaning. Negotiation of form, on the other hand, is defined as “activity that occurs when a participant in the conversation signals that there is a linguistic problem, which another participant explicitly deals with” (Ellis, et al., 2001, p. 285). As previously mentioned, teacher-student interactions are perhaps more likely to facilitate form negotiations, where learners use interactions as opportunities to request help and teachers see it as their role to give help. This can be seen in Ellis, et al. (2001) in which, during a series of teacher-fronted lessons, it was found that the great majority of episodes involved negotiation of form.

A preference for entering into LREs via negotiation of meaning is also reflected in the greater number of reactive as opposed to preemptive LREs generated in both groups. Participants entered into deliberations about language mostly because of a perceived error or a lack of understanding. As the main goal of most participants was to reach a final task outcome

within the time constraints, it makes sense that students would prefer to ‘improve’ or ‘repair’ problematic utterances rather than sacrifice task progress to topicalize a linguistic issue.

In addition to being more common, reactive LREs were resolved with uptake at a higher rate (inter-cultural = 39.01%, intra-cultural = 40.19%) than preemptive LREs (inter-cultural = 22.13%, intra-cultural = 18.18%). The relative success of reactive LREs in eliciting uptake might be related to how each LRE is initially generated. By definition, a preemptive LRE is initiated by one participant when he/she either predicts a gap in linguistic knowledge or asks a question about linguistic form. Because of the nature of the tasks (i.e, meaning-oriented and oral), participants employed strategies that facilitated communication of meaning; one of these strategies involved preemptively predicting a gap in knowledge, thereby initiating an LRE. Example 21 illustrates this form of predictive, preemptive LRE arising during intra-cultural interaction.

**Example 21:** (Intra-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 2)

- 94 Goro: What food is famous for Toronto?  
95 Manami: Canada... poutine- poutine... poutine is fried potato and sauce.  
96 Goro: Okay...How much cost of travel from Japan?

Manami predicts that Goro does not know the meaning of the word “poutine” and therefore tags a simple definition to the end of turn 95. Goro appears to acknowledge his understanding of the word (turn 96) before continuing with the next question, but it is unclear if this information was new to Goro or not.

Similarly, inter-cultural interactions also produced predictive, preemptive LREs that were conversational in nature, such as in Example 22.

**Example 22:** (Inter-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 2)

- 149 Adrianna: But he also gets room and board. Do you know what room and board is? It is=  
150 Hikaru: =Um  
151 Adrianna: Room and board is like they will give you a place to stay  
152 Hikaru: Yes, I see.

Again, it is unclear whether Hikaru did not already know the phrase “room and board” before Adrianna initiated the LRE.

Almost all preemptive LREs in this study involved the prediction of a linguistic gap as in Examples 21 and 22. However, learners may not have an intuition regarding the language needs of other learners and may be less than accurate in assessing whether their interlocutors are indeed lacking in knowledge. This is echoed in Ellis, et al., (2001), who applied this explanation to teacher-initiated focus on form episodes: “... the forms that teachers nominate for attention may not reflect actual gaps in the students’ knowledge of the L2 or may not be perceived as relevant by the students even if they do represent gaps in knowledge” (p. 312). Perhaps also it is more difficult for learners to demonstrate uptake for a preemptive LRE. If a preemptive LRE provides new linguistic knowledge that wasn’t needed, then it may be difficult or awkward to reformulate the new information in an appropriate utterance. On the other hand, reactive LREs tended to be triggered from a lack of understanding or from observing a clear linguistic gap, which makes uptake a more useful objective for learners and a more likely outcome.

#### **8.5.2.2. Differences: Proficiency**

Of the 21 international student participants, 13 identified themselves as being native speakers of English, and the remaining eight non-native English speakers reported that their oral English-skills were ‘very good’. In contrast, Japanese students in both groups self-reported having ‘below average’ spoken English skills. Therefore, there was a large discrepancy in proficiency between interlocutors in the Inter-cultural group while learners in the Intra-cultural group had very similar proficiency levels. Proficiency differences in interaction have been previously found to be an important predictor for the number and type of LREs produced (e.g. Leeser, 2004; Kim & McDonough, 2008; Watanabe & Swain, 2007, Fernández Dobao, 2012, Bowles et al., 2014) and are surely important in explaining differences in LRE production in this study.

One of the most notable differences between the two groups was the significantly higher percentage of grammatical LREs observed in inter-cultural interactions (19.75%) compared to intra-cultural interactions (6.98%). This lack of grammatical feedback on the part of Japanese learners may be as a result of insufficient linguistic knowledge. In other words, they lacked confidence to enter into negotiations about grammar or failed to notice errors made by their

interlocutor. As Fujii and Mackey (2009) claim, it might also be that as learners, they don't feel it is their role to recast grammatical errors. In contrast, international students are more likely to enter into grammatical LREs because they have the expertise to do so, or decide to do so because they feel it is their responsibility as the more proficient interlocutor.

Even though international students were always the more proficient interlocutor, and gave significantly more grammatical feedback, this did not result in a higher rate of uptake for grammatical LREs. In fact, inter-cultural interaction resulted in much lower levels of uptake for grammatical LREs (32.43%) than intra-cultural interaction (66.67%). One explanation for this is in line with Leeson's (2004) warning that feedback from higher proficiency learners may not always be useful. In other words, international students may give feedback that learners may not be able to process because they are not developmentally ready for it, making it difficult for learners to demonstrate uptake. Additionally, international students did not take on a 'teacher role' when providing feedback. That is, they usually did not elicit use of the corrected form from the Japanese learner, instead, opting to maintain conversational momentum. Finally, because of the greater amount of feedback, it is possible the Japanese interlocutor felt an acknowledgement of grammatical feedback was a more efficient use of time than delaying task progress in order to 'try out' the target form. Example 23 illustrates a typical grammatical LRE (resolved without uptake) during inter-cultural interaction.

**Example 23:** (Inter-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 2)

- 66           Katsu:           And everyone play football.  
67           Malori:           Everybody CAN- CAN play football?  
68           Katsu:           Yeah, so you... what do you think?

Katsu, after receiving feedback from Malori (turn 67), simply acknowledges with "yeah" (turn 68) before continuing on with the task, thus the LRE concludes without inhibiting conversational flow.

An interesting difference was in the distribution of simple and complex LREs. Complex LREs occurred more frequently than simple LREs for the Inter-cultural group, while the opposite was true for the Intra-cultural group. This result is consistent with Williams' (2001) finding that learner-learner interaction results in LREs that are relatively short because often learners lack the linguistic information needed to add complexity to their language-related

discussions. In fact, the definition of complex LREs (episodes that are dealt with in more than one turn) does not accurately reflect the much more involved ways in which inter-cultural pairs reflected on language. Example 24 shows a complex LRE between a Japanese student and an international student from Germany.

**Example 24:** (Inter-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 2)

259 Katsu: Yen, yes, yes. And plus- plus take a car from Pa/ri  
260 Malori: Ah  
261 Katsu: And  
262 Malori: Paris... From Paris... Paris.  
263 Katsu: Ah yes. Paris... Paris.  
264 Malori: Sounds like Pa- ris.  
265 Katsu: Paris.  
266 Malori: Yes.  
267 Katsu: In Japan- Japanese... Pa/ri- Pa/ri  
268 Malori: I know, I know. In English, it's Paris.  
269 Katsu: Paris.  
270 Malori: Like Pa- Pa... and then ris=  
271 Katsu: =Ris.  
272 Malori: Yeah, yeah, yeah. That's good, that's good.  
273 Katsu: I didn't=  
274 Malori: =Say it again... say it again.  
275 Katsu: Paris... Paris.  
276 Malori: Paris... Paris.  
277 Katsu: Take car from Paris.  
278 Malori: Yeah, yeah.

The above LRE is reactive, as Malori responds to an incorrect pronunciation of “Paris”; it is a complex LRE that lasts 21 turns; it is also resolved with evidence of successful uptake. Malori addresses the pronunciation with a variety of strategies that include recasts (e.g. turn 262), metalinguistic talk (turn 268), positive feedback (turn 272), and eliciting a correct response from Katsu (turn 274). This LRE is didactic, as there is no communication breakdown; rather

participants take ‘time-out’ from communicating to focus on form (Ellis, 2001). These didactic LREs often led to more complex LREs, presumably because it was a chance for learners to take advantage of the international students’ language expertise.

Contrasting Example 25 with the LRE in Example 25, these Japanese learners deal with a pronunciation episode in a much simpler way.

**Example 25:** (Intra-cultural group, Task 4, Task performance 2)

- 60        Rika:            Lib... lib  
61        Mika:            Librarian.  
62        Rika:            Librarian... what job does librarian do?

Example 25 is a reactive, pronunciation LRE that shows evidence of uptake. However, it is simple, being resolved in one turn. As opposed to didactic LREs, this LRE is conversational as it is initiated when Rika is unable to pronounce “librarian”, and therefore, Mika’s response is necessary to maintain the flow of talk. Such conversational LREs tended to be less complex as they do not require metalinguistic explanations.

Complex LREs were found to be resolved with uptake at a higher rate than simple LREs for both the Inter-cultural group (simple = 30.66%, complex = 39.58%) and the Intra-cultural group (simple = 34.67%, complex = 38.89%), although there is clearly a larger difference for the Inter-cultural group. The higher rate of uptake for complex LREs is in line with previous findings (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001), and reflects Loewen’s (2005) notion that “the complexity or length of negotiation surrounding a linguistic item might influence the saliency of that item, with longer negotiation sequences being potentially more salient” (p. 366). Thus, the generation of complex LREs and the greater potential they have for uptake is another benefit afforded to learners participating in inter-cultural interaction.

### **8.5.2.3 Differences: Cultural and linguistic backgrounds**

International students participating in this study represent a diverse collection of linguistic and cultural backgrounds (10 nationalities represented and seven native languages). As a result, the ‘inter-cultural’ effect must be acknowledged. To this end, it is useful to compare these results with studies that have looked at the effect of a native-speaker interlocutor on learner interaction. Fernández Dobao (2012) provides a particularly useful point of comparison



as features of her research share some similarities to the research reported here. In their study, English learners are paired together to generate learner-learner interaction while English learners and international students were paired to generate learner-NS interaction. Interactions were elicited using meaning-oriented, oral tasks and were 22-28 minutes in duration. The research also took place in a university, EFL context. Important differences also make this comparison appropriate. Fernández Dobao (2012) used Spanish EFL learners, the international students were American and British native-speakers of English, and tasks involved a spot-the-difference activity. Differences between the results, therefore, can be potentially attributed to both cultural and task design factors.

Table 61 compares the LRE production of learner-learner interaction and learner-NS interaction found in Fernández Dobao (2012) to the LRE production of inter-cultural and intra-cultural interaction in this study. For comparison purposes, the mean LRE production value in Table 61 for this study is the average LREs generated per task (i.e., the mean of Task 1 and Task 4).

**Table 61: Comparison of LRE production with Ferdandez Dobao (2012)**

	Mean LRE per dyad	
	Intra-cultural/learner-learner	Inter-cultural/learner-NS
Current study	7.17	15.72
Fernández Dobao (2012)	7.88	11.63

Fernández Dobao (2012) found that learner-NS dyads produced, on average, 47.59% more LREs than learner-learner dyads. In this study, inter-cultural interaction generated 119.39% more LREs than intra-cultural interaction. I contend that the reasons for this could lie partly in the difference between inter-cultural interaction and learner-NS interaction. That is, the high LRE production for the Inter-cultural group is due to not only proficiency differences but differences in cultural and linguistic background.

Similar to Fuji and Mackey (2009) assertions, it can be argued that interlocutors who share an L1 and a similar L2 learning history and culture tend to be less inclined to negotiate for meaning. Cultural motivations, such as avoiding face-threatening linguistic behavior – a characteristic of Japanese communication – could explain why some intra-cultural interactions resulted in the avoidance of language-related discussions. In addition, shared understanding



among Japanese learners may also have diminished the need to resolve miscommunications or clarify the meaning of over-simplistic speech. Example 25 shows how opportunities to enter into an LRE are avoided during an intra-cultural interaction.

**Example 25:** (Intra-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 2)

- |   |       |  |
|---|-------|--|
| 1 | Goro: | My name is Goro.                                 |
| 2 | Aoi:  | Goro, would you like...visit?                    |
| 3 | Goro: | London in British.                               |
| 4 | Aoi:  | I want to visit Copenhagen in Denmark.           |
| 5 | Goro: | What language do- do people speak in Copenhagen? |

Example 25 illustrates how two Japanese learners began their task. There are potentially two LREs that are avoided here. Aoi struggles to ask the question *where would you like to visit?*, and instead asks, “Goro, would you like... visit?” (turn 2). This utterance is perhaps only understood because of a high degree of empathy as a Japanese learner of English on the part of Goro towards Aoi as she is trying to construct her question. Similarly, Goro’s reply, “London in British”, contains a lexical error that may or may not be noticed by Aoi. Assuming it is noticed, Aoi’s choice of not entering into an LRE may be motivated by an avoidance of face-threatening behavior and not just a lack of proficiency or linguistic confidence to resolve such episodes.

The results of this chapter refute other research (Sato, 2007; Sato & Lyster, 2007) that claim interactions with a culturally dissimilar interlocutor can cause Japanese EFL learners’ feelings of discomfort, which inhibit them from entering into negotiations of meaning and form. In this study, inter-cultural interactions led to various kinds of linguistic-related discussions. During inter-cultural interactions, Japanese learners do not have a clear understanding of the rules governing their interlocutors’ linguistic behavior. Unlike learner-NS interaction, the learner may be completely unfamiliar with the culture or even the languages that may influence his/her interlocutor’s speech, which may induce uncertainty (Chen & Starosta, 2005; Spencer-Rodgers & McGovern, 2002). In order to overcome this uncertainty in interaction, the Japanese learner may try to be more explicit in his/her talk. Additionally, in the absence of pressure to adhere to cultural norms, risk-taking behavior may increase. Furthermore, lacking the empathy of a Japanese language-learner, international students may be more direct and demanding in

terms of their feedback. Example 26 shows how learner utterances in inter-cultural interaction that are ambiguous in meaning can lead to LREs.

**Example 26:** (Inter-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 2)

- |    |         |   |
|----|---------|---|
| 5  | Andrew: | Oh... I can call you Kisa? Okay... so let's work on this.                         |
| 6  | Miho:   | Would you like to visit- visit to a city?   |
| 7  | Andrew: | A city?=<br>=City.  |
| 8  | Miho:   |   |
| 9  | Andrew: | Oh... you're asking me right now? Which city... which city would I like to visit? |
| 10 | Miho:   | Yeah... which city  |

Similar to Aoi's non target-like question in Example 25, Miho asks: "Would you like to visit-visit to a city?" (turn 5). Andrew shows initial confusion to her question, which is followed by a reformulation (turn 9). In contrast to Example 25, Example 26 illustrates how the need for explicitness, when linguistic behavior is unpredictable, may spur language-related discussions. Observations such as Example 26 directly contradict the claims from Sato (2007) and Sato and Lyster (2007), who suggest that learner-native speaker interaction is suppressed because native speakers are able to 'guess' a learner's message without the need to modify responses.

The exchange of informational content during inter-cultural interaction may also have enhanced learner engagement and facilitated opportunities to create LREs. The tasks in this study were intended to facilitate an exchange of opinions regarding cultural items. However, during inter-cultural interactions, participants exchanged contrasting views, often at times struggling to understand the deeply held personal perspective of the other. Such episodes of interaction are sometimes referred to as cultural rich points, or "pieces of discourse that indicate that two languacultures or conceptual systems have come into contact" (Belz, 2007 p. 145). Example 27 illustrates how a cultural rich point in inter-cultural interaction can induce an LRE.

**Example 27:** (Inter-cultural group, Task 1, Task performance 2)

- |     |         |   |
|-----|---------|---|
| 286 | Sandra: | You can find food somewhere.                    |
| 287 | Kazu:   | Okay, but why so much food? You don't need.     |
| 288 | Sandra: | Everywhere. So like we would- when we say about |

- Singaporeans, instead of like saying eating to live, we live to eat.
- 289 Kazu: Singaporean... living... eat? Huh? What is=  
 290 Sandra: =Living to eat.... Instead of- like you know you have to eat to stay alive, right?
- 291 Kazu: Yes, eat to alive, but live=  
 292 Sandra: =Live to eat... in Singapore, we stay alive in order to eat.  
 292 Kazu: But is not healthy... eat too much.  
 292 Sandra: We don't care. We love to eat so much, you know?  
 293 Kazu: Wow, interesting... live to... eat.  
 294 Sandra: Live to eat, because we love food so much... so let's see.  
 Let's discuss the two countries.

Example 27 shows an LRE that focuses on the idiomatic phrase “live to eat”. Here the problematic piece of language is discussed within an interactional context where the cultural values of a Singaporean and a Japanese are at odds with each other. The rich point begins with Kazu questioning Sandra’s food-related values and continues until Kazu is satisfied that he understands. Embedded within this rich point is the LRE. Agar (1994, p. 99) writes that when these “vertical cliffs” arise in inter-cultural interaction, participants become intensely involved. Such rich points seemed to be a catalyst for several LREs during inter-cultural interactions in this study, which invariably carry with them a unique value in terms of saliency.

## 8.6. Conclusion

The findings of this portion of the study suggest that inter-cultural contact results in interactions that involve significantly more turns but significantly fewer words-per-turn. Thus, it can be concluded that inter-cultural contact led to increased task engagement or interactivity. Additionally, inter-cultural interactions led to the generation of more LREs overall, more complex LREs, and more LREs that attempted to resolve grammatical issues than interaction arising from intra-cultural contact. Therefore, the inter-cultural condition, according to Swain’s Output Hypothesis, has created a superior condition for learning to occur. The significant increase in LREs that were resolved with uptake and the significant decrease in incorrectly resolved LREs for the inter-cultural group provide further evidence of the more advantageous

interaction-driven language-learning environment this group experienced. I have argued that inter-cultural interactions led to these benefits because of not only proficiency differences between interlocutors, as previous studies have shown, but because of differences in cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The next chapter will now attempt to relate these interactional features to self-reported learning outcomes.

## Chapter 9: Self-reported learning

### 9.1. Introduction

This final results chapter presents and discusses the results for RQ7 and RQ8. While the previous chapter adopted a process-oriented approach in that it identified observed potential learning opportunities in interaction (i.e. LREs), this chapter takes a process-product approach by looking at perceived learning outcomes (i.e., self-reported claims of learning) and how those outcomes relate to interaction. Thus, the primary objective of this portion of the research is to determine whether self-reported learning arising from inter-cultural interaction is reported more frequently than that reported during intra-cultural interaction. The secondary objective is to determine what kind of interaction leads to perceived language learning in each group. Specifically, this chapter attempts to answer the following research questions:

- RQ7. Does inter-cultural contact affect what learners report having learned during the repeated performance of tasks?
- RQ8. How does inter-cultural contact affect the relationship between the occurrence of language-related episodes and what learners report learning?

This chapter will start with a brief review of self-reported learning as a measurement of perceived learning outcomes of task interaction. As the research questions for this chapter pertain to data collected from the utilization of a self-reported learning chart, the method section will describe in detail the purpose and procedures of this instrument. The results will show quantitatively how self-reported language learning is related to language-related episodes. Finally, the discussion will make use of excerpts from interactions to explain the connection between interaction and perceived language learning in inter-cultural and intra-cultural interaction.

#### 9.1.1. Self-reported learning charts in research

This chapter attempts to investigate the relationship between task interaction and what learners reported learning. A reported claim of learning involves a learner noticing a linguistic item in the input and recalling it at a later time. The requirement of being able to ‘notice’ an item, which is new, is, according to the Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990, 2001), the basis

for learning to take place. Following the methodological approach of previous studies (e.g. Ellis, 1995; Palmeira, 1995; Slimani, 1989), data were collected through the administration of a self-reported learning chart, which involved learners reporting language they had learned after completing each task.

Reiterating the main points of Chapter 4, section 4.3.3.1., self-reported learning charts – or variations on them – have resulted in valuable insights into the perception of what has been learned in a language lesson and how reported or ‘claimed’ items relate to interaction. Relevant to this chapter are the following findings:

- Although claims of learning have been observed to come from episodes of interaction that have not been topicalized, learners are more likely to claim items that have been the focus of classroom interaction than items that have not (Slimani, 1989, 1991).
- Learners are more likely to report learning a linguistic item that has been topicalized during learner-learner interaction than items that have been topicalized by the teacher (Slimani, 1989, 1991).
- Learners tend to report learning lexical rather than grammatical items (Nabei, 2012a; Palmeira, 1995; Slimani, 1989, 1991).
- Learners find it difficult to report on how and when they learned an item (Nabei, 2012b).
- Self-reported learning is a conservative measure of learning in that learners tend to underreport what they have learned (Ellis, 1995)
- Self-reported learning is a reliable measure of learning in the sense that learners tend to be sincere in their reporting (Eckerth, 2006; Ellis, 1995).

Previous studies employing self-reported learning charts have done so in the context of teacher-fronted classes in which there was a clear instructional focus. The research context differs in the current study: the instrument was used to measure *incidental* learning from student-student task interaction. Claims of learning from inter-cultural interaction and intra-cultural interaction were then compared and traced back to LREs observed in the transcripts.

## **9.2. Method**

The research design follows the outline given in the previous results chapters. However, data collected for this portion of the research was confined to the treatment stage; that is, learners reported what they had learned only after the repeated performance of tasks (Task performance 2).

### **9.2.1. Participants**

To investigate RQ7, data from all Japanese participants in the Inter-cultural group (N = 21) and the Intra-cultural group (N = 21) were used for all repeated tasks. As described in Chapter 8, there were no absences during this phase of the study. However, in order to relate the data to LREs (from Chapter 8), only Task 1 and Task 4 data from pairs in the Inter- (N = 18) and Intra-cultural group (N = 18) were used to investigate RQ8.

### **9.2.2. Instrument**

The sole research instrument used to investigate self-reported learning was a self-reported learning chart, adapted from Slimani's (1989) uptake recall chart. However, in addition to linguistic categories (e.g. words or phrases, grammar etc.), two additional categories were added: "foreign culture" learning and "Japanese culture" learning. The purpose of the 'language' learning portion of the self-reported chart was to obtain a measure of what new linguistic information learners had noticed and remembered during task interaction, and what familiar (not new) linguistic information had been noticed and consolidated during task interaction. The purpose of the 'culture' learning portion of the chart was to examine any inter-cultural learning that took place. Drawing on Byram's (1997) model of inter-cultural competence, each reported item in this section will constitute a discrete piece of "relational knowledge" that the learner has become aware of. Inter-cultural learning was considered an important measure as both groups would have an opportunity to acquire cultural knowledge, either through the task content or, in the case of inter-cultural interaction, through contact with speakers from other cultures.

The self-reported learning chart was administered to each learner immediately after the completion of each task in Task performance 2. Prior to the start of the study, the researcher conducted a workshop with the participants which trained students on how to fill out the self-

reported learning chart. The researcher instructed learners to clear away all notes made during the task from their desks while completing the charts. The following questions elicited learners' responses to the reported learning chart:

1. What have you learned during this task that is completely new? このタスクを行っている際に新たに学んだ事はなんですか。
2. What did you know before but have had confirmed during this task? 以前から知っていたが、このタスクを行う事でより理解が深まり使えるようになった事はなんですか。

While the first question elicited learned information that was completely new to the learner, the second question elicited information that might have been seen before but knowledge of items was consolidated during the tasks. Students entered information into the following linguistic categories:

- Grammar /文法
- Words or phrases /語彙又はフレーズ
- Spelling /綴り
- Pronunciation /句読点の使い方
- Other /その他

In addition, the following non-linguistic categories were provided in order to elicit cultural information that learners perceived learning.

- Foreign culture /異文化／外国の文化
- Japanese culture /日本の文化

### 9.3. Analysis

The analysis looked at self-reported items that were “completely new” and “seen before” as separate categories. Claimed items were traced back to the relevant transcript in order to examine what happened in the interaction where the items appeared.



### 9.3.1. Comparisons of self-reported learning

To answer RQ7, the analysis involved tabulating the number of claimed items for the categories of “completely new” and “seen before.” It was decided that language learning and culture learning would be analyzed separately as these are distinct types of learning. For both language and culture learning, the intention was to find the difference in the means of self-reported items between the Inter-cultural group and the Intra-cultural group.

After an initial inspection of the language portion of the self-reported learning charts, it was discovered that some learners interpreted the linguistic categories of “grammar”, “words and phrases”, “spelling”, “pronunciation”, and “other” differently than other learners. In addition, although learners’ self-reported data were not detailed enough in most cases to make definitive conclusions about learners’ intentions, there was sufficient evidence to suggest that some learners did not accurately categorize the language they claimed to have learned. Table 62 illustrates some instances when claimed language items were deemed incorrectly categorized.

**Table 62: Incorrect categorization of language items**

Claimed language items	Categorization by learner
Love achievement means to have a boyfriend	Grammar
Done/have done	Words or phrases
L and R is difficult to speak	Spelling
Pudding is delicious food	Other
the	Pronunciation
Stenographer = person takes notes	Spelling

Similar to Nabei’s (2012b) finding, participants in this study had problems when pushed to describe the nature of claimed items. In this case, learners failed to accurately categorize the linguistic focus of reported items. Therefore, it was felt that conducting an analysis on separate linguistic categories might result in misleading conclusions about what kind of language these learners claimed to have learned. Thus, it was decided to merge all claimed items into a single category irrespective of learners’ categorization. This was not the case for the culture learning portion of the chart. Learners appeared to be able to distinguish between Japanese and foreign culture; therefore, these categories were kept.

A second problem that emerged in the initial analysis is that learners appeared to have difficulties categorizing claimed items into “completely new” and “seen before”. There were a total of 22 instances in which a learner reported a learned language item as being both “completely new” and “seen before”. Furthermore, there were duplicates of reported culture learning in six charts. As these categories were intended to be mutually exclusive, it would be again misleading to analyze the data of these two types of learning separately. To resolve this complication, duplicates were deleted and the categories of “completely new” and “seen before” were merged together. The dependent variables for this stage in the analysis were:

- *Linguistic items* – the total number of linguistic items reported for each learner.
- *Culture items* – the total number of Japanese cultural items reported and (2) the total number of foreign cultural items reported for each learner.

The total number of items was tabulated over all five tasks for each learner. The effect of inter-cultural contact on self-reported language learning was determined by conducting a one-way ANOVA with reported language items for the five tasks as the dependent variable and treatment condition as the between-groups factor (Inter-cultural, Intra-cultural).

To determine whether the effect of inter-cultural contact on reported culture learning, a one-way ANOVA was conducted on each dependent variable (Japanese cultural items, foreign cultural items) to determine the between-subjects effects.

### **9.3.2. Relating self-reported learning to interaction**

To investigate the relationship between self-reported language learning and interaction, claimed linguistic items were traced back and identified in the transcripts. Because transcripts were made only for Task 1 and Task 4, only claimed items for these two tasks were used.

The linguistic items each learner claimed to have learned were compared with his/her respective transcript and coded according to how the item emerged in interaction. After an initial analysis, it was found that claimed items were either 1) not identified in the transcripts, 2) identified in the transcripts but were not associated with any LRE (i.e., not topicalized by either student), or 3) identified in the transcripts and were the focus of at least one LRE (i.e., topicalized). A more detailed explanation of each category follows.

### *Unidentified*

Unidentified claims refers to items that were claimed to have been learned but could not be identified in the transcript. Because transcripts were made for the first 20 minutes of interaction, it was possible that claimed items could not be found in the transcripts but occurred in the interaction after the 20-minute mark. Therefore, the recordings during this extended period were examined in an effort to locate unidentified claims. No unidentified items were found by examining the interactions during this extended period.

### *Identified without LREs*

Identified without LREs relates to claimed items that appear in the task interaction but are not topicalized by way of an LRE. For example, when Emi reported learning the item “meaning of cartoon”, the only occurrence in her interaction was as follows:

**Example 1:** Identified without LRE: “meaning of cartoon” (Intra-cultural group, Task 4)

- |    |        |  |
|----|--------|--|
| 10 | Emi:   | And animation, cultural, animation director... and ...<br>animation museum director. |
| 11 | Akira: | Okay, what are his job duties?   |
| 12 | Emi:   | He make a anime and movie. He write a... <u>cartoon</u> . He write<br>the words for  |

Learners’ reports were not detailed enough to give any indication of how these items were learned. In Example 1, Emi clearly did not learn this through spoken interaction with her interlocutor. In these cases, claimed items could have been generated from written feedback or a dictionary search. It is also possible that learners may have written down items they had learned before the task as part of their preparation – although this would be contrary to what they were instructed to do.

### *Identified with LREs*

Identified with LREs relates to an item that is identified in the transcript and is the focus of one or more LREs. For example, a learner from the Inter-cultural group reported the

linguistic item “sangria”. Upon inspection of the corresponding transcript, the item was identified as follows:

**Example 2:** Identified with LRE: “sangria” (Inter-cultural group 1, Task 1)

- 171 Alais: It seems that they have good- good food coming from Africa, because there are many black people living there. So, for example, do you know about Sangria?
- 172 Shuji: Sangria?
- 173 Alais: Sangria is a kind of alcohol.
- 174 Shuji: Alcohol, ah I don’t know.
- 175 Alais: Some kind of- you know- you know there are lots of fruits and lots of sugar, and you have alcohol inside.
- 176 Shuji: [Sweet? ]
- 177 Alais: [And I think-] yeah, it’s sweet.
- 178 Shuji: It seems it is a specialty there.
- 179 Alais: So sangria, it’s=
- 180 Shuji: =Spell please.
- 181 Alais: S A N G R I A... and the food there is roasted fish. Roasted fish.

The item “sangria” is identified as the focus of two overlapping LREs as seen in Example 2. The first LRE begins at turn 171 and ends at turn 177 and was classified as being lexical, preemptive, complex, and resolved without uptake. This is immediately followed by a second LRE, which is classified as spelling, reactive, simple, and resolved without uptake.

The majority of reported items that were coded as “identified with LREs” were the focus of a single LRE; however, as in Example 2, there were several items that were the focus of two or more LREs. In addition, some learners reported learning an item twice, which was presumed to be a valid claim, as these learners may have noticed more than one linguistic feature related to the same item. An instance of an LRE that spawned multiple claimed items is shown in Example 3.

**Example 3:** Identified with LRE: “meaning of bubble tea” and “spelling bubble” (Inter-cultural group, Task 1)

- 317 Johan: Bubble Tea.
- 318 Kayo: Bubble Tea?
- 319 Johan: Yes.
- 320 Kayo: Oh
- 321 Johan: That’s what- it’s from Taipei.
- 322 Kayo: Oh, I don’t know.
- 323 Johan: It’s invented in nineteen eighties.
- 324 Kayo: Nineteen eighties.
- 325 Johan: Hm
- 326 Kayo: Drink? ... Bubble Tea?
- 327 Johan: Yeah, Bubble Tea... here
- 328 Kayo: Okay.
- 329 Johan: It’s so cool, right?
- 330 Kayo: Yeah.
- 331 Johan: You love it?
- 332 Kayo: Yes.
- 333 Johan: Bubble Tea. So let’s go to Taipei and drink Bubble Tea.
- 334 Kayo: It’s tapioca.
- 335 Johan: Well Tapioca I guess is one of the ingredients they put into  
the=
- 336 Kayo: =Oh
- 337 Johan: Bubble Tea... the balls, right?
- 338 Kayo: Oh
- 339 Johan: That’s the tapioca, right?
- 340 Kayo: Un.
- 341 Johan: Yeah.
- 342 Kayo: Bubble Tea=
- 343 Johan: =So it’s tea with tapioca is bubble tea.
- 344 Kayo: Okay... bubble tea is great drink.

Example 3 presents a complex LRE that focuses on the meaning of the lexical item “bubble tea.” This episode is the only portion of the transcript that contained either the item “bubble tea” or “bubble.” However, Kayo, when she reported the items, claimed that she had learned both “meaning of bubble tea” and “spell of bubble.” Clearly, this LRE is responsible for helping Kayo notice and remember the meaning “bubble tea”, but in the transcript there is no explicit episode of interaction where the spelling of bubble is discussed. Nevertheless, it was assumed that this LRE caused her to focus on not only its meaning but also its spelling (for example, Johan may have written the word down during turn 327). Therefore, this LRE was credited as causing the perceived learning of two items. Similar occasions were found in both groups where multiple reported items were associated with one LRE.

Once the items were coded, further analysis focused on items that occurred in LREs (i.e. items *identified with LREs*). In the case that an LRE contributed to multiple claims, that LRE was only included in the analysis once. Thus, in answering RQ8, the dependent variable was:

*Reported LREs* –LREs that contribute to at least one claimed linguistic item

A one-way, between groups ANOVA was conducted on ‘reported’ LREs used in claims to test for the effect of group (Inter-cultural, Intra-cultural). The linguistic focus, type, complexity, and resolution of reported LREs were then tabulated for each group. Pearson’s chi-squared tests were conducted to investigate if there was a significant difference in terms of distribution for each category of reported LREs between groups. Finally, the quantity of reported LREs were compared to the total number of LREs generated in interaction in order to determine the success rate of each kind of LRE that led to a claim in learning.

## **9.4. Results**

### **9.4.3. Between-group comparisons of self-reported language learning**

The frequency of claimed linguistic items was tabulated for each task. Table 63 shows the descriptive statistics for claimed items.

**Table 63: Descriptive statistics for self-reported learning (linguistic items)**

Linguistic items	Inter-cultural group ( $N = 21$ )			Intra-cultural group ( $N = 21$ )		
	Total	$M$	$SD$	Total	$M$	$SD$
Task 1	132	6.29	3.91	111	5.29	2.37
Task 2	102	4.86	3.31	111	5.29	3.26
Task 3	96	4.57	3.76	89	4.57	3.27
Task 4	97	4.61	3.29	77	4.61	3.02
Task 5	89	4.24	3.01	79	4.24	3.41
Total	516	24.57	7.76	467	22.24	6.91

Table 65 shows that for every task – except for Task 2 – learners in the Inter-cultural group reported more learned linguistic items than did learners in the Intra-cultural group. However, a one-way ANOVA found no significant difference between the groups,  $F(1,40) = .286, p = .595, d = .325$ . The Box M test of homogeneity of the covariance matrix was met (i.e.,  $p > .001$ ). In both groups, the pattern that emerges from the data is that with each subsequent task, learners tended to report fewer linguistic items.

#### 9.4.3. Between-group comparisons of self-reported culture learning

The frequency of claimed culture items was tabulated for each task. Table 64 shows the descriptive statistics for claimed items.

**Table 64: Descriptive statistics for self-reported learning (culture items)**

Item type	Inter-cultural group ( $N = 21$ )			Intra-cultural group ( $N = 21$ )		
	Total	$M$	$SD$	Total	$M$	$SD$
<i>Foreign culture</i>						
Task 1	42	2.00	1.51	27	1.29	1.19
Task 2	18	.86	.96	15	.71	1.01
Task 3	22	1.05	1.02	15	.71	.90
Task 4	19	.90	.94	6	.88	.97
Task 5	30	1.43	1.33	16	.76	.83
Foreign total	131	6.24	2.94	79	3.76	2.21
<i>Japanese culture</i>						
Task 1	28	1.33	1.15	12	.57	.81
Task 2	14	.67	.97	10	.48	.74
Task 3	10	.48	.81	7	.33	.66
Task 4	19	.43	.81	10	.48	.81
Task 5	18	.86	.96	14	.67	.86
Japanese total	89	4.24	2.12	53	2.52	1.74
Culture total	220	10.48	3.62	132	6.28	2.81

Table 64 reveals that the Inter-cultural group reported more Japanese culture items and more foreign culture items than the Intra-cultural group in total and for every task. A one-way ANOVA was performed on each dependent variable (Japanese culture, foreign culture) to test for the effect of the treatment condition on the number of claims. The Box's M test of homogeneity of covariance matrices was not significant (i.e.,  $p > .001$ ) for both data sets. Table 65 shows the results for the test of between-subjects effects for each dependent variable.

**Table 65: Univariate test of between-subjects effects (cultural items)**

Variable	$F$	$df$	Sig.	Post-Hoc
Foreign culture	4.252	1	.046	Inter. > Intra.
Japanese culture	1.226	1	.275	

Inter- = Inter-cultural group; Intra- = Intra-cultural group



Table 66 shows that learners in the Inter-cultural group claimed significantly more foreign culture items than the Intra-cultural group,  $F(1,40) = 4.252, p = .046, d = .977$ . The difference of claimed Japanese culture items between the two groups was not significant.

#### 9.4.4. Relationship between self-reported linguistic items and LREs

Claimed linguistic items were traced back and identified in the transcripts of Task 1 and Task 4 interactions. Table 66 shows the frequency of claimed items, the frequency of claimed items that were the focus of an LRE (identified with LREs), the frequency of items that appeared in the transcript but were not the focus of an LRE (identified without LREs), and the frequency of items that did not appear in the transcripts (unidentified).

**Table 66: Self-reported items associated with LREs**

Self-reported items	Inter-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)		Intra-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)	
	Task 1	Task 4	Task 1	Task 4
Identified with LREs	49	53	26	24
Identified without LREs	51	20	52	37
Unidentified	7	4	10	3
Total items for tasks	107	77	88	64
Total items	184		152	

The results presented in Table 66 reveal that for the Inter-cultural group, 102 reported items were associated with LREs (55.43%) while for the Intra-cultural group, 50 reported items were associated with LREs (32.98%). For both groups, there were a higher percentage of claimed items associated with LREs for Task 4 (Inter-cultural group = 68.88%, Intra-cultural group = 37.50%) than Task 1 (Inter-cultural group = 45.79, Intra-cultural group = 29.55%). In addition, there were a lower percentage of claimed items that could not be identified in Task 4 transcripts (Inter-cultural group = 5.19%, Intra-cultural group = 4.69%) than Task 1 transcripts (Inter-cultural group = 6.54%, Intra-cultural group = 11.36%).

For both groups, there were some instances in which one reported item could be traced to multiple LREs. Conversely, there were instances in which multiple reported items for one

learner could be traced to the same LRE. Therefore, as Table 67 shows, there is a slight discrepancy between the total number of claimed items identified with LREs and the total number of distinct LREs that contributed to claimed items.

**Table 67: LREs involved in self-reported learning**

	Inter-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)	Intra-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)
Identified items with LREs	102	50
Reported LREs	107	56
Total available LREs to learners	562	258

For the Inter-cultural group, 19.04% of total LREs identified in the transcripts resulted in reported claims of learning. Similarly, 21.71% of total LREs available to learners in the Intra-cultural group contributed to claims of language learning. In other words, there was approximately a 20% chance that any LRE occurring in interaction led to a learner’s claim of learning.

The mean number of reported LREs was 5.94 (*SD* = 3.92) for the Inter-cultural group and 3.11 (*SD* = 2.19) for the Intra-cultural group. A one-way, between groups ANOVA conducted on reported LREs revealed that significantly more LREs for the Inter-cultural group contributed to claimed items than LREs in the Intra-cultural group,  $F(1,34) = 7.168, p = .011, d = .913$ .

#### **9.4.4.1. Self-reported learning and LRE (linguistic focus)**

As mentioned previously, learners classified their reported claims in an unreliable manner. This section, therefore, considers the category of linguistic focus of LREs (as per Chapter 9’s categorization of LREs) that led to claims, which may be different than the linguistic focus of learners’ claims as perceived by learners themselves. The descriptive statistics for LREs that were identified as related to learners’ claimed items (i.e. ‘reported’ LREs) are shown in Table 68.

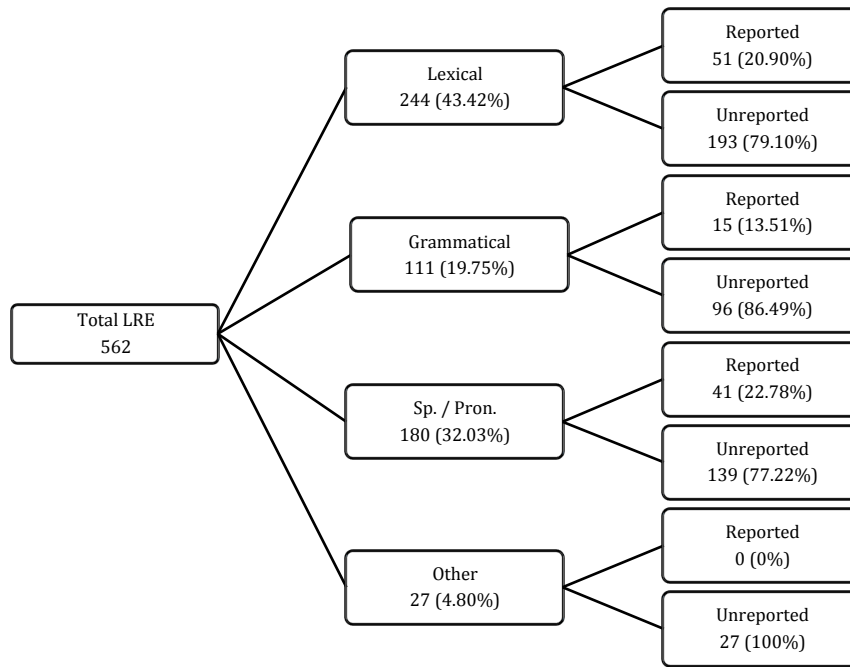
**Table 68: Descriptive statistics for reported LREs**

Reported LREs	Inter-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)				Intra-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)			
	Total	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%	Total	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%
Lexical	51	2.83	1.79	47.66	26	1.44	1.30	46.42
Grammatical	15	.83	1.58	14.02	2	.11	.32	3.57
Sp./Pron.	41	2.28	1.67	38.31	27	1.50	1.25	48.21
Other	0	0	0	0	1	.06	.24	1.79
Total	107	5.94	3.92	100	56	3.11	2.19	100

Pearson's Chi-squared tests were performed to compare the distribution of reported LREs between groups. The only significant difference found was for grammatical LREs ( $\chi^2 = 4.295$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .038$ ,  $d = .401$ ), indicating that grammatical LREs that contained claimed items were more frequent in the Inter-cultural group than the Intra-cultural group.

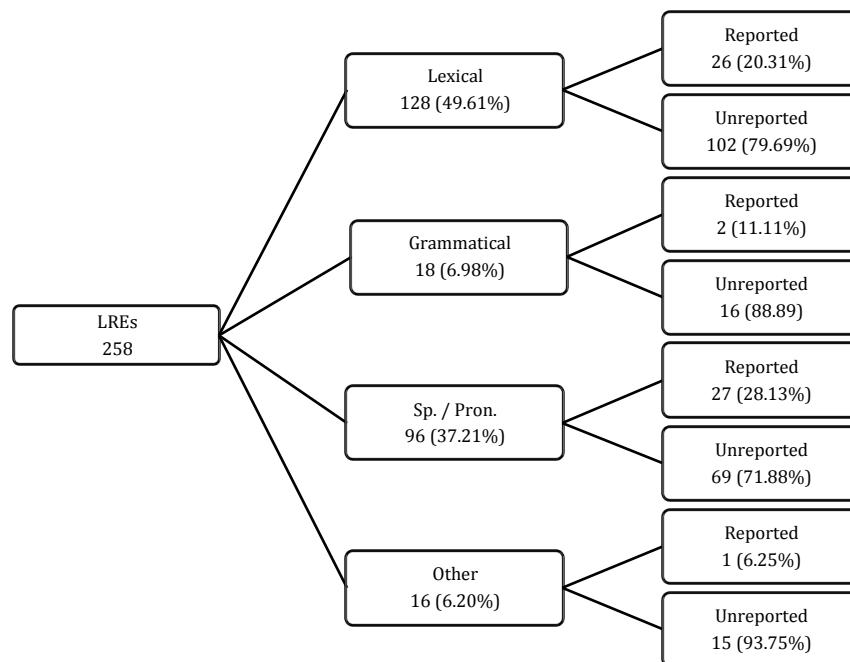
Figure 13 and Figure 14 show the quantity of LREs generated in each category of linguistic focus and the success rate of each in producing claimed items for each group.

**Figure 13: Relationship between LREs and self-reported learning (linguistic focus) for the Inter-cultural group**



Sp./Pron. = Spelling and pronunciation

**Figure 14: Relationship between LREs and self-reported learning (linguistic focus) for the Intra-cultural Group**



Sp./Pron. = Spelling and pronunciation

As the figures above show, spelling and pronunciation LREs were the most frequently identified LRE that contributed to reported learning for learners involved in both inter-cultural (22.78%) and intra-cultural interactions (28.13%). Learners in both the Inter-cultural and Intra-cultural group benefited from lexical LREs in almost equal proportions (20.90% and 20.31% respectively), whereas LREs that focused on grammatical form were slightly more likely to result in claimed items for the Inter-cultural group (13.51%) than the Intra-cultural group (11.11%). There was only one ‘other’ LRE (dealing with the issue of converting numerals into spoken English) that contributed to a claim, which was reported by a learner in the Inter-cultural group.

#### 9.4.4.2. Self-reported learning and LRE (type)

LREs that contributed to reported learning were tabulated based on type (reactive and preemptive). The descriptive statistics for reported LREs of each type are shown in Table 69.

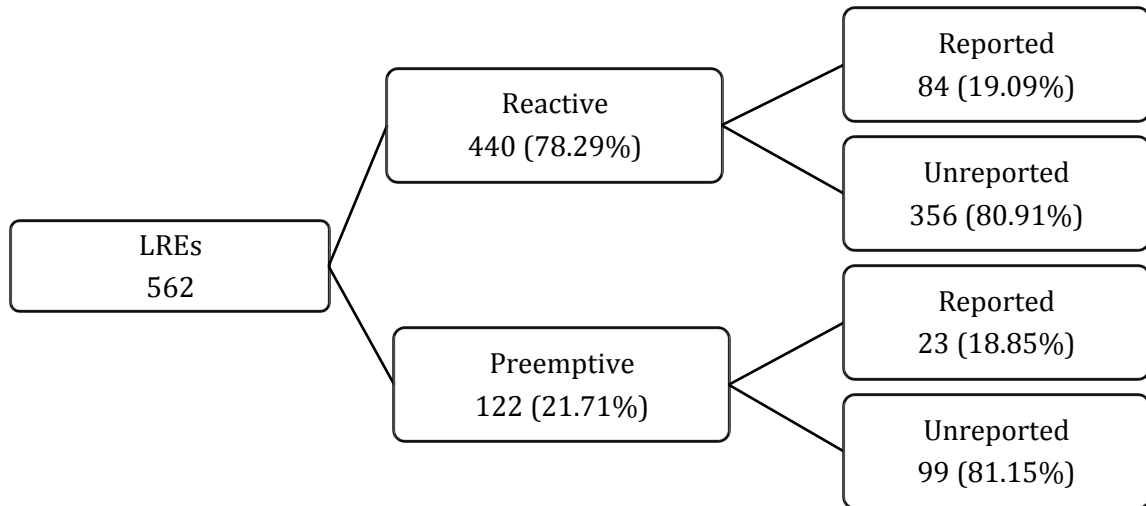
**Table 69: Descriptive statistics for reported LREs (type)**

Reported LREs	Inter-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)				Intra-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)			
	Total	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%	Total	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%
Reactive	84	4.67	.70	78.50	43	2.39	.70	76.79
Preemptive	23	1.28	.22	21.50	13	.72	.22	23.21
Total	107	5.94	3.92	100	56	3.11	2.19	100

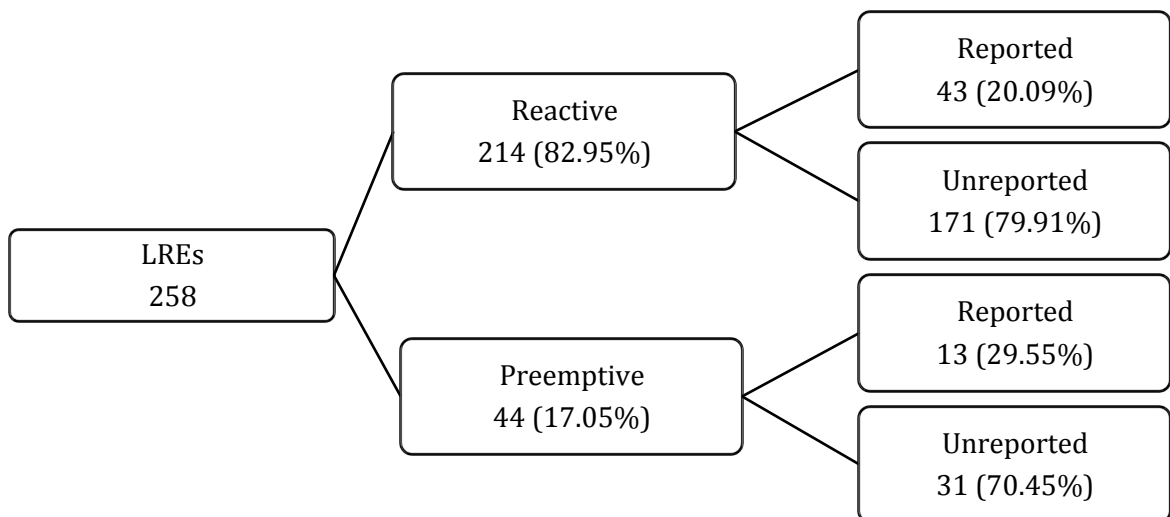
A Pearson’s Chi-squared test was performed to compare distribution of LRE types between groups. There were no significant differences between the two groups ( $\chi^2 = .063$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .802$ ,  $d = .122$ ), indicating that preemptive and reactive LREs contributed to claims in similar proportions.

Figures 15 and 16 relate these results to the quantity of LREs generated and available for learners in both groups.

**Figure 15: Relationship between LREs and self-reported learning (type) for the Inter-cultural group**



**Figure 16: Relationship between LREs and self-reported learning (type) for the Intra-cultural group**



As depicted in Figure 15, learners who experienced inter-cultural contact benefited from the reactive and preemptive LREs in roughly equal proportions (19.09% and 18.85% respectively).

Thus, for the Inter-cultural group, LRE type has no affect on whether or not a topicalized item will be claimed by a learner. In contrast, Figure 16 shows that claimed items from learners in the Intra-cultural group were considerably more likely to be a result of a preemptive LRE (29.55%) than a reactive one (20.09%). In other words, a preemptive topicalization of a language issue – either in anticipation of a problem or a query about form – resulted in a greater chance of being claimed by learners than reactive topicalization but only in the Intra-cultural group.

#### 9.4.4.3. Self-reported learning and LRE (complexity)

LREs that contributed to reported learning were tabulated based on complexity (simple and complex). The descriptive statistics for reported LREs are shown in Table 70.

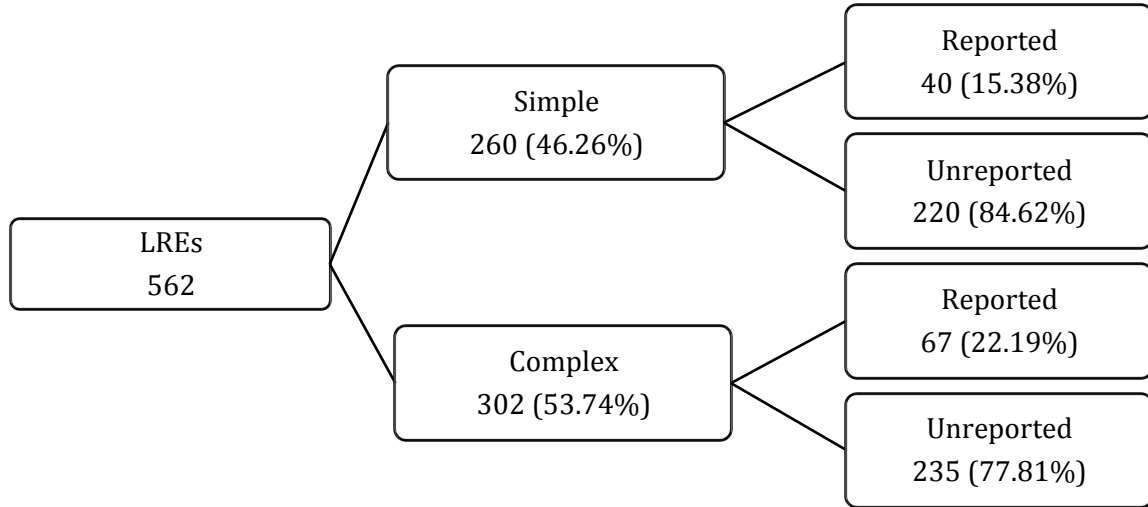
**Table 70: Descriptive statistics for reported language learning (complexity)**

Reported LREs	Inter-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)				Inter-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)			
	Total	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%	Total	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%
Simple	40	2.22	2.21	37.38	28	1.56	1.42	50.00
Complex	67	3.72	2.67	62.62	28	1.56	1.42	50.00
Total	107	5.94	3.92	100	56	3.11	2.19	100

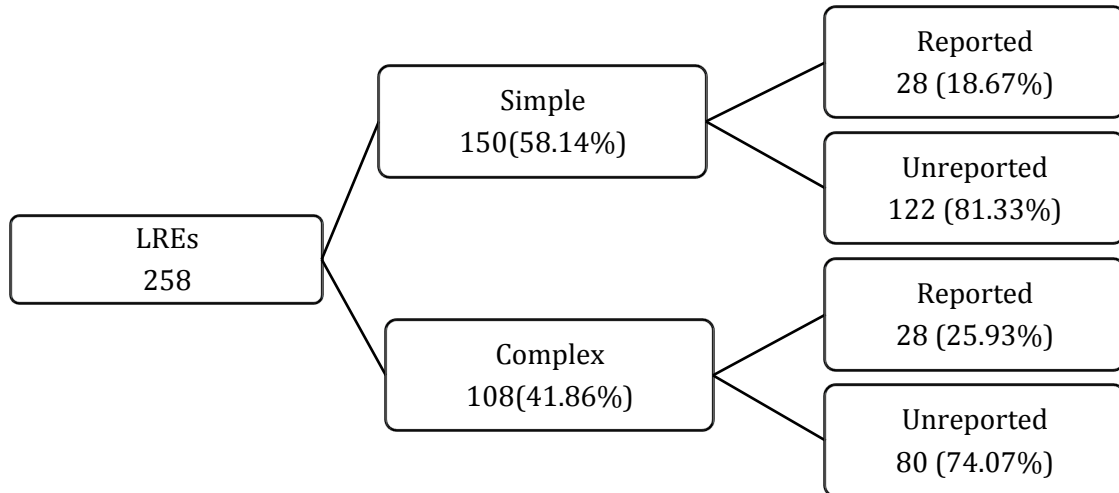
A Pearson’s Chi-squared test was performed to compare the distribution of LRE complexity between groups. There were no significant differences between groups ( $\chi^2 = 2.407$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .121$ ,  $d = .245$ ), indicating that simple and complex LREs contribute to claims in similar proportions.

Figures 17 and 18 relate these results to the total LREs generated and available for learners in both groups.

**Figure 17: Relationship between LREs and self-reported learning (complexity) for the Inter-cultural group**



**Figure 18: Relationship between LREs and self-reported learning (complexity) for the Intra-cultural group**



As seen in Figures 17 and 18, although the two groups differ in terms of the distribution of complex and simple LREs produced in interaction, the relationship between complex LREs and claimed items is strong for both groups. The higher rate of reported learning from items



emerging from complex LREs for the Inter-cultural (22.19%) and Intra-cultural group (25.93%) indicates that LREs consisting of more turns leads to a greater chance of being reported.

#### 9.4.4.4. Reported language and LRE (resolution)

LREs that contributed to reported learning were tabulated based on resolution. The descriptive statistics for reported LREs are shown in Table 71.

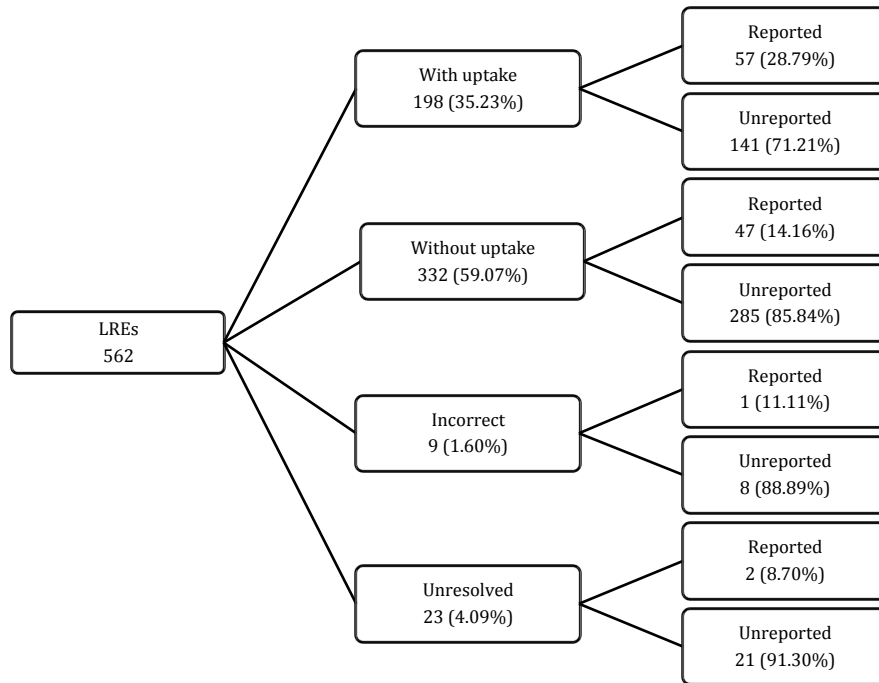
**Table 71: Descriptive statistics for reported LREs (resolution)**

Reported LREs	Inter-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)				Intra-cultural group ( <i>N</i> = 18)			
	Total	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%	Total	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	%
With uptake	57	3.17	2.18	53.27	25	1.39	1.38	44.64
Without uptake	47	2.61	2.40	43.93	25	1.39	1.65	44.64
Incorrect	1	.06	.24	.93	5	.28	.46	8.92
Unresolved	2	.11	.32	1.87	1	.06	.24	1.79
Total	107	5.94	3.92	100	56	3.11	2.19	100

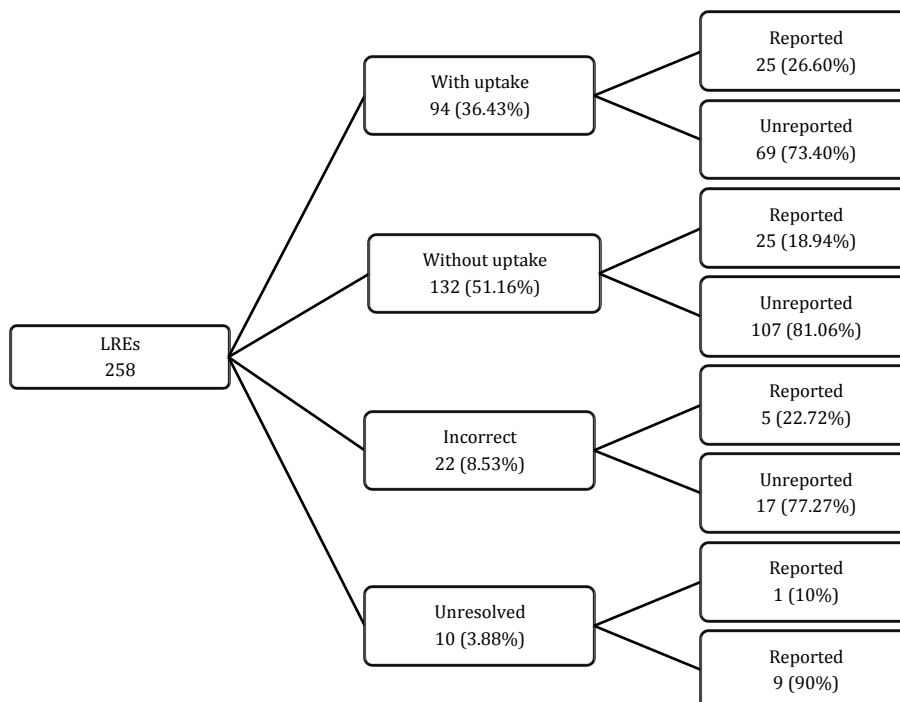
A Pearson's Chi-squared test was performed on each category of resolution to determine if there are any associations between groups. The only significant difference found was for the LREs that were resolved incorrectly. A significantly higher percentage of reported LREs were resolved incorrectly for the Intra-cultural group than for the Inter-cultural group ( $\chi^2 = 6.626$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .01$ ,  $d = .412$ ). All other reported LREs related to claims occurred in equal proportions.

Figures 19 and 20 relate these results to the total LREs generated and available for learners in both groups.

**Figure 19: Relationship between LREs and self-reported learning (resolution) for the Inter-cultural group**



**Figure 20: Relationship between LREs and self-reported learning (resolution) for the Intra-cultural group**



Figures 19 and 20 show the relationship between LRE resolution and items that were claimed by learners in both groups. LREs that were resolved with uptake had the highest chance of being reported as learned for both the Inter-cultural (28.79%) and the Intra-cultural group (26.60%), which suggests that learners who demonstrate uptake through the production of a correct form have a greater chance of claiming they have learned the item. Though unresolved LREs resulted in the lowest rate of claim for both groups, there was a large difference in the rate of claims for incorrectly resolved LREs. In fact, compared to learners in the Inter-cultural group, incorrectly resolved LREs generated during Intra-cultural group interactions led to twice as many claims.

#### **9.4.5. Results summary**

To summarize, learners reported linguistic and cultural items that they claimed to have learned during the repeated performance of tasks by completing a self-reported learning chart. The total claimed items for the categories of language and culture were tabulated and means for each group were compared. In order to relate claimed linguistic items to interaction, each reported item was traced to where it emerged in the transcripts of Task 1 and Task 4. LREs that contributed to each learner's claim of learning (reported LREs) were identified and tabulated according to linguistic focus, type, complexity, and resolution.

##### **9.4.5.1. Self-reported learning**

Learners in each group reported the most linguistic items for Task 1 with progressively fewer items being reported for each subsequent task. A one-way, between groups ANOVA revealed that there was no significant difference between groups for reported learning of linguistic items ( $p = .595$ ,  $d = .325$ ). In other words, the inter-cultural treatment had no significant effect on the quantity of reported items learners claimed to have learned.

In terms of culture learning, Task 1 resulted in the most claimed items for both groups. Two one-way, between-group ANOVAs were conducted on each dependent variable (foreign culture, Japanese culture), which revealed a significant difference for foreign culture items only ( $p = .046$ ,  $d = .977$ ). This result suggests that inter-cultural interaction leads to more perceived learning of foreign culture than intra-cultural interaction.

#### 9.4.5.2. Relating claims of learning to interaction

Claimed linguistic items were traced back and identified in the transcripts. Most claimed items were identified as occurring in the transcripts for both the Inter-cultural (93.46%) and Intra-cultural group (88.64%). Whereas just over half of all claimed items were the focus of LREs for the Inter-cultural group (55.43%), only a third of claimed items could be traced back to LREs for the Intra-cultural group (32.98%) with a higher percentage of claims associated with LREs for Task 4 than Task 1. Analyzing the data from the perspective of the number of distinct LREs that contributed to one or more claimed items, only 19.04% of total LREs identified in the transcripts resulted in claims for the Inter-cultural group and 21.71% of total LREs were related to claims for the Intra-cultural group.

Examining the relationship between the linguistic focus of LREs and reported language learning, more lexical LREs contributed to reported learning overall. However, spelling and pronunciation LREs were more successful than other linguistic LRE categories in generating claimed items for both groups. Pearson's Chi-squared tests revealed that there were a significantly higher percentage of grammatical LREs that contributed to claimed items occurring in inter-cultural interactions than in intra-cultural interactions. Nevertheless, looking at reported grammatical LREs as a percentage of total LREs generated, both groups converted their grammatical LREs into claimed learning at a similar rate. In regards to LRE type, claimed learning was dominated by reactive LREs for both groups. Although there was no significant association for LRE type between the groups, the Intra-cultural group converted a greater percentage of preemptive LREs into claimed items (29.55%) than the Inter-cultural group (18.85%). For LRE complexity, there were no distributional differences between the groups. However, complex LREs contributed to claimed learning at a much higher rate than simple LREs. Finally, in regards to the resolution of LREs, for both groups, items addressed in LREs that were resolved with uptake during interactions were the most likely to be reported as being learned. In contrast, items focused on in LREs that were incorrectly resolved were reported as being learned in a proportionately greater quantity for the Intra-cultural group than the Inter-cultural group 1 ( $p = .01$ ,  $d = .412$ ) and also were claimed at a much higher rate for the Intra-cultural group (22.72%) than the Inter-cultural group (11.11%).

## **9.5. Discussion**

### **9.5.1. Self-reported language learning**

RQ7 asked if inter-cultural contact affected what learners report learning during the repeated performance of tasks. This portion of the research considered two types of learning: culture and language.

In regards to language learning, there were no significant differences in the mean number of linguistic items reported by learners in the two groups. This was an unexpected result as Chapter 8 showed that inter-cultural interaction led to many more episodes in which learners focused on form, which presumably led these learners to ‘notice’ new language forms. This finding is contrary to the Noticing Hypothesis, which predicts that learners who interact in ways that promote more noticing of new language would indeed learn more language items.

These results also revealed some concerns about how accurately learners completed the language portion of their uptake charts. Firstly, 6.54% (Inter-cultural group) and 11.36% (Intra-cultural group) of all linguistic items claimed to be learned by learners could not be traced back to any point in the transcripts. Learners did not indicate where they had learned these items on their self-reported learning charts, so there was never any implication as to the source or context of their learning. One could speculate that these ‘unidentified’ claims came from ‘silent’ learning during the task interaction. For example, one student could have given feedback in writing, or a student could have looked up a word in a dictionary (which is similar to what was reported in Nabei, 2012a). Alternatively, the learner could have reported learning an item that was learned before the task but was never used during the task. A final explanation (that cannot be completely ignored) is the possibility that learners were not honestly completing their charts. A second issue was that there was evidence that learners did not categorize their claims in a way that would be consistent with how applied linguists would categorize learning, which made distinguishing between self-reported linguistic categories unreliable. This is evidence to refute Ellis’ (1995) and Eckerth’s (2006) claim that recall charts are a reliable measure of learning.

### **9.5.2. Self-reported culture learning**

In terms of inter-cultural learning, the Inter-cultural group reported significantly more items related to foreign culture than the Intra-cultural group. In fact, learners in the Inter-cultural

group made more claims of foreign culture learning for all five tasks. Only one reported claim could not be traced back to a point in the transcripts, indicating that learners' reporting of culture was sincere. Task 1 resulted in the highest number of foreign culture claims for both groups. Table 72 illustrates the different types of foreign culture learning reported by learners.

**Table 72: Types of foreign cultural knowledge reported**

Cultural knowledge	Example from self-reported learning charts
Social problems	“There is still racial discrimination in America”
Historical facts	“Eiffel is built 1887. The Eiffel was designed by Sain Lauvent”
Traditions/Customs/Rules of behavior	“The left hand is dirty. You only eat with right hand.”
Regional distinctions	“Dialects in France”
Beliefs	“In America, people think gun protect for themselves”

Reported claims of inter-cultural learning approximately reflect Byram's (1997) component of inter-cultural competence called “relational knowledge”, which refers to the acquisition of another's cultural knowledge that is understood often in contrast to one's own culture. However, he claims that ‘deep’ level inter-cultural learning occurs in interaction when the following skills are engaged: (1) attitudes, (2) relational knowledge, (3) skills of interpreting and relating, and (4) skills of discovery and interaction. It was observed from the transcripts that inter-cultural interactions resulted in various cultural misunderstandings, stemming from conflicting personal views and experiences. In some cases, learners were challenged to explain behavior or cultural practices that they would normally take for granted. This deeper form of inter-cultural learning may have made cultural knowledge more salient, resulting in more claims of culture learning for the Inter-cultural group. Example 4 presents an interaction episode that resulted in a foreign culture claim.

**Example 4:** Foreign culture claim: “They do not pose peace sign when they take picture.”  
(Inter-cultural group, Task 1)

194            Hikaru:            When you take a picture, you=



challenges Hikaru to reflect on her own assumptions behind Japanese cultural practices (line 200). Adrianna then provides a possible explanation of cultural differences (line 201), which seems to provoke Hikaru to employ questioning techniques to elicit more information (line 205, 207). Adrianna concludes by using a personal anecdote to show how she is adopting the Japanese cultural practice, to which Hikaru responds with a supportive comment (line 209).

In contrast, because intra-cultural interaction is between learners that have considerable shared cultural knowledge, cultural knowledge is often disseminated without personal identification. Byram (1997) calls this ‘shallow’ learning. Example 5 presents an intra-cultural interaction episode that resulted in a foreign culture claim.

**Example 5:** Foreign culture claim: “Religion in Cusco” (Intra-cultural group, Task 1)

- 262        Kako:        Okay. Do you know anything about Cusco?  
263        Ran:        Yes. Re- religion.  
264        Kako:        Hm  
265        Ran:        Most people- about ninety percent believed in Roman  
   Catholic.  
266        Kako:        Ah  
267        Ran:        Because Peru had been dominated by Spain=  
268        Kako:        =Yes  
269        Ran:        So they will Roman Catholic.

In Example 5, Ran explains that the religious belief of the people of Cusco is Roman Catholic (turn 265), which is a consequence of Spanish colonialism (turn 267). In contrast to Example 4, there is no attempt by either learner to relate to the knowledge at a personal level, nor was there curiosity-driven questions posed that may trigger ‘deep’ inter-cultural learning. This more superficial level of cultural exchange of knowledge may have reduced the saliency of cultural knowledge for the Inter-cultural group, resulting in fewer reported items.

**9.5.3. Interaction and self-reported language learning**

RQ8 asked what the relationship was between LREs and reported language learning. For the Inter-cultural group, claimed items that were the focus of LREs accounted for 55.43% of all LREs with a higher percentage of claims emerging from Task 4 LREs (68.88%) than Task 1



LREs (45.79%). A lower percentage of claims were the focus of LREs for the Intra-cultural group (32.98%), which again came more from LREs in Task 4 (37.50%) than Task 1 (29.55%). This is unexpected as there were more LREs generated from Task 1 than Task 4. These findings, together with the fact that there were more claims that could not be identified in the transcripts of Task 1 than Task 4, suggests that learners completed their Task 4 chart in a more reliable manner than the Task 1 chart. Perhaps learners needed to ‘practice’ the procedure of completing the uptake chart in order to develop an effective strategy for recalling learned linguistic items.

Overall, 20% of reported linguistic items were topicalized by way of an LRE (Inter-cultural group = 19.04%, Intra-cultural group = 21.71%). In contrast, Slimani’s (1989) study found that learners reported 64% of what had been explicitly focused upon during lessons (44% new items, 20% known before). This difference could be attributed to the different learning contexts of the two studies. Whereas Slimani’s study looked at what learners’ perceived learning during teacher-fronted classes that were “devoid of group activities” (p. 244), this study examined student-student interaction arising during unfocused oral tasks. Therefore, one inference that can be made is that learners are more likely to report having learned items that were intentionally addressed in the classroom rather than items that were learned incidentally. However, as Palmeira (2001) notes, a possible limitation of using a self-reported learning chart in teacher-fronted lessons is that “students [focus] more on structures perceived as the main focus of the lesson, rather than attempting to recall other language used” (p. 151). This may have caused the percentage of claims that were topicalized in Slimani’s study to be inflated. Because the tasks in this study were not designed to focus on any particular language feature, students did not have any preconceived linguistic items in mind while completing the tasks.

Although inter-cultural contact had no effect on the overall rate at which LREs generated claimed items, significantly more claims that were contained in LREs were reported (i.e. reported LREs) for these learners than those who did not receive the inter-cultural contact treatment ( $p = .011$ ,  $d = .913$ ). This is most likely because the inter-cultural interaction was much more effective at generating LREs than intra-cultural interactions (see Chapter 8 results).

#### **9.5.4. Similarities: Linguistic form, complexity, and resolution with uptake**

In terms of linguistic focus, spelling/pronunciation and lexical LREs were the most common form of LREs that led to reported claims of learning for both groups. This supports previous research on self-reported learning in teacher-fronted classes, which has found that

vocabulary items (lexical form and meaning) tend to dominate what learners report (e.g. Palmeira, 1995; Nabei, 2012a). This study found that spelling/pronunciation LREs (43.26%) exist in almost equal proportion to lexical LREs (47.04%) but spelling/pronunciation LREs led to self-reported learning at a higher rate than LREs of other linguistic foci for both groups (Inter-cultural = 22.78%, Intra-cultural = 28.13%). This suggests that peer interaction facilitates self-reported learning when spelling/pronunciation of an item is topicalized. The success of this type of LRE could be due to the fact that many pronunciation and spelling issues occurred simultaneously, with such episodes being classified as one spelling/pronunciation LRE (as per the definition in Chapter 8). These simultaneous pronunciation/spelling LREs engage students on two different levels (students attend to both spelling and pronunciation), which increases the saliency of an item and in turn the likelihood that an item is claimed. Example 6 illustrates an example of such an item:

**Example 6:** Reported spelling/pronunciation LRE: “scavenger” (Inter-cultural group, Task 4)

- 94 Kate: It’s a silly- it’s a silly scavenger hunt. That’s what it is. You find things like that. You can build things and stuff. And that’s his charity. And it’s to make people smile and laugh=
- 95 Yuki: =Scaven- challenge?
- 96 Kate: Scavenger hunt.... wait... that’s bad handwriting.
- 97 Yuki: Thank you. S C A V
- 98 Kate: Yeah
- 99 Yuki: V E N G E R
- 100 Kate: Yeah
- 101 Yuki: Hunt... okay.

The above example is a reported LRE in which Yuki reports learning the item “scavenge.” Although this was classified as one LRE, learners attend to both a pronunciation and spelling issue, increasing the noticeability of the item. Furthermore, LREs that cause an item to be written down can benefit from the permanence of the message. In Example 4, it is apparent that in turn 96 Kate writes down either “scavenger” or “scavenger hunt” in an effort to resolve the pronunciation issue. Although the written actions were usually not verbalized, as in Example 6, and thus cannot be explicitly identified in the transcripts, it is likely that topicalizing

the spelling or pronunciation of a word often involved both spoken and written media. Spoken LREs, resulting in a written record that can be referred to at anytime during the interaction, may have made pronunciation/spelling LREs more salient.

Both groups had a higher rate of self-reported learning for items coming from complex LREs (Inter-cultural = 22.19%, Intra-cultural = 25.93%) than simple LREs (Inter-cultural = 15.38%, Intra-cultural = 18.67%), indicating that, regardless of interlocutor, LREs that contain a large number of turns are more likely to be reported. This was expected as complex LREs usually arise when there are multiple attempts to resolve an issue, increasing the chance that the topicalized item is noticed and remembered. In fact, complex LREs often involved multiple clarification questions and the provision of a variety of feedback. Example 7 illustrates how a claimed item can be made more salient as an LRE becomes more complex.

**Example 7:** Reported complex LRE: “shemale” (Intra-cultural group, Task 1)

- 9           Ran:           What famous site and festival?  
10          Kako:           Do you know Shemale?  
11          Ran:           No, I don't know. Shemale. What spell?  
12          Kako:           S H E  
13          Ran:           E  
14          Kako:           M A L E  
15          Ran:           Shemale?  
16          Kako:           Yes.  
17          Ran:           What's shemale?  
18          Kako:           This mean lady guy. Lady guy?  
19          Ran:           Festival or site?  
20          Kako:           No, person=  
21          Ran:           =Person?  
22          Kako:           Shemale shows are famous.  
23          Ran:           Shemale shows?  
24          Kako:           Shemale.  
25          Ran:           [Show]  
26          Kako:           [Show]



- 21 Miho: [Oh ]  
 22 Andrew: Who does the dangerous stuff in the movies.  
 23 Miho: Oh.

*(the LRE resumes 10 minutes later)*

- 247 Miho: Job one, stuntman.  
 248 Andrew: Well, I like to say stunt performer.  
 249 Miho: Disadvantage.

*(the LRE resumes 1 minute later)*

- 265 Miho: Three thousand- three thirty hundred dollar. Thirty-  
 266 Andrew: No, three hundred dollars. Like about three ten thousand  
 yen... to get hit by a car=  
 267 Miho: =Stunt performer is very dangerous.

In Example 8, Andrew provides a definition of a “stunt performer” (turn 22), which does not immediately result in successful uptake. Miho then attempts to produce the item (turn 247) to which Andrew corrects her with the preferred form. Miho doesn’t produce the correct form of the word until turn 267. This example is interesting as it reflects a gradual internalization of a lexical item (stunt → stuntman → stunt performer) and demonstrates that multiple attempts to modify output is often needed to successfully demonstrate uptake.

#### **9.5.5. Differences: Preemptive episodes and incorrect resolution**

Although preemptive LREs were reported in approximately equal proportions for both groups, preemptive LREs were more successful at generating claims for intra-cultural interaction (29.55%) than inter-cultural interaction (18.85%). Explaining this requires an examination of the differences in preemptive LREs for the two groups. The first difference lies in the use of Japanese by learners when initiating preemptive LREs. As in Example 9 below, intra-cultural interaction occasionally resulted in LREs where one learner preemptively provided the Japanese definition of a word in order to clarify its meaning.



been doing that kind of training since he was born- since he remembers. He's been doing this and martial arts. Like Kung Fu, Taekwondo, yeah. Since he was little. Like when I saw him high school, he was a really strong guy. What about your guy?

In Example 10, Louise finishes turn 480 with the sequential transition “Okay, next” signaling that it is appropriate to continue to the next stage of the task. Andrew, in Example 11, finishes a long explanation of the lexical item “parkour” with the question “What about your guy?” Both cases put the Japanese learner in a situation where it would be difficult or even inappropriate to ask clarification questions, thus rendering the items less salient. Perhaps this is due to a tendency of international students to assume that the learner can quickly internalize information when further attention is in fact needed. This reflects Sato and Lyster’s (2007) observation that during learner-native speaker interactions, learners feel more pressure and have less time to plan what they are going to say, leading to fewer opportunities for modified output. Because preemptive LREs involve predicting a linguistic gap, international students may have also overestimated the capacity of learners to learn certain items.

Not only did intra-cultural interaction lead to a significantly higher proportion of reported LREs that were resolved incorrectly ( $\chi^2 = 6.626$ ;  $df = 1$ ;  $p = .01$ ) but also incorrectly resolved LREs led to claims at twice the rate (Inter-cultural = 11.11%, Intra-cultural = 22.72%). Examples 12 and 13 present two reported LREs that were resolved incorrectly.

**Example 12:** Reported grammatical LRE: “more cheap” (Intra-cultural group, Task 1)

250	Emi:	I can became- become cultured person
251	Akira:	And more... [low]
252	Emi:	[And] more cheap=
253	Akira:	=More cheap?
254	Emi:	More cheap than Japan

**Example 13:** Reported pronunciation/spelling LRE: “Lion spell” (Intra-cultural group, Task 1)

4	Rika:	Especially, I'd like to travel to Lyon city.
---	-------	--

5	Mika:	Lyon. Lyon city?
6	Rika:	Yes, L I O
7	Mika:	O
8	Rika:	N
9	Mika:	N. Oh Lyon.
10	Rika:	Lyon.

Example 12 illustrates how an incorrectly resolved grammatical LRE led to the claim of a grammatical item. Similarly, Example 13 shows how an incorrectly spelled word resulted in a claimed item. Both examples are evidence that interaction between learners who do not have sufficient linguistic knowledge can lead to a reported claim with incorrect form. The fact that this occurred five times more often than in inter-cultural interaction highlights a learning disadvantage of learner-learner interaction that arises from ill-formed or inaccurate attempts to resolve language problems.

## 9.6. Conclusion

This final results chapter has examined the effect of inter-cultural contact on what learners claim to have learned during tasks and the relationship between self-reported language learning and interaction. A few caveats to the interpretation of these results should be emphasized regarding the reliability of the instrument used (self-reported learning chart). First, a significant percentage of reported language items could not be found in the task transcripts of learners (Inter-cultural = 6.54%, Intra-cultural = 11.36%). This finding is contrary to the results of Ellis (1995) and Eckerth (2003), who both found that the use of recall charts resulted in “sincere” self-reporting (i.e., all items reported also figure in the transcripts). The fact that reporting for Task 4 seemed more sincere than Task 1 (i.e., more items could be identified and traced back to LREs) indicates that perhaps learners were still familiarizing themselves with the procedure during the earlier tasks. Second, learners were unable to clearly distinguish between linguistic categories, which meant that claims could not be analyzed based on self-reported categories. Instead, claimed items were traced back to LREs and the linguistic categories of those LREs (reported LREs) were used in the analysis. Therefore, ‘linguistic focus’ in this chapter only refers to the categorization of observed LREs that resulted in a claim, which may be different than the linguistic focus of the claimed item itself as perceived by learners. Third,



the notion of 'learning' in this chapter is that of 'self-reported' learning, which is a measure of noticing, depth of processing, and remembering. Self-reported measures of learning require learners to notice and have an awareness of noticing at the time of reporting (Schmidt, 2003). Memory and time, therefore, certainly degrade the reliability of these kinds of self-report charts.

With these methodological limitations in mind, some tentative conclusions can be drawn. In terms of inter-cultural learning, learners in the Inter-cultural group claimed to have learned more foreign culture items than learners in the Intra-cultural group. This can be attributed to inter-cultural learning at a deeper level; that is, inter-cultural contact resulted in cultural knowledge emerging from personal experiences rather than a superficial exchange of pre-learned knowledge. There was no significant difference between the number of linguistic items learners claimed to have learned after performing tasks under the inter-cultural and intra-cultural condition. For both conditions, spelling/pronunciation LREs, complex LREs, and LREs that were resolved with uptake led to a higher rate of claims than other types of LRE. Preemptive LREs were more successful at generating claims in inter-cultural interaction and LREs that were resolved incorrectly led to proportionately more claims for intra-cultural interaction.

## Chapter 10. Conclusion

### 10.1. Introduction

The classroom-based research presented in this thesis is an effort to examine the effects of face-to-face inter-cultural contact. The motivation to undertake this investigation came from a) recent calls from the Japanese government encouraging university reforms to provide wider international experiences among students and b) a personal observation that international students at Japanese universities are an underutilized resource for English language education purposes. In order to ‘manufacture’ inter-cultural contact, a series of tasks were designed with the intent of generating meaningful interactions between Japanese and non-Japanese students. A quasi-experimental design looked at the impact of inter-cultural contact on both L2 motivation and learning. Task performances of the Intra-cultural group (N =21) and the Inter-cultural group (N = 21) were compared. In order to provide a comprehensive examination of the effect of inter-cultural contact, this study adopted a process-product approach, which required dividing the research into multiple components. It was hoped that this more comprehensive approach would provide greater insights rather than focusing too narrowly using only one framework.

This concluding chapter provides a summary of the findings followed by the theoretical implications, which attempt to describe how each component of the study may be related. The summary of findings will be presented as follows:

- Motivational Self System
- Motivational flow
- Task interaction
- Self-reported learning

The thesis will conclude with pedagogical and methodological implications of the study, limitations of the study, suggestions for future research, and a final comment.

## 10.2. Summary of findings

### 10.2.1. Motivational self system

The first component of the thesis sought to determine the effect of inter-cultural contact and the effect of intra-cultural contact on the following product-level components of motivation: ideal L2 self, ought-L2 self, L2 learning experience, international posture, and motivated learning behavior. In addition, the difference in the effects of the two treatment conditions was investigated. This was achieved by looking at the interaction effect of the Inter-cultural group, the Intra-cultural group, and the Comparison group. The main findings are as follows:

- A significant Time  $\times$  Group interaction for *L2 learning experience*, which was due to a significant increase in scores for the Inter-cultural group, a non-significant increase for the Comparison group, and a non-significant decrease for the Intra-cultural group. This shows that inter-cultural contact has the effect of enhancing learners' positive attitudes towards the classroom environment.
- A significant Time  $\times$  Group interaction for *international posture* caused by a significant increase in scores for the Inter-cultural group, a non-significant increase for the Intra-cultural group, and a non-significant decrease for the Comparison group. This suggests that inter-cultural contact was successful in positively impacting learners' attitudes towards the international community.
- An overall significant Time effect for *L2 Ideal Self*, which was attributed to a non-significant increase in both the Inter-cultural and Intra-cultural group's ideal L2 self scores. Thus, the tasks themselves, rather than the type of contact, had a small effect on developing learners' visions of their ideal English selves.

Overall, these results indicate that learners who performed tasks with the inter-cultural treatment benefited in two ways: 1) they ended the study with more positive attitudes towards their learning environment than when they started (i.e., they became more engaged in the tasks), and 2) they developed more positive attitudes towards the international community (i.e., became more willing to engage with dissimilar others). There were no significant changes for the measures L2 ought-to self and motivated learning behavior for any of the groups.

### 10.2.2. Motivational flow

The second part of the study examined the effect of inter-cultural contact on process-level motivation using the construct of flow. A flow questionnaire assessed whether interaction arising from inter-cultural contact affected learners' motivational flow for each task. Learner diaries were used to examine the ways in which flow was affected for each task performed. In regards to the effect of inter-cultural contact and task repetition on flow, results revealed the following findings:

- A significant Repetition × Group interaction, which was attributed to a non-significant increase in flow scores for the Inter-cultural group from Task performance 1 to Task performance 2 and a significant decrease in flow scores for the Intra-cultural group (measured by flow questionnaires). This suggests that inter-cultural contact had a positive effect on flow in that it helped to overcome the negative impact of task repetition.
- The questionnaire results were supported by results from the diary analysis. A content analysis revealed that inter-cultural contact enhanced flow to a significantly greater degree than intra-cultural contact (measured by chi-squared analysis of flow enhancing counts in learner diaries) during Task performance 2.
- Procedural repetition had a positive effect on flow. An increasing trend was observed for average flow states from Task 2 to Task 5 during the repeated performance of tasks (supported by questionnaire and diary data).

It can be concluded that inter-cultural contact had a positive effect on flow, task repetition had a negative effect, and procedural repetition had a positive effect on flow. In regards to the ways in which flow was affected, an analysis of learner diaries found:

- Six components contributed to flow: *skills and challenges*, *control*, *attention*, *interest*, *enjoyment*, and a *sense of accomplishment*.
- Inter-cultural contact enhanced flow states primarily through the component *sense of accomplishment* (proportionately higher number of comments related to the perception of achievement). An increasingly larger proportion of flow was attributed to a sense of accomplishment as learners progressed through the tasks.

- Intra-cultural contact enhanced flow through a greater balance of *skills and challenges* (proportionately higher number of comments related to the perception of skills and challenges) and inhibited flow through a lack of a *control* and a lack of perceived *sense of accomplishment* (proportionately higher number of flow-inhibiting comments related to control and sense of accomplishment).

It can be concluded that inter-cultural contact affects flow through the enhancement of a *sense of accomplishment* but suppresses flow through a lack of balance of *skills and challenges*. In other words, learners found interactions with an international interlocutor challenging; however, overcoming this challenge led to a feeling of satisfaction and increased self-confidence.

### 10.2.3. Task interaction

This third research component examined interactional differences between the two groups for two tasks. The first findings relate to the amount of output produced by learners and the relationships between flow and output measures. Output was measured in terms of words, turns, and words-per-turn for each learner in each group. The findings were:

- A significantly greater number of turns were generated for learners in the Inter-cultural group than for learners in the Intra-cultural group during Task performance 2. However, the number of words produced by learners in each group did not significantly differ. Thus, it followed that the Inter-cultural group produced significantly fewer words per turn.
- A significant positive correlation between turns and flow (as measured by questionnaire scores) was found but only for the Intra-cultural group. There was no significant relationship between words and flow for either group.
- A significant negative correlation between words-per-turn and flow (as measured by questionnaire scores) was found but only for the Intra-cultural group.

The above findings indicate that inter-cultural contact significantly improves task engagement (interactivity) of task performances. However, interactivity (turn-taking) is related to flow only during intra-cultural interactions, suggesting that inter-cultural contact affects flow in ways that cannot be explained in terms of these measures of spoken output.

The next findings relate to differences in the process features of inter-cultural and intra-cultural interaction. The discourse measure of LREs was chosen to investigate instances when learners attend to form during task interaction. The analysis identified LREs in the transcripts and categorized them according to linguistic focus, type, complexity, and resolution. Results revealed significant differences between the groups for 9 of the 10 variables. There were several similarities between the two kinds of interactions – specifically, during both inter- and intra-cultural interactions LREs were found to be:

- Primarily lexical
- Resolved with uptake at a rate of 35-37%.
- Reactive rather than preemptive, with reactive LREs being resolved at a higher rate than preemptive LREs for both groups

The above findings reflect characteristics of interaction resulting from participation in spoken, meaning-focused tasks – features of interaction that exist regardless of differences in interlocutor. As a result, during task performances participants tended to adopt communication strategies that emphasized meaning (preference towards lexical LREs) and avoided deliberate breaks in conversation (preference towards reactive LREs). Notable differences between the groups were:

- A significantly greater number of total LREs were identified in inter-cultural interactions, which were composed of a significantly greater number of lexical, grammatical, and spelling/pronunciation LREs.
- Grammatical LREs and complex LREs were found in proportionately higher numbers in inter-cultural interactions.
- Both simple and complex LREs occurred in significantly higher numbers in inter-cultural interactions.
- Inter-cultural contact resulted in the generation of significantly more LREs that were resolved (with and without uptake).
- Inter-cultural contact resulted in the generation of significantly more LREs that were incorrectly resolved.

The above findings provide evidence that task interaction under the inter-cultural condition results in the generation of more language learning opportunities. There is evidence this

discrepancy is because of both proficiency and cultural differences. International interlocutors seem to be more confident and capable of utilizing their linguistic knowledge to provide feedback to learners. Furthermore, interlocutors with similar cultural and language learning backgrounds may have viewed entering into LREs as face-threatening behavior, thus avoiding linguistic deliberations.

#### **10.2.4. Self-reported learning**

This final research component took a process-product approach in that it looked at language learning outcomes of each task from the perspective of learners (i.e., self-reported learning) and related these outcomes to process features in interaction (i.e., LREs). In terms of learning outcomes, the findings are as follows:

- Inter-cultural interaction led to significantly more reported claims of culture learning (foreign culture items) than intra-cultural interaction. However, there were no significant differences for reported learning of Japanese culture items.
- Learners who experienced inter-cultural contact during tasks reported learning more linguistic items than those who experienced intra-cultural contact after every task. The difference, however, was not significant.

The above results indicate that inter-cultural contact positively affects reported culture learning but does not significantly affect the number of linguistic items learners report learning. To investigate the relationship between task interaction and claims of language learning, each claim was traced back to the transcripts. The most significant findings were:

- During inter-cultural interactions, over half all claims of learning originated in LREs. In contrast, during intra-cultural interactions, only a third of all items originated in LREs.
- Approximately 20% of LREs generated in both groups led to at least one claimed item.
- Reported LREs (i.e., LREs that led to at least one reported linguistic item) were observed in significantly higher numbers in inter-cultural interactions than in intra-cultural interactions.

The rate at which LREs were reported (i.e., percentage of LREs that harbored a claimed item) highlighted the relationship between interaction and self-reported learning. The most notable similarities between the two groups were:

- Spelling/pronunciation and lexical LREs were the most common type of LREs that led to a learning claim for each group.
- Items that were the focus of complex LREs were claimed at a higher rate than those items that were the focus of simple LREs.
- LREs that were resolved with uptake were claimed at a higher rate than LREs resolved in other ways.

The most notable differences between the two groups were:

- Preemptive LREs were more successful at generating claims during intra-cultural interaction than inter-cultural interaction.
- Items originating from LREs that were resolved incorrectly were reported in a significantly higher proportion (more than twice the rate) for intra-cultural interactions than for inter-cultural interactions.

In short, the results of this research component show that inter-cultural interaction leads to more reported culture learning but not significantly more reported language learning. It should be emphasized that there is evidence the self-reported learning chart as used in this study suffered from reliability issues (see the limitations in this chapter). Therefore, these findings should be interpreted with caution.

### **10.3. Theoretical implications**

This section explores implications of the above findings in terms of the theory and constructs that inform this study. In addition, although the research questions posed in this study do not directly address the how motivation and language learning are related, I will use the findings to speculate on the relationship between process-level motivation, interaction, and L2 learning, and finally on how these contribute to a learner's sense of self as speakers of English.



### 10.3.1. Flow

This thesis applied flow theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1975, 1988, 1990, 1997) to determine the process-level motivational effects of task interaction. Egbert (2003), in her seminal study on flow in the foreign language classroom, sought to find out if flow existed in the foreign language classroom. This study has adopted Egbert’s questionnaire to measure flow, which makes comparisons with her research particularly useful to highlight some theoretical implications.

Using a threshold questionnaire score of 5.0 to determine which tasks were effectively inducing flow (flow achieved > 5.0, flow not achieved < 5.0), Egbert (2003) concluded that three out of seven tasks had a score above the threshold, and so demonstrated “a pattern of flow” (p. 511). Similarly, this study has also found that flow exists in the foreign language classroom. In fact, it is possible to determine, by means of direct comparison, the extent to which learners in this study experienced flow. Table 73 shows the mean post-task flow questionnaire scores for each administration in this study and Table 74 presents the mean flow scores for Egbert’s (2003) tasks.

**Table 73: Mean flow scores over all tasks in the current study**

		Task 1	Task 2	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5
Inter- g.	Mean (TP1)	5.58	5.39	5.59	5.66	5.32
	Mean (TP2)	6.07	5.85	5.93	5.96	6.08
Intra- g.	Mean (TP1)	5.40	5.17	5.38	5.19	5.33
	Mean (TP2)	5.14	4.66	4.93	4.97	5.20

Inter- G. = Inter-cultural group; Intra- G. = Intra-cultural group; TP1 = Task performance 1; TP2 = Task performance 2

**Table 74: Mean flow scores over all tasks (Egbert, 2003)**

	Task 1	Task 6	Task 3	Task 4	Task 5	Task 6	Task 7
Mean	4.09	5.10	5.09	4.55	5.72	4.73	3.94

Using the same criteria as Egbert (2003), in this study 17 of the 20 tasks (85%) caused, on average, flow states in learners. Thus, one implication of this study is that high levels of flow

can be achieved through task interaction, regardless of whether tasks involved inter-cultural or intra-cultural contact. The result seems to suggest that there may be some features inherent in the tasks that promote flow – the pedagogical implications of which will be discussed later in this chapter (see section 10.4.2.)

Egbert's (2003) study identified the following dimensions of flow: interest, control, challenge and skills, and attention. She also mentions "a deep sense of enjoyment" or "playfulness" as another aspect that could contribute to flow (p. 505). This study supports Egbert's findings as all of the above dimensions were found to be recurrent themes in learners' diaries. In addition, another dimension of flow emerged in the data: *sense of accomplishment*. In fact, *sense of accomplishment* was the component of flow that was mentioned proportionately more times by the Inter-cultural group and seemed to become an increasingly more important contributor to flow as learners progressed through the treatment, while a lack of *sense of accomplishment* was the most prominent component that inhibited flow for the Intra-cultural group.

The factor *sense of accomplishment* is perhaps most similar to the dimension of flow identified in the field of sports psychology called "unambiguous feedback", which Jackson and Marsh (1996) describe as feedback that lets "the person to know he or she is succeeding in the goal" (p. 19). However, *sense of accomplishment* differs in that learners feel achievement not only through explicit feedback from interlocutors, but from noticing improvements on their own through a comparison of their current performance with past performances, leading to enhanced self-confidence. As discussed in Chapter 8, this result is congruent with several past studies that have empirically related inter-cultural contact experiences among learners with increased L2 self confidence and motivation (e.g., Blake & Zyzik, 2003; Clément et al., 1994; Csizér & Kormos, 2008a; Dörnyei et al., 2006; Labrie & Clément, 1986; Noel et al., 1996). One significance of this study is that self-confidence – resulting from a sense of accomplishment – has been identified as the distinguishing factor of 'inter-cultural' flow in interaction; that is, L2 self-confidence manifests over time during the process of inter-cultural task interactions.

### **10.3.2. Flow, interaction, and learning**

Egbert (2003) posited a relationship between flow theory and language acquisition. According to her model, flow leads to focused time on task (e.g. increased attention) and it motivates a person to use productive behaviors (e.g. increased task engagement), which causes

improvements in skills and learning. She suggested that, “flow and language acquisition occur under many of the same conditions” (2003, p. 506). An important theoretical implication is that this study provides some evidence to support Egbert’s model. Specifically, learners who experienced ‘inter-cultural’ flow, were more engaged, had increased focus and self-confidence, and entered into more LREs.

The findings suggest that flow is related to task engagement (i.e. interactivity). There was a significant positive correlation between flow and turns of talk and a negative relationship between flow and words-per-turn. Furthermore, learners who experienced inter-cultural contact were more engaged in tasks (i.e. produced more turns and less words-per-turn) than learners who did not experience inter-cultural contact. According to Dornyei (2002), task engagement is critical for language processing to take place – that is, the cognitive and linguistic processes involved in L2 learning start, in part, with task engagement.

The findings suggest that ‘inter-cultural’ flow facilitates elevated levels of ‘noticing’, leading to an increased number of LREs. One condition for inducing ‘inter-cultural’ flow is attention, evidenced by such comments as: “I was intensely focused on my partner’s speech” (similar comments related to attention were mentioned almost twice as many times by the Inter-cultural group than the Intra-cultural group). According to the Noticing Hypothesis, increased attention is an advantageous learning condition in that it drives learners to pay attention or notice important features of the target language input (Schmidt, 1993, 1995, 2001). Furthermore, a distinguishing characteristic of inter-cultural flow is that it is derived from a sense of accomplishment, which leads to an increase in self-confidence. Linguistic self-confidence is an important factor in willingness to communicate, which is related to a learner’s risk-taking behavior. Thus, in line with the Output Hypothesis, both increased attention and self-confidence seemed to push learners to notice gaps in their interlanguage, produce output in order to test hypotheses in order to try out new language form, causing learners to enter into collaborative dialogues that serve to find solutions to linguistic problems (Swain, 2000).

The result that the Inter-cultural group generated more than twice as many LREs than the Intra-cultural group indicates that both L2 proficiency and cultural differences between interlocutors leads to more language learning opportunities. This finding supports previous studies that have found proficiency differences to be an important predictor for the number of LREs produced (e.g. Leaser, 2004; Kim & McDonough, 2008; Watanabe & Swain, 2007, Fernández Dobao, 2012, Bowles et al., 2014). However, this finding refutes Sato and Lyster’s

(2007) and Sato's (2007) assertion that a culturally dissimilar interlocutor causes feelings of anxiety that serve to inhibit students from entering into language-related discussions. Although learners in the Inter-cultural group found the tasks more challenging – a component which inhibited flow – this seems to be offset by their increasing sense of accomplishment and control over the task process as they progressed through the tasks, which boosted their willingness to enter into LREs. The suppressed level of LREs generated by the Intra-cultural group supports Fuji and Mackey's (2009) claim that Japanese EFL learners who interact with each other have a shared cultural and linguistic background and so adhere to implicitly known communication norms, such as the need to save face, which leads to low levels of feedback. In contrast, inter-cultural communication cannot rely on such shared knowledge, and interlocutors are pushed to be more explicit, leading to more feedback and modified output. The result that inter-cultural contact led to higher levels of uptake is evidence of this, which again contradicts Sato and Lyster (2007) findings that learner-learner interaction produces more opportunities for modified output.

A further advantage of inter-cultural interaction is that language-related deliberations have higher levels of complexity (more complex LREs) and focus on grammatical form to a greater extent (more grammatical LREs) than those generated during intra-cultural interactions. By definition, complex LREs consist of several turns of talk, which is more likely to occur when learners exhibit high levels of task engagement – a result of 'inter-cultural' flow. The complexity of an LRE is potentially an important factor for learning as it may impact the saliency of topicalized items, making it more likely that these linguistic features will be retained (Loewen, 2005). The elevated level of grammatical feedback during inter-cultural interaction is most likely a result of the international interlocutor possessing more linguistic knowledge than the Japanese interlocutor. This is in line with Fujii and Mackey's (2009) claim that learners involved in Japanese-Japanese interaction – being 'novice' users of the language – may not feel it is their role to give grammatical feedback.

Regardless of contact type, interactions during these oral, meaning-focused tasks showed that learners prioritized focusing on linguistic elements that facilitate comprehension. Learners in both groups tended to prefer entering lexical LREs as opposed to grammatical LREs. This is consistent with studies that have used meaning-focused, oral tasks (e.g. Nakahama et al., 2001; Lasito & Storch, 2013; Phil et al., 2010, Bowles et al., 2014), and demonstrates that resolving lexical issues are of more value when conveying meaning. Furthermore learners opted to enter

into reactive LREs rather than preemptive LREs, preferring to focus on form largely in reaction to a perceived error or a lack of understanding. Relating this to flow theory, this is congruent to Egbert's (2003) claim that high levels of flow often occur when attention is paid to meaning rather than language (Egbert, 2003). In fact, LREs that are interruptive can disrupt the intense focus that characterizes flow, with some researchers observing that such feedback interferes with the meaningfulness of interactions (e.g. Robinson, 1997). This might explain the tendency for learners to form their interactional strategies around a need to facilitate communication.

Considering that LREs provide opportunities for interactants to shape and construct linguistic knowledge (Swain, 2006) and that when such LREs are resolved with uptake, they represent an indication of learning (e.g., Ellis et al., 2001; Loewen, 2005), interactionist theories would predict that the Inter-cultural group would have learned more language than the Intra-cultural group. Indeed, they may have. However, for the measure of self-reported learning, this was not the case. There were no significant differences found for claimed items reported between the two groups. Methodological limitations aside, this is contrary to the theoretical foundations of interaction-driven language learning.

When reported claims did emerge from LREs, the findings suggest that spelling/pronunciation LREs and complex LRE are more successful in generating claims of learning. The fact that spelling and pronunciation LREs resulted in higher rates of reporting is most likely due to (1) spelling and pronunciation issues occurring simultaneously in interaction and (2) resolution being aided by written and spoken media – both of which serve to increase the saliency of spelling and pronunciation issues. Complex LREs involved numerous turns and various types of feedback, which, as suggested by previous studies (e.g. Loewen, 2004, 2005) increases saliency. Moreover, because learners involved in complex LREs often requested or were provided with additional feedback, complexity may be indicative of a need to learn, which would increase learners' awareness of learning and thus make reporting the item more likely.

Finally, there is evidence to suggest that intra-cultural interaction can result in the learning of incorrect linguistic forms. Compared with inter-cultural interaction, intra-cultural interaction resulted in a higher rate of claimed learning for items identified within LREs that were resolved incorrectly. Although the total number of claimed items from incorrectly resolved LREs is small (5 items or 23% of the LRE type), it does provide some evidence to support other researchers' warnings that task-based learner-learner interaction can result in some erroneous learning (e.g. Sheen, 1994).

### 10.3.3. Formation of L2 motivation

This research measured the motivation states of learners before and after learners participated in task interactions using components of Dörnyei's (2005) L2 motivational self system and Yashima et al.'s (2004) international posture. To a certain extent, changes in these motivational states are the results of learners' experiences during the treatment period.

One significant finding was that *L2 learning experience* significantly increased in strength only for learners receiving the inter-cultural contact treatment. This suggests that intercultural contact significantly increases motivation along the component of L2 learning experience while intra-cultural contact does not. Dörnyei (2005) conceptualized L2 learning experience on a different level than other variables in his model: rather than representing a self-guide, L2 learning experience reflects the impact of the immediate learning environment on L2 motivation. He describes this component as the "trigger for initial motivation", which comes from engagement in the learning process rather than the generation from internal or external self guides. In this study, students' engagement in the learning process came from intra-cultural task interaction (Intra-cultural group), inter-cultural task interaction (Inter-cultural group), or other class activities (Comparison group). Inter-cultural contact, therefore, was most effective in improving learners' task engagement – a result that is consistent with the significantly higher flow states for learners in the Inter-cultural group (for four out of five of the tasks) when compared with learners in the Intra-cultural group. Overall, mean scores for L2 learning experience were the highest among all variables for all groups, which supports Taguchi et al.'s (2009) claim that for Japanese students, situation-specific factors such as methods, class atmosphere – and in this case type of contact – seem to be powerful motivators.

The findings also indicate that inter-cultural contact significantly increases international posture. This result supports Yashima's (2009) argument that international posture can be enhanced when L2 learning is linked to communicating in an international area and when L2 learners interact with more advanced L2 learners. Empirical evidence has shown that international posture can be strengthened through participation in both imagined inter-cultural contact (i.e., language courses that have a global issues component) (Yashima et al., 2004; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008), inter-cultural contact during study abroad programs (Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008) as well as contact during overseas volunteer sojourns (Yashima, 2010). However, this is the first study to provide evidence that international posture

can be enhanced through face-to-face inter-cultural contact in an EFL classroom, which suggests that structured contact with international students can facilitate positive attitudes toward foreigners and foreign culture and a willingness to seek out additional inter-cultural contact.

Despite the increase in international posture, results suggest that inter-cultural contact does not significantly impact ideal L2 self. This is evidence to refute Yashima's (2009) claim international posture "reflects the possible selves of a future English-using participant in an international community" (p. 157). As international posture increases, according to Yashima (2009), one would expect ideal L2 self to also increase. This was not the case in this study. The result here is more in line with Taguchi et al. (2009), who found that Japanese learners can have a healthy attitude towards English speakers in the global community but still lack an awareness of how English can be useful in real life. Perhaps this is indicative of the reality that, despite the contact opportunities that are afforded in the classroom, the world outside of their classroom is still relatively monolingual, which invariably dictates what is personally relevant for the learner.

Relating ideal L2 self to flow, inter-cultural contact specifically did not facilitate a more robust future self-concept for these learners despite the fact that the inter-cultural group attained significantly higher flow states (and task engagement) than the intra-cultural group. This is contrary to Nitta and Baba's (2015) result that "Ideal L2 selves seems closely related to how actively [learners] engaged in the tasks (p. 392). Perhaps, though, the tasks may have some potential in facilitating learners' future selves. Evidence for this comes from a non-significant increase in strength for both the Inter-cultural and Intra-cultural groups.

Finally, findings suggest that inter-cultural contact does not affect ought-to L2. This finding does not support Aubrey and Nowlan's (2013) claim that increased inter-cultural contact may result in a stronger perceived expectation from the learner's immediate social groups that the learner will become a proficient English speaker. Similarly, motivated learning behavior did not significantly increase for any of the learners. Dörnyei's self system model predicts that an increase in L2 learning experience would, to some degree, result in an increase in motivated learning. In fact, several studies involving Japanese learners have reported a strong relationship between L2 learning experience and motivated learning behavior (e.g. Taguchi et al., 2009; Taguchi, 2013). This result, therefore, indicates that an enjoyable classroom environment is not connected to the amount of effort a learner is willing to exert learning English. This finding

echoes Taguchi's (2013) warning that unless activities carefully align with learners' personal goals for learning English, the classroom environment will not induce long-term motivation.

#### **10.4. Pedagogical implications**

The ecological validity of this research makes it easy to generalize these findings to other classrooms. The intervention was provided while concurrently achieving the goals of the course – a consideration that most teachers pay attention to when adopting pedagogy informed by research. Furthermore, the Japanese participants in this study were by no means advantaged or primed for the treatment; they were of intermediate-level English proficiency, had minimal prior exposure to English outside of the classroom, and self-reported that they were at a 'below average' speaking level. In other words, they are students EFL teachers at Japanese universities can relate to.

The findings in this study provide pedagogical insights into three areas. The first is the use of international students in providing inter-cultural contact. The second and third areas relate to features of task design and task implementation respectively.

##### **10.4.1. Provision of face-to-face inter-cultural contact**

Inter-cultural contact can take many forms. The following list of recent studies involving Japanese EFL learners illustrate the various inter-cultural mediums that have been investigated:

1. Study abroad context (Yashima. et al., 2004; Sasaki, 2011; Tsuda and Nakata, 2013; Apple & Aliponga, 2014)
2. Overseas volunteer sojourns (Yashima, 2010)
3. Inter-cultural contact at university outside of the classroom (Aubrey & Nowlan, 2013)
4. Computer-mediated inter-cultural contact (Freiermuth & Huang, 2012)
5. Imagined inter-cultural contact (Yashima & Zenik-Nishide, 2008, 2009; Rivers, 2011; Zenuk-Nishide and Tatsuki, 2011).

Despite most of these studies proclaiming the benefits of inter-cultural contact, only (4) and (5) have any obvious applicability to classroom teaching – and both lack the interactional authenticity of the learner being in the physical presence of the other. The findings here clearly provide ample evidence that face-to-face inter-cultural contact in an EFL setting leads to



increased motivation and more language learning opportunities than intra-cultural contact. This study also provides a template of sorts for teachers that want to ‘manufacture’ face-to-face intercultural contact in an EFL classroom.

Japanese universities are undoubtedly culturally and linguistically homogeneous environments. In fact, international students make up only 4% of the student population at Japanese universities – half the OECD average (OECD, 2015). However, international students do exist, and the number will only continue to increase. In fact in the last decade, foreign students increased 57% (JASSO, 2015), and if Prime Minister Shinzo Abe’s plan to attract 300,000 international students comes to fruition, the number will increase by 63% in the next five years. At the time of recruiting international student participants for this study, there were 590 international students from 35 countries enrolled at the specific campus where the research was conducted (3.5% of the total student body), which is a smaller pool of international students than each of the thirty most prominent universities in Japan (JASSO, 2015). Therefore, there are many universities who may have sufficient numbers of international students to carry out a project such as this. The following suggestions are for EFL teachers at these institutions who may want to utilize international students as a language learning resource:

- *Seek institutional support.* Approaching the international student affairs office was not only essential for getting approval to send out a call for participation, it was also the only avenue for reaching out to all students on campus.
- *Provide incentives.* No monetary incentives were provided to international students for this study. Instead, in an effort to make the experience mutually beneficial, following each class period, a classroom was reserved for participants where Japanese students could provide unstructured Japanese language support for international students. Alternatively, the provision of more structured tasks in both languages could be implemented with the cooperation of both language teachers.
- *Provide initial and ongoing support.* An initial workshop with international students was necessary to outline scheduled classroom activities, distribute task materials, and answer any questions. A private Facebook page for participants acted as a medium for reminders and communicating concerns.
- *Facilitate ‘effective’ contact.* Past literature – and my own experience – suggested that simply having students in the same room wouldn’t be an effective use of time. Facilitating

contact through tasks ensured equal contact time for each student and scaffolded interaction for those learners who needed it.

- *Incorporate contact into the curriculum.* Contact should ideally support course objectives, rather than just being an extra, superfluous activity. In this study, task topics were aligned with chapters in the course textbook. Thus, learners could make use of relevant learned language.

I believe that EFL teachers, who have even a very small pool of international students at their institution, can incorporate an inter-cultural contact component in their courses through careful planning.

#### **10.4.2. Task design**

The tasks designed for this study had a number of inherent features that may have promoted heightened flow states in learners, which would be of value to teachers who wish to implement tasks with or without inter-cultural contact. Drawing on features of these tasks, the following are some suggestions for teachers designing tasks with the promotion of learner-engagement in mind.

Firstly, learners should be given control over how they use their linguistic resources to reach the intended task outcome. For the tasks in this study, no restrictions were put on production possibilities. While Willis (1996) warns that the autonomous learning and student independence in task-based language teaching could be at odds with Japan's pedagogical traditions, learners reacted enthusiastically to the opportunity. This is in line with Van den Branden & Van Gorp's finding (2000) that attempting to control learners output with the provision of "predigested input... barely gave rise to serious discussion, nor to a confrontation between the pupils' own ideas and those in the input" (p. 40).

Secondly, the task content should be based on learners' interests. However, for various reasons the teacher may want to control the task topic (e.g. to follow the units of a textbook). In this study, the task topic and task process were prescribed, but students were given an opportunity (via the task research worksheet) to research specific informational content they wanted to talk about within topic and procedural parameters. Similar to the findings of Lambert and Minn (2007), this personal investment in the task content led to learner involvement and meaningful exchanges.

Third, provide a non-assessed worksheet for learners to make notes. In this study, learners were given a worksheet with two intents: 1) that it would encourage learners to stay ‘on task’ and 2) that referring back to their notes could help them formulate arguments. This seemed to work well. An unintended consequence of the worksheet was that learners were using it during the tasks to aid in the resolution of language problems. Students would often opt for the written mode to confirm spelling issues, which in turn increased their awareness of the learning process and may have contributed to higher rates of reported learning for spelling/pronunciation items.

Fourth, tasks should be designed to stimulate cognitive processes through sharing and analyzing information. Each task involved the exchanging of information and opinions, followed by a collaborative decision. Furthermore, the tasks in this study included a cultural component; learners analyzed foreign cultural items, thereby exercising their abilities to mediate different cultural perspectives. Byram (1997) states that this type of ‘inter-cultural’ learning can result in an enhanced level of curiosity and openness, which is evidenced by the following diary excerpts:

- I would like to do this task again because it not only enabled us to learn about different cultures but also bridged the international communication between Japan and foreign countries. (Task 5, Inter-cultural group)
- This task helps me to develop attitudes and skills to speak English with Japanese, and hopefully, I will be able to nurture the attitudes that let me speak English with native speakers. (Task 5, Intra-cultural group)
- I found it interesting that the Japanese way of celebrating those anniversaries was different from the American way of doing that, for instance how they spent holidays like Independence Day. (Task 5, Intra-cultural group)

Tasks such as these contain an inter-cultural dimension that facilitates the discussion of cultural issues, which necessarily lead to curiosity, discovery and high levels of engagement.

The above recommendations are based on the success of the tasks in general. However, some individual tasks seemed to be more effective in promoting flow and learning than others. In this respect, Task 1 was the most successful task, registering the highest flow scores and most learned items reported. Conversely, Task 2 lagged behind the rest of the tasks in terms of flow and was less successful in generating claims of learning. This could be attributed to some subtle differences in the design of these two tasks, the features of which are summarized in Table 75.

**Table 75: The design features of Task 1 and Task 2**

Task	Topic	Guided research: To research...	Information gap: To exchange information on...	Opinion sharing: To discuss the pros/cons of...	Decision-making: To decide...
Task 1	Travel	A place you would like to travel to.	Local language, famous sites, cost of living, food, cost of travel, history	Traveling to each destination	Which destination to travel to and activities to do.
Task 2	Nature	One endangered animal.	Appearance, habitat, population, diet, challenges	Spending money to save each animal	Which animal to spend money on and how to help the animal

The differences between Task 1 and Task 2 pertain to *control* and *topic*. Both topics were based on units in the course textbook. Task 1's topic of travel is highly relevant for university students, who can easily draw on knowledge from personal experience. The final outcome involved deciding on a travel itinerary that they could practically implement in the future, resulting in 'real-world' discourse. In contrast, the topic of Task 2 (Nature) is considerably more abstract, which often led to challenging discussions of science and the use of unfamiliar language. The decision-making portion had students consider the hypothetical "if we had one billion yen, how would we spend the money to help our endangered animal?" This resulted in a discussion that students are unlikely to have in real life. Furthermore, during Task 1, students had complete control over the content. That is, for the task preparation research activity, students chose a city – *any city* – and researched information such as cost of living, currency, and attractions. Task 2's, in contrast, provided students with a choice between four endangered animals. Thus, it is possible that students entered their Task 2 performances having little interest or knowledge in the task.

The comparison of Task 1 and Task 2 highlight two important features that generate successful interaction. In hindsight, it would have been better to select topics for all tasks that were more grounded in potential real-life scenarios and provide students with more control over the content of each task.

### 10.4.3. Task repetition

Finally, this research sheds some light on ways in which task repetition could be implemented. The effect of task repetition was only explicitly investigated only in Chapter 7. From this part of the study, there were two interesting results: (1) motivational flow scores significantly decreased from Task performance 1 to Task performance 2 (in the absence of inter-cultural contact), and (2) there was a pattern of increasing flow scores from task to task within the repeated performance. Thus, we can conclude that *task repetition* (i.e., repetition of the content and procedure) had a negative effect on motivation, but *procedural* repetition (i.e., repetition of procedure but with content changes) had a positive effect on repetition (similar to the findings of Kim, 2013). In light of these results, teachers who are concerned with maintaining high levels of motivation and engagement may want to consider varying the content of the tasks while maintaining the same task procedures. New content provides input that challenges the learner, but familiar task processes give learners the opportunity to build on skills related to completing tasks successfully. If repeated tasks include similar outcomes and time constraints, and require similar reasoning skills to complete, task expectations become clear, which helps initial motivation in subsequent tasks.

### 10.5. Methodological implications

There are several methodological aspects of this study that provide some unique insights into L2 motivation and learning.

Firstly, the study took a process-product approach, investigating both motivation and language learning processes and outcomes. Various kinds of data were collected to address the effect of inter-cultural contact from a range of perspectives. Despite considerable developments in the field of L2 motivation, “L2 motivation research continues to lie outside mainstream SLA” (Ellis, 2012, p. 700). In taking this approach, I brought these two disparate fields in SLA together into one study. Ultimately, this resulted in a comprehensive evaluation of a classroom intervention.

Secondly, the study applied motivational constructs to investigate a classroom intervention (i.e. quasi-experimental design). The purpose of most L2 motivation research has been to investigate what motivation is and to identify motivational factors while fewer studies are focused on how to motivate language learners (Dörnyei & Ottó, 1998). For instance, the vast

majority of studies employing the L2 motivational self system have served to only validate the theory in different contexts (e.g. Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005; Taguchi, Magid, & Papi, 2009; Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Ryan, 2008, 2009b). In contrast, this study has applied the theory to examine the effectiveness of a treatment on motivation.

Thirdly, this study employed a self-reported learning chart to measure the perceived learning outcomes of oral, dialogic tasks. This method has previously been used in teacher-fronted classes (Nabei, 2012a, 2012b; Palmeira, 1995; Slimani, 1989, 1992). This provided a way of assessing incidental learning coming entirely from student-student task-based interaction that was not influenced by an instructional focus.

Finally, the LRE classification framework used in this study has expanded on previous research. A classification framework is integral to any discourse analytic approach. A criticism of this approach in general is that any attempt to analyze interaction in this way involves a substantial degree of simplification and reduction (Walsh, 2006). I would argue that this is especially true of studies that have attempted to identify and classify LREs, with most frameworks including only two categories: linguistic focus and resolution. In an effort to provide a more nuanced analysis, I drew on FFE studies involving teacher-student interactions (Ellis et al., 2001; Loewen, 2005), to include the additional the categories of LRE complexity and type, and further distinguished between LREs that were resolved with and without uptake. This provided a more complex picture of intra-cultural and inter-cultural interaction.

### **10.5. Limitations and suggestions for future research**

Upon reflecting on the design and implementation of this study, several limitations can be identified, which may serve to direct future studies in this area.

Firstly, a significant methodological limitation of this study is use of questionnaires. The most obvious limitations of using such instruments are that (1) resulting data tends to be superficial, (2) unmotivated students may corrupt the data, (3) students answers may have a bias towards the most 'socially desirable' answers, (4) students may agree with statements that they are unsure about, and (5) fatigue may affect the quality of answers given. Although care was taken to pilot questionnaires and make items understandable, it cannot be ignored that relying on questionnaire data does not provide the complete picture. This limitation is perhaps most applicable to the measurement of the L2 motivational self system, in which a pre- and post-questionnaire design was chosen to investigate changes in self system variables. The

questionnaire data provides a ‘freeze frame/snapshot’ perspective on motivation at two specific points in time, and therefore do not reveal much about the motivational trajectory as learners progressed through the treatment.

A second related limitation is the way in which the data was analyzed. Even though both qualitative and quantitative data were collected, the focus was on averaged group data. In this kind of analysis, each groups’ central tendencies have been foregrounded – tendencies that may not be true of any particular learner in the sample (Dornyei, 2009; Ushioda, 2009). A multiple case study approach may have revealed some different patterns in the data. Future studies, therefore, could take a complex dynamic systems perspective (Dornyei et al., 2015), which emphasizes the significance of individual learner development, offering a more a fine-grained approach.

Thirdly, past research into inter-cultural contact in language learning environments has been dominated by self-report questionnaires – a legacy that Kormos and Csizér (2007) has argued is “...insufficient, especially in the case of monolingual foreign language learning environments” (p. 242). Although this study represents a novel attempt at understanding the thought-processes of learners coping with inter-cultural encounters, data collected to measure motivational flow (questionnaires and learner diaries) represent self-reported experiences, which may not reflect participants’ true experiences. Perhaps, the results would have been even more robust if observational data were included in the analysis.

Fourthly, there were some problems regarding the reliability of self-reported learning charts. In this study, there were three problems with this approach: (1) learners had difficulty categorizing recalled items, (2) almost 10% of the recalled items did not appear in the transcripts, and (3) only 20% of the learned items emerged from language-related discussions. Perhaps what was needed to minimize problem (1) is a more rigorous training session on how to label linguistic items coupled with the requirement of explaining recalled items (possibly in the L1). Interviews that retroactively probe learners responses may also provide solutions to problems (2) and (3). Despite Eckerth’s (2003) finding that recall charts provide a reliable measure of how learners perceive what they learned, it may be the case this instrument was not suitable for this context.

Finally, it could be argued that the construct of flow is best suited to an investigation into flow-states of separate, distinct learning tasks rather than changes in flow over a series of related tasks, as was done in this study. An implication of applying the construct of flow to the

measurement of discrete but connected activities is that it most likely became difficult for learners to distinguish between – and then report on – feelings associated with short-term flow (i.e. within a single task) and long-term flow (i.e. between tasks). Perhaps learners in this study were experiencing what Dörnyei, Ibrahim, and Muir (2015) refer to as a Directed Motivational Current (DMC), or “an intense motivational drive which is capable of both stimulating and supporting long-term behavior” (p. 9). DMCs are seen as “the temporal expansion of the flow mechanism through the addition of a sustainable temporal and behavioral structure to the one-off flow experience” (Dörnyei et al., 2015, p. 102). Though this study was conceived before the DMC construct was first proposed, future research investigating changes in flow over a period of time may want to consider using this newly proposed construct.

## **10.6. Final comment**

This thesis represents a research process that has been a highly satisfying experience for me both as a researcher and as a teacher at a Japanese university. After having first-hand experience teaching at an international university, I recognized that frequent inter-cultural contact can not only provide Japanese learners with an input rich environment, but also connect them to the English-speaking world, thereby fostering a sense of purpose for learning English. I believe this thesis shows not only the motivational and learning benefits of inter-cultural contact, but also that it is possible to create these opportunities in EFL classrooms on Japanese campuses that are generally thought of as monocultural and monolingual.

Examining the demographics of Japanese universities, it is tempting to make generalizations about how Japanese university environments are devoid of inter-cultural contact opportunities. In fact, it has become commonplace for reports of research conducted in the Japan to provide vivid descriptions of how learners have few opportunities for face-to-face communication with English speakers (e.g. Ryan, 2008; Yashima et al., 2004). While one cannot argue that there are very few English-speaking communities in Japan, international students at universities do exist, and considering the recent governmental efforts aimed at internationalizing higher education, their numbers will continue to get larger. The findings in this thesis represent an opportunity for EFL teachers at Japanese universities to capitalize on this growing but underutilized foreign community.

Historically, Japan has always found novel ways of overcoming its challenges. Currently, Japan is attempting to deal with two interrelated problems: the internationalization of



higher education and the improvement of the English language skills of its citizens. The meaning of 'internationalization' as used in Japanese educational discourse may be vague, and how it relates to English education at Japanese universities certainly varies from institution to institution, but typically this will involve integrating an inter-cultural dimension into the university infrastructure. This thesis is, in a small way, an attempt to show how an inter-cultural dimension can be integrated into a Japanese EFL classroom. Empowered by these results, I hope to implement change in my current university program and look forward to disseminating these results so that other teachers can reap similar benefits in their classrooms.

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## Appendix A: Ethics Forms



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### PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET FOR EFL STUDENT

**Project title:** Effect of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation and learning

**Name of Researcher:** Scott Aubrey

#### **Researcher introduction**

My name is Scott Aubrey. I am doctoral student at the University of Auckland enrolled in a Ph.D. degree program in the Department of Applied Language Studies and Linguistics. I am conducting this research for my thesis, which will fulfill the requirement of my Ph.D. in Second language Teaching and Learning.

#### **Project description and invitation**

The aim of my research is to look at the effects of inter-cultural contact on foreign language motivation and learning. More specifically, this project will bring together international students and Japanese EFL students to participate in classroom tasks. The effect of the interaction that arises from these tasks will be investigated.

You are invited to participate in my research. You have been chosen because your teacher has agreed conduct my research activities in your class. You have also been chosen because your English proficiency is at a suitable level. I would like for all of your classmates to participate as well. Therefore, if you choose not to participate, your teacher will provide you with extra classroom work while other students participate in my research activities. I would appreciate any help you can offer me.

#### **Project Procedures**

If you decide to participate in my research, I would like you to do the following:

- 1) Firstly, complete a background questionnaire. The purpose of this questionnaire is to understand your experience learning English, what languages you normally speak, and your experience talking in English to non-Japanese speakers. This will take about 15 minutes to complete.
- 2) Secondly, complete a motivation questionnaire. The purpose of this questionnaire is to understand and assess your motivation to study English and your attitudes towards the international community. This will be given twice during the semester and will take about 20 minutes to complete.
- 3) Thirdly, participate in 10 language-learning tasks. These tasks have been designed to help you understand foreign culture and help you practice your speaking skills. Each speaking task will take about 25 minutes each to complete and will be done in class. It will take one semester (13 weeks) to complete these tasks. Your class is one of two EFL classes chosen for this research. International, English-speaking students will be invited to participate in five language learning tasks for one class. Your class MAY be chosen to do this.
- 4) Fourthly, complete a self-reported learning chart and task motivation questionnaire. The purpose of doing this is to understand what you have learned during the performance of the tasks and understand how much you liked doing the tasks. These will be completed after you complete each task. They will take about 10 minutes to complete.
- 5) Finally, write weekly diaries of your experience doing the tasks. You will do these diaries in Japanese. The purpose of these diaries is so I can understand how you feel while doing the tasks. These will be done for homework and take about 5 minutes.

The results of this study will be reported in my thesis for the Ph.D. degree at the University of Auckland; however, any information you provide will be reported in a way that will not identify your name, the names of other students, your teacher, or the university. Any information you provide me with will be kept and used by me only if you give your explicit consent. Your responses to the background questionnaire, diaries, the motivation questionnaires, the learning charts and task motivation questionnaires will be reported in a final paper, but your identity will be kept confidential. In addition, the original data will be securely stored in a locked cabinet and destroyed after 6 years. After this time, all digitally recorded data will be deleted, and all questionnaires will be shredded.

Your participation is voluntary, and the decision to participate will not affect the your grade in any way on the authority of the director of the Language Center at Kwansai Gakuin University. If you have any complaints about the intrusiveness of the research, you may complain to the researcher. In addition, you may withdraw yourself and any information you provide, without giving reasons, at any time up to January 10<sup>th</sup>, 2014. In this case, any information you have provided will not be used for the analysis and report. If you do wish to participate in the research, a summary of the results will be sent to you upon your request by email after the data have been analyzed and reported. This complete report should be completed by August, 2015. If

you are willing to allow me to participate in this research, please complete and sign the enclosed Consent Form.

Thank you very much for your time and help in making this study possible. If you have any queries or wish to have more information please contact me or my supervisor, Distinguished Professor Rod Ellis.

My contact details are:

Scott Aubrey

B303 Cannan House, 3-8 Kamikotoen 1-chome, Nishinomiya-shi

Hyogo, Japan

Email: [saub003@aucklanduni.ac.nz](mailto:saub003@aucklanduni.ac.nz)

Phone: 09098216286

My Supervisor is:

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For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373-7599 extn. 87830/83761. Email: [humanethics@auckland.ac.nz](mailto:humanethics@auckland.ac.nz).

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 22 February, 2013 for (3) years, Reference Number 2013/8978



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### 参加者への研究に関する情報

研究名：L2 のモチベーションと学習上の異文化効果

研究者：Scott Aubrey

#### 研究者について

私はオークランド大学の博士後期課程で第二言語習得及び教育研究科に所属する Scott Aubrey です。今回、この博士後期課程の必修の一つとして、以下の試験的研究を行います。

#### 研究背景と目的及び参加依

この研究の目的は異文化接触がもたらす外国語習得における意欲と言語習得への影響を知るためです。具体的には留学生と日本人の外国語学習者が授業内で一緒に課題を行います。これらの課題をとおして起こる相互作用の効果を、この研究の対象として分析されます。あなたは、私の研究参加に招待されました。あなたは選ばれました。なぜなら、あなたの先生は、あなたのクラスで私の研究活動を行うことに賛成しました。また あなたの英語の実力が適当なレベルであるからです。以下の内容を読んで同意して頂ける場合には、是非この研究に参加してもらいたいと思っています。

#### 研究手順

この研究に参加するならば、以下を確認して下さい。

- 1) まず、背景アンケートを完成させて下さい。このアンケートの目的は、あなたが普通に話す言語、英語学習の経験、および非日本語話者と英語での会話経験を理解することです。これは 15 分程かかります。
- 2) 第 2 に、動機アンケートを完成させて下さい。このアンケートの目的は、国際社会に向けて、あなたの心構えと英語学習の動機を理解する為です。これは、学期中に 2 回与えられ、20 分程かかります。
- 3) 第 3 に、10 言語学習課題に参加して下さい。これらの課題は、あなたが外国の文化を理解し、あなたのスピーキングスキルの練習に役立つよう計画されています。各スピ

ーキング課題は、それぞれが 25 分程かかり、クラスで行われます。各課題を行っている間、音声録音されます。これらすべての課題を行うには 1 学期 (13 週間) かかります。あなたのクラスは、この研究のために選択された 2 つの EFL クラスの 1 つです。留学生及び英語話者の学生は 1 クラスの 5 言語学習課題に参加するために招待されます。あなたのクラスは、これを行う為に選ばれるかもしれません。

- 4) 第 4 に、自己報告学習チャートと課題動機に関するアンケートに記入してもらいます。これを行う目的は、この課題を通してあなたが学んだ事及び、どの程度興味をもったかについて理解するためです。これらは各課題を行った後に完成させて下さい。10 分程かかります。
- 5) 最後に、この課題を通してあなたがの経験したことを毎週、日記に書いて下さい。これらの日記は日本語で書いて下さい。この目的は、この課題を通して何を感じたか理解する為です。これらは宿題で、5 分程かかります。

この研究に同意して頂いた場合、集められたあなたに関する全ての情報は研究者によってこの研究の為のみに管理され使用されます。背景アンケート、日誌、動機アンケート、学習チャート、言語に関する質問用紙は研究論文に使われますが、その際、参加者のプライバシーは厳守されます。加えてあなたに関する全ての情報は施錠された場所で保存され、6 年後破棄されます。その際、データ化された記録は削除され、全てのアンケートはシュレッダーされます。あなたの参加は自由です。研究への参加の有無によって、学生がいかなる不利益な対応を受けないことを関西学院大学の言語センター長によって保証されています。もし、この研究によって不快な経験をしたり、精神的に負担となる思いをした場合には、研究者に直接抗議する権利があります。更に、研究への参加辞退を 2014 年 1 月 10 日までのいかなる時点でも理由を説明することなく撤回することができます。その際、全ての情報の破棄を求めることができます。この場合、あなたに関する全ての情報は分析や論文に使用されることはありません。この研究に参加し、その結果を知りたい場合にはメールでそれを研究者に要求することができます。データが分析され、レポートされた後に結果はあなたに届けられます。この全レポートは 2015 年 8 月までに完成させて下さい。

この研究に参加したい場合は、同封の同意書にサインして下さい。

この研究にご協力頂き、本当にありがとうございます。あなたの参加意思とそれに費やす時間によって、この研究は成り立っています。もし、質問や更に詳しい情報が必要な場合には研究者又は、研究指導者 Professor Rod Ellis に問い合わせをして下さい。

連絡先：

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B303 Cannan House, 3-8 Kamikotoen 1-chome, Nishinomiya-shi

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もし少しでも人権倫理に関する質問がある場合には研究指導者に問い合わせをして下さい。  
The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of  
Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373-7599 extn.  
87830/83761. Email: [humanethics@auckland.ac.nz](mailto:humanethics@auckland.ac.nz).

2013年2月22日オークランド大学の人間参加倫理委員会によって承認参照番号 2013/8978



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**CONSENT FORM FOR EFL STUDENTS  
THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS**

**Project title:** Effect of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation and learning

**Name of Researcher:** Scott Aubrey

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, have understood the nature of the research and why I have been selected. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction.

- I agree to take part in this research.
- I understand that the research will last 13 weeks
- I understand that I will perform 10 spoken tasks
- I understand that I will complete a background questionnaire, task motivation questionnaires, and motivation questionnaires.
- I understand that I will write diaries after the last five tasks.
- I understand that I will be recorded during my performance in each task
- I understand that English-speaking international students MAY be invited to my class to participate in activities with me
- I understand that I am free to withdraw participation at any time, and to withdraw any data traceable to me up to January 10<sup>th</sup>, 2014
- I understand that if I wish to see a summary of the findings, I can make this request by e-mail to the researcher – saub003@aucklanduni.ac.nz
- I understand that data will be kept for 6 years, after which they will be destroyed.

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS  
COMMITTEE ON 22 February, 2013 for (3) years, Reference Number 2013/8978



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### 研究同意書

この用紙は、6年間保管されます。

研究名：L2のモチベーションと学習上の異文化効果

研究者：Scott Aubrey

私は以上の「参加者へのこの研究に関する情報」を読み、担当者より以下の事項につきまして十分な説明を受けました。また、この研究に関する質疑応答をする機会を与えられ、それらは十分に対応されました。

- 私はこの研究に参加する事に同意します。
- 私はこの研究が13週間に及ぶことを理解します。
- 私はこの研究に関する10個の口語課題を行うことを理解します。
- 私は、背景アンケート、課題動機アンケート、および動機アンケートを完成させることを理解します。
- 最後の5つの課題後に日記を書くことを理解します。
- 各課題を行っている最中にそのやりとりが録音されることを理解します。
- 英語話者の留学生は、共に最後の5つの課題に取り組む為、私の授業に招待されるかもしれないことを理解します。
- 私はこの研究への参加を自由に辞退することができ、また、2014年1月10日までに収集されたいかなるデータも取り消すことができることを理解します。
- この研究結果の要約を見たい場合は、研究者(saub003@aucklanduni.ac.nz)にメールで依頼できることを理解します
- このデータが6年間保管され、その後、破棄されることを理解します。

名前 \_\_\_\_\_

サイン \_\_\_\_\_ 日付 \_\_\_\_\_

2013年2月22日オークランド大学の人間参加倫理委員会によって承認参照番号2013/8978





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## **PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET FOR INTERNATIONAL STUDENT**

**Project title:** Effect of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation and learning

**Name of Researcher:** Scott Aubrey

### **Researcher introduction**

My name is Scott Aubrey. I am doctoral student at the University of Auckland enrolled in a Ph.D. degree program in the Department of Applied Language Studies and Linguistics. I am conducting this research for my thesis, which will fulfill the requirement of my Ph.D. in Second language Teaching and Learning.

### **Project description and invitation**

The aim of my research is to look at the effects of inter-cultural contact on foreign language motivation and learning. More specifically, this project will bring together international students and Japanese EFL students to participate in classroom tasks. The effect of the interaction that arises from these tasks will be investigated.

You are invited to participate in my research. You have been chosen because you are a non-Japanese English-speaker at Kwansei Gakuin University. I would appreciate any help you can offer me.

### **Project Procedures**

If you decide to participate in my research, I would like you to do the following:

- 1) Complete a background questionnaire. This will take approximately 10 minutes and is designed to collect information about your nationality, language background, gender, and English proficiency.
- 2) Attend one one-hour workshop where I will explain in more detail the purpose of the study and distribute materials that you will need during the research period.

- 3) Attend five EFL classes, once a week (total of five weeks). You will be present for approximately 45 minutes each class.
- 4) Participate in 5 language-learning tasks during each class. This will involve face-to-face interaction in spoken English. These tasks have been designed to help Japanese EFL students understand foreign culture and help them practice their speaking skills with non-Japanese English-speakers like you. Each speaking task will take about 25 minutes each to complete. During all of the speaking tasks, I will audio-record your interaction with a Japanese EFL student.

I will transcribe the interactions you have with Japanese students, which will then be used in my analysis. The results of this study will be reported in my PhD thesis; however, any information you give me will be reported in a way that will not identify your name, the names of other students, or the university. Any information you provide me with will be kept and used by me only if you give your explicit consent. Your responses to the background questionnaire and the transcription of your audio-recorded interactions will be reported in a final paper, but your identity will be kept confidential. In addition, the original data will be securely stored in a locked cabinet and destroyed after 6 years. After this period, all digitally recorded data will be deleted, and all questionnaires will be shredded.

Participation of students is voluntary, and the decision to participate will not affect your grade in any way on the authority of the director of the Language Center at Kwansai Gakuin University. If you have any complaints about the intrusiveness of the research, you may complain to the researcher. In addition, you may withdraw yourself and any information you provide, without giving reasons, at any time up to January 10<sup>th</sup>, 2014. In this case, any information you have provided will not be used for the analysis and report. If you do wish to participate in the research, a summary of the results will be sent to you upon your request by email after the data have been analysed and reported. This complete report should be completed by August, 2015. If you are willing to allow me to participate in this research, please complete and sign the enclosed Consent Form.

Thank you very much for your time and help in making this study possible. If you have any queries or wish to have more information please contact me or my supervisor, Dist. Prof. Rod Ellis.

My contact details are:

Scott Aubrey

B303 Cannan House, 3-8 Kamikotoen 1-chome, Nishinomiya-shi

Hyogo, Japan

Email: saub003@aucklanduni.ac.nz

Phone: 09098216286

My Supervisor is:

Distinguished Professor Rod Ellis

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Phone: + 64 9 373 7599 Ext. 88197

For any queries regarding ethical concerns you may contact the Chair, The University of Auckland Human Participants Ethics Committee, The University of Auckland, Research Office, Private Bag 92019, Auckland 1142. Telephone 09 373-7599 extn. 87830/83761. Email: [humanethics@auckland.ac.nz](mailto:humanethics@auckland.ac.nz).

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS COMMITTEE ON 22 February, 2013 for (3) years, Reference Number 2013/8978



THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND  
NEW ZEALAND

Department of Applied Language Studies and Linguistics  
64 9 373 7599  
The University of Auckland  
Private Bag 92019  
Auckland, New Zealand

**CONSENT FORM FOR INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS  
THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS**

**Project title:** Effect of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation and learning

**Name of Researcher:** Scott Aubrey

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, have understood the nature of the research and why I have been selected. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction.

- I agree to take part in this research.
- I understand that my participation in this research will last five weeks.
- I understand that I will perform five language learning tasks with an Japanese EFL student.
- I understand that I will complete a background questionnaire.
- I understand that I will be audio-recorded during task performances.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw participation at any time, and to withdraw any data traceable to me up to January 10<sup>th</sup>, 2014.
- I understand that if I wish to see a summary of the findings, I can make this request by email to the researcher – saub003@aucklanduni.ac.nz.
- I understand that data will be kept for 6 years, after which they will be destroyed.

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS  
COMMITTEE ON 22 February, 2013 for (3) years, Reference Number 2013/8978



THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND  
NEW ZEALAND

Department of Applied Language Studies and Linguistics  
64 9 373 7599  
The University of Auckland  
Private Bag 92019  
Auckland, New Zealand

## **PARTICIPANT INFORMATION SHEET FOR EFL TEACHER**

**Project title:** Effect of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation and learning

**Name of Researcher:** Scott Aubrey

### **Researcher introduction**

My name is Scott Aubrey. I am doctoral student at the University of Auckland enrolled in a Ph.D. degree in the Department of Applied Language Studies and Linguistics. I am conducting this research for my thesis, which will fulfill part of the requirement of my Ph.D. in Second language Teaching and Learning.

### **Project description and invitation**

The aim of my research is to look at the effects of inter-cultural contact on foreign language motivation and learning. More specifically, this project will bring together international students and Japanese EFL students to participate in classroom tasks. The effect of the interaction that arises from these tasks will be investigated.

You and your students are invited to participate in my research. You have been chosen because you are teaching two identical EFL classes. You have also been chosen because your students' proficiency is at a suitable level for the research I am doing. I would like for you and all of your students in your two EFL classes to participate as well. I would appreciate any help you can offer me.

### **Project Procedures**

If you decide to participate in my research, I would like you to do the following:

- 1) First, I would like you to implement 10 language-learning tasks for your students to perform. These tasks have been designed by me (the researcher) to help your students understand foreign culture and practice their speaking skills. Each speaking task will take about 25 minutes of your class time once a week for your students to complete. Therefore, part of 10 class will be taken up with these tasks.

- 2) Second, I would like to give a 16-item background questionnaire to each of your students who agree to participate. This will be completed during classroom time. The purpose of this is to find out what language learning experiences your students have had. It will take about 5 minutes for students to fill out.
- 3) Third, for students who agree to take part in the study, I would like to administer a 36-item motivation questionnaire during class time. This will be administered at week 1 and at week 13 of the research. The purpose of this questionnaire is to measure students' motivational levels before and after the tasks are performed. This will take about 20 minutes for students to complete.
- 4) Fourth, I would like students to complete a self-report learning chart and task motivation questionnaire after they complete each task. This will take about 10 minutes for students to complete. The purpose of the chart is to find out what learners have learned during the task, while the questionnaire will tell me how motivated they were.
- 5) Fifth, I would like students to write weekly audio diaries of their experience doing the tasks. Students will complete these at home and it will not interfere with your class time. These will be done for homework and will take your students about 5 minutes to complete.
- 6) Fifth, I would like to record each student interaction as they perform each task. The purpose of this is so I can analyze their interaction.
- 7) Finally, I would like to invite 24 international English-speaking students to one of your two participating classes. These students will come to your classroom and perform five speaking tasks with your EFL students from one class. The purpose of this is to see what effect there is on your students' motivation and learning from having contact with international students.

Overall, you and your students in two EFL classes will be spending about one hour of class time each week to help me with my research activities.

The results of this study will be reported in my thesis for the Ph.D. degree at the University of Auckland; however, any information you or your students provide will be reported in a way that will not identify you or your students' names, or the university. Any information you or your students provide me with will be kept and used by me only if you give your explicit consent. Your students' responses to the background questionnaire, the motivation questionnaires, the self-report learning charts, and task motivation questionnaires will be kept confidential. In addition, the original data will be securely stored in a locked cabinet and destroyed after 6 years. After this time, all digitally recorded data will be deleted, and all questionnaires will be shredded.

Your participation and the participation of students is voluntary and will not affect your job in any way on the authority of the director of the Language Center at Kwansei Gakuin University. If you have any complaints about the intrusiveness of the research, you may complain the researcher. In addition, you may withdraw yourself and your class and any information you or your students provide, without giving reasons, at any time up to January 10<sup>th</sup>, 2014. In this case,

any information you have provided will not be used for the analysis and report. This complete report should be completed by August, 2015. If you are willing to allow me to participate in this research, please complete and sign the enclosed Consent Form.

Thank you very much for your time and help in making this study possible. If you have any queries or wish to have more information please contact me or my supervisor, Dist. Prof. Rod Ellis.

My contact details are:

Scott Aubrey

B303 Cannan House, 3-8 Kamikotoen 1-chome, Nishinomiya-shi

Hyogo, Japan

Email: [saub003@aucklanduni.ac.nz](mailto:saub003@aucklanduni.ac.nz)

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My Supervisor is:

Distinguished Professor Rod Ellis

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Auckland, New Zealand

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The Head of Department is:

Associate Professor John Read

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Private Bag 92019

Auckland

Email: [ja.read@auckland.ac.nz](mailto:ja.read@auckland.ac.nz)

Phone: + 64 9 373 7599 Ext. 88197

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Department of Applied Language Studies and Linguistics  
64 9 373 7599  
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**CONSENT FORM FOR EFL TEACHER  
THIS FORM WILL BE HELD FOR A PERIOD OF 6 YEARS**

**Project title:** Effect of inter-cultural contact on L2 motivation and learning

**Name of Researcher:** Scott Aubrey

I have read the Participant Information Sheet, have understood the nature of the research and why I have been selected. I have had the opportunity to ask questions and have them answered to my satisfaction.

- I agree to take part in this research.
- I understand that the research will last 13 weeks
- I understand that 10 tasks will be performed by students in two of my classes.
- I understand that my students will write diaries and complete a questionnaire after the last five tasks.
- I understand that my students will complete a background questionnaire in week 1 and motivation questionnaires in week 1 and week 13.
- I understand that my students will be recorded during their performance of each task.
- I understand that English-speaking international students will be invited to one of the classes participating in the study.
- I understand that I am free to withdraw my participation at any time, and to withdraw any data traceable to me up to January 10<sup>th</sup>, 2014
- I understand that if I wish to see a summary of the findings, I can make this request by email to the researcher – saub003@aucklanduni.ac.nz.
- I understand that data will be kept for 6 years, after which they will be destroyed.

E-mail: \_\_\_\_\_

Name \_\_\_\_\_

Signature \_\_\_\_\_ Date \_\_\_\_\_

APPROVED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF AUCKLAND HUMAN PARTICIPANTS ETHICS  
COMMITTEE ON 22 February, 2013 for (3) years, Reference Number 2013/8978



## Appendix B: Task worksheets

### Task research worksheet – Task 1 (Travel)

Homework: Choose a city outside of Japan that you would like to travel to.

Instructions:

- At home, research your city on the Internet.
- Find out information and make notes in the table below.
- You MUST come prepared to talk about your city next class.

\_\_\_\_\_ (*your name*) would like to visit \_\_\_\_\_ (*city*) in \_\_\_\_\_ (*country*).

Type of information	Information on your chosen city
Local language	
Famous sites and festivals	
Cost of living	
The food	
Cost of travel from Japan	
History	
_____	
_____	

Task performance worksheet – Task 1 (Travel)

**Goal 1** (10 minutes): To interview your partner about cities that you would like to travel to.

Instructions:

- Introduce yourself to your task partner and ask what city he/she would like to travel to
- Ask for information about the city your partner would like to travel to and write down the information on this worksheet.

\_\_\_\_\_ (*partner's name*) would like to visit \_\_\_\_\_ (*city*) in \_\_\_\_\_ (*country*).

Type of information	Information on your partner's chosen city
Local language	
Famous sites and festivals	
Cost of living	
The food	
Cost of travel from Japan	
History	
( <i>Your choice</i> ) _____ _____	

**Goal 2** (10 minutes): To decide which city both of you would like to travel to together.

Instructions:

- Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each travel destinations
- Decide on which travel destination you think is the best

City 1: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages	Disadvantages

City 2: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages	Disadvantages

The best city for us to travel to is: \_\_\_\_\_.

**Goal 3** (5 minutes): To decide what to do when you travel to your city together.

Instructions

- Write down activities you can do in your city.

<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1.</li><li>2.</li><li>3.</li><li>4.</li></ol>
---

Task research worksheet – Task 2 (Nature)

Homework: Choose ONE *endangered animal* from the three animals shown below that you would like to save and research that animal:

- **Giant panda**
- **Siberian tiger**
- **Orangutan**
- **Black rhino**
- **Mountain gorilla**
- **Asian elephant**

An *endangered animal* is an animal that is *rare* and is close to becoming *extinct*.

Instructions:

- At home, research your *endangered animal* on the Internet.
- Find out information and make notes in the table below.
- You MUST come prepared to talk about your endangered animal next class.

\_\_\_\_\_ (your name) would like to save the \_\_\_\_\_ (*endangered animal*).

Type of information	Information on your endangered animal.
Appearance	
Habitat	
Population	
Diet	
Problems	
(Your choice) _____	

Task performance worksheet - Task 2 (Nature)

**Goal 1** (10 minutes): To exchange information with your partner about endangered animals that you would like save.

Instructions:

- Introduce yourself to your task partner and ask what endangered animal he/she would like to save
- Ask for information about the animal your partner would like to save to and write down the information on this worksheet.

\_\_\_\_\_ (*partner's name*) would like to save \_\_\_\_\_.

Type of information	Information on your partner's endangered animal
Appearance	
Habitat	
Population	
Diet	
Problems	
( <i>Your choice</i> ) _____ _____	

**Goal 2** (10 minutes): To decide which animal you would like to save

Instructions:

- Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of saving each animal.
- Decide on which animal to save.

Animal 1: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages	Disadvantages

Animal 2: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages	Disadvantages

We would like to save \_\_\_\_\_ (*endangered animal*).

**Goal 3** (5 minutes): To decide how you can help save your animal if you had 1,000,000,000 YEN.

Instructions

- Write down ways you can spend 1,000,000,000 YEN to save your animal.

<ol style="list-style-type: none"><li>1.</li><li>2.</li><li>3.</li><li>4.</li></ol>
---

Task research worksheet – Task 3 (History)

Homework: Choose and research a *famous person in history* you would like to meet if you could go back in time.

Instructions:

- At home, research your person on the Internet.
- Find out information about your person and make notes in the table below.
- You MUST come prepared to talk about your historical person next class.

\_\_\_\_\_ (*your name*) would like meet \_\_\_\_\_ if I could go back in time.

Type of information	Information on your historical person
Birth and death date	
Nationality	
Position/job	
Accomplishments	
Interesting Events	
Public opinion	
<i>(Your choice)</i> _____ _____	

Task performance worksheet – Task 3 (History)

**Goal 1** (10 minutes): To exchange information with your partner about a *famous person in history* you would like to meet if you could go back in time.

Instructions:

- Introduce yourself to your task partner and ask whom he/she would like to meet if he/she could go back in time.
- Ask for information about whom your partner would like to meet and write down the information on this worksheet.

\_\_\_\_\_ (*your partner's name*) would like meet \_\_\_\_\_ if I could go back in time.

Type of information	Information on your partner's historical person
Birth and death date	
Nationality	
Position/job	
Accomplishments	
Interesting Events	
Public opinion	
( <i>Your choice</i> ) _____ _____	



**Goal 2** (10 minutes): To decide which person would be best person to meet if you could travel back in time.

Instructions:

- Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of meeting each person
- Decide on which person you would like to see if you could travel back in time together

Person 1: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages	Disadvantages

Person 2: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages	Disadvantages

We would like to meet \_\_\_\_\_ (*historical person*).

**Goal 3** (5 minutes): To decide what questions you would ask that person if you could meet him/her.

Instructions

- Write down 4 questions you and your partner would ask.

1. 2. 3. 4.
----------------------

Task research worksheet– Task 4 (Careers)

Homework: Choose and research person (not Japanese) who has an interesting job.

Instructions:

- At home, research your person’s job.
- Find out information about your person and make notes in the table below.
- You MUST come prepared to talk about the person’s job next class.

\_\_\_\_\_ (*your name*) thinks that \_\_\_\_\_ has an interesting job..

Type of information	Information on your person’s job
Name of job	
Company	
Job Duties	
Responsibilities	
Qualifications	
Salary	
<i>(Your choice)</i> _____ _____	

Task performance worksheet – Task 4 (Careers)

**Goal 1** (10 minutes): To exchange information with your partner about a *person* who you think has an *interesting job*.

Instructions:

- Introduce yourself to your task partner and ask who he/she thinks has an interesting job.
- Ask for information about a job he/she finds interesting.

\_\_\_\_\_ (*your partner's name*) thinks that \_\_\_\_\_ has an interesting job.

Type of information	Information on your partner's person's job
Name of job	
Company	
Job Duties	
Responsibilities	
Qualifications	
Salary	
( <i>Your choice</i> ) _____ _____	

**Goal 2** (10 minutes): To decide which is the most interesting job.

Instructions:

- Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of each person's job
- Decide on which job would be most interesting to have

Job 1: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages of the job	Disadvantages of the job

Job 2: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages of the job	Disadvantages of the job

We think \_\_\_\_\_ (*job*) is the most interesting job.

**Goal 3** (5 minutes): To decide what you would have to do to get a similar job.

Instructions

- Write down 4 things you would have to do.

1. 2. 3. 4.
----------------------

Task research worksheet – Task 5 (Celebrations)

Homework: Choose and research an interesting foreign celebration.

Instructions:

- At home, research your celebration.
- Find out information about your celebration and make notes in the table below.
- You MUST come prepared to talk about your celebration next class.

\_\_\_\_\_ (*your name*) think that \_\_\_\_\_ is an interesting celebration.

<b>Type of information</b>	<b>Information on your celebration</b>
Location of celebration	
Date of celebration	
History of origin	
Purpose of celebration	
Celebration activities	
Special food	
<i>(Your choice)</i> _____ _____	

Task performance worksheet – Task 5 (Celebrations)

**Goal 1** (10 minutes): To exchange information with your partner about a *celebration* they think is interesting.

Instructions:

- Introduce yourself to your task partner and interview each other about the celebration they find interesting.
- Ask for information about the celebration he/she finds interesting.

\_\_\_\_\_ (*your partner*) thinks that \_\_\_\_\_ is an interesting celebration.

Type of information	Information on your partner's celebration
Location of celebration	
Date of celebration	
Origin	
Purpose of celebration	
Celebration activities	
Special food	
( <i>Your choice</i> ) _____ _____	

**Goal 2** (10 minutes): To decide which celebration you and your partner would like to participate in.

Instructions:

- Discuss the advantages and disadvantages of participating in each celebration
- Decide on which celebration you would like to participate in.

Celebration 1: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages of celebrating	Disadvantages of celebrating

Celebration 2: \_\_\_\_\_

Advantages of celebrating	Disadvantages of celebrating

We would like to participate in \_\_\_\_\_ (*celebration*).

**Goal 3** (5 minutes): To decide what you would have to do to prepare for this celebration.

Instructions

- Write down 4 things you would have to do to prepare for this celebration.

1. 2. 3. 4.
----------------------

## Appendix C: Transcription Conventions

Transcription conventions based on Markee (2011).

### Identity of speakers

Miko: Pseudonym of an identified participant

### Simultaneous utterances

Miko: [yes]

Taka: [yeah] Simultaneous overlapping by two speakers

### Contiguous utterances

= Indicates that there is no gap at all between the two turns.

### Intervals within and between utterances

... Indicates a pause of over 1 second between utterances within the same turn (not Markee, 2011).

### Characteristics of speech delivery

? Rising intonation, not necessarily a question.

Yes. A period indicates falling (final) intonation.

So, A comma indicates low-rising intonation suggesting continuation.

No- A hyphen indicates an abrupt cut-off, with level pitch.

SYLIVA Large capitals indicate loud volume.

### Commentary in the transcript

((unintelligible)) Indicates a stretch of talk that is unintelligible to the analyst.

(radio) Single parenthesis indicate unclear or probable item.

*(first grade)* Single parenthesis with italics indicates translation from another language (not Markee, 2011).

### Other transcription symbols

Co/l/al Slashes indicate phonetic transcription.



## Appendix D: Data collection instruments

### Motivational self system questionnaire

#### Screenshot of questionnaire instructions:

##### Instructions / 回答方法

There will be statements some people agree with and some people don't agree with. We would like to know to what extent they describe your own feelings. After each statement, you'll find seven choices. Please circle the answer which best expresses how true the statement is about your feelings or situation.

私達はあなたの英語学習などに対して感じていることを知りたいです。回答は1から7まであります。以下の文章を読んであなたの気持ちや状況に最も当てはまる数字を選んで丸をつけて下さい。

For example, if you really like apples very much, you might choose "absolutely true"

例えば、もしあなたがリンゴをととても好きなら、回答として「とても当てはまる」を選んで丸をつけて下さい。

Example: I like apples.

例：りんごが好きである。

X 7 Absolutely true / とても当てはまる

6 True / 当てはまる

5 Somewhat true / どちらかと言えば当てはまる

4 Neutral / どちらとも言えない

3 Somewhat untrue / どちらかと言えば当てはまらない

2 Untrue / 当てはまらない

1 Absolutely untrue / とても当てはまらない

#### Items in the order that they appeared in the questionnaire:

1. If an English course was offered at university or somewhere else in the future, I would like to take it. / もし、将来英語の授業が大学などで開講されたら、受講したい。
2. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't study English. / 英語を勉強しなかったら私の人生に良くない影響がある。
3. I find English really interesting. / 英語はとても興味深いと思う。
4. I am not much interested in overseas news. / 海外のニュースにあまり興味がない。
5. I think I am doing my best to learn English. / 私にできる精一杯で英語を勉強していると思う。

6. I'd rather avoid the type of work that sends me overseas frequently. / 外国に頻繁に行かなければならない職種は避けたい。
7. Learning English is necessary because people surrounding me expect me to do so. / 周囲の人間が私が英語ができる事を期待しているから、英語を勉強するのは必須である。
8. I would rather stay in my hometown after graduation. / できる事なら地元にとどまりたい。
9. Compared to my classmates, I think I study English relatively hard. / 私は他のクラスメイトと比較して、英語の勉強を頑張っていると思う。
10. I want to work in a foreign country. / 外国で働きたい。
11. In the future, I can imagine myself as a person who uses English in his or her daily life. / 将来、毎日の生活で英語を使っている自分が想像できる。
12. I want to participate in a volunteer activity to help foreigners living in the surrounding community. 周囲に住んでいる外国人を助けるボランティア活動に参加したい。
13. I would like to have more English classes at university. / 大学で今より多くの英語の授業を履修したい。
14. I have a strong interest in international affairs. / 国際情勢に強い興味がある。
15. In the future, I can imagine myself as a person who understands English movies or music without Japanese subtitles. / 将来、日本語の字幕や翻訳無しで英語の映画や音楽を理解できる自分が想像できる。
16. I really enjoy learning English. / 英語を勉強するのが楽しい。
17. I want to work at an international organization such as the United Nations. / 国連のような国際的な組織で働きたい。
18. In the future, I can imagine myself as a person who has the ability to express his or her opinions or thoughts accurately in English. / 将来、英語で意見や思いを正確に伝える事が出来るようになっている自分が想像できる。
19. I study English because close friends of mine think it is important. / 英語を勉強しているのは、仲の良い友人達が英語を勉強することは大切だと思っているからである。
20. I often read and watch news about foreign countries. / しばしば外国のニュースを読んだり見たりしている。
21. In the future, I can imagine myself as a person who does not hesitate to speak English. / 将来、英語を躊躇せずに話す事のできる自分が想像できる。
22. I wouldn't mind sharing an apartment or room with an international student. / 留学生と一緒に住んでも構わない。
23. I try to avoid talking to foreigners if I can. / 外国人と話すのは出来るだけ避けている。
24. I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning English. / 英語を学ぶために努力を惜しまない覚悟ができています。

25. I always look forward to English classes. / どの英語の授業もいつも楽しみだ。
26. I think that time passes faster while studying English. / 英語を勉強していると時間が過ぎるのが早く感じる。
27. I often talk about situations and events in foreign countries with my family and / or friends. / しばしば家族や友人と、外国で起こっている出来事について話す。
28. I want to make friends with international students studying in Japan. / 日本にいる留学生と友達になりたい。
29. I would feel somewhat uncomfortable if a foreigner moved in next door. / 隣に外国人が引っ越しをしてきたら少し居心地が悪いと感じる。
30. I don't think what's happening overseas has much to do with my daily life. / 海外で起こっている出来事と私の日常は関係がないと思う。
31. I am working hard at learning English. / 英語を学ぶためにたくさん勉強している。
32. I have to study English, because, if I do not study it, I think my parents will be disappointed with me. / もし勉強しなかったら両親が自分に失望すると思うので、英語を勉強しなければならないと思う。
33. In the future, I can imagine myself as a person whose strength is being competent in English. / 将来、的確な英語が使える事を強みとしている自分が想像できる。
34. I would talk to an international student at university if I saw an opportunity. / 大学に留学している学生と機会があれば話がしたい。
35. I am interested in an international career. / 国際的なキャリアに興味がある。
36. My parents believe that I must study English to be an educated person. / 教養のある人間として英語は必須であると両親は信じている。

## Motivational flow questionnaire

### Screenshot of questionnaire instructions:

#### Instructions / 回答方法

There will be statements some people agree with and some people don't agree with. We would like to know to what extent they describe your own feelings. After each statement, you'll find seven choices. Please circle the answer which best expresses how true the statement is about your feelings or situation.

私達はあなたの英語学習などに対して感じていることを知りたいです。回答は1から7まであります。以下の文章を読んであなたの気持ちや状況に最も当てはまる数字を選んで丸をつけて下さい。

For example, if you really like apples very much, you might choose “absolutely true”

例えば、もしあなたがリンゴをととても好きなら、回答として「とても当てはまる」を選んで丸をつけて下さい。

Example: I like apples.

例：りんごが好きである。

X 7 Absolutely true / とても当てはまる

6 True / 当てはまる

5 Somewhat true / どちらかと言えば当てはまる

4 Neutral / どちらとも言えない

3 Somewhat untrue / どちらかと言えば当てはまらない

2 Untrue / 当てはまらない

1 Absolutely untrue / とても当てはまらない

### Items in the order that they appeared in the questionnaire:

1. This task excited my curiosity. / このタスクは私の好奇心をくすぐった。
2. Performing the task was interesting. / タスクを行うことは興味深かった。
3. I felt I had no control over how to perform the task. / この活動は、どのようにこのタスクを進めていくかを自主的に決定できるものではなかった。
4. When doing this task, I was aware of distractions. / このタスクを行っているとき、注意力が散漫していた。
5. While performing the task, I became curious about the task topic. / このタスクを行ったことによって、このタスクで扱ったトピックについて興味が湧いた。
6. This task was fun for me. / このタスクは楽しかった。
7. I would do this task again. / このタスクをまたやりたい。
8. This task allowed me to control what I was doing. / 自主的にこのタスクを進める事ができた。

9. When doing this task, I was totally absorbed in what I was doing. / このタスクをしている時、周囲で起こっている事に全く気がつかないほど、集中していた。
10. This task bored me. / このタスクはつまらなかった。
11. During this task, I could make decisions about what to study and how to study it. / このタスクをしている間、勉強している内容、勉強の進め方について自己決定しながら学ぶことができた。
12. When doing this task, I thought about other things. / このタスクをしている際、別の事を考えていた。
13. This task aroused my imagination. / このタスクは創造力を発揮して行う事ができた。
14. I would do this task even if it were not required. / たとえ必須でなくてもこのタスクを行いたい。

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## Learner diaries

### Screenshot of diary instructions and prompts:

#### Instructions

Please **describe your feelings in written Japanese** about this task you performed today. Below are rules you should follow:

\*あなたが感じた事を日本語で書いてください。以下に、いくつか守って頂きたいルールがあります。

・ Please **write** in Japanese, not English.

\*英語ではなく、日本語で書いて下さい。

・ Please **write at least 6 sentences**.

\*6文以上で書いて下さい。

To help guide you through your diary entry, please try to answer the following questions:

あなたのオーディオダイアリーをより意味のあるものとするために、できるだけ以下の質問に答えるようにして下さい。

1. How well do you feel you did the task?

今日のタスクはどれくらいよくできたと思いますか。

2. How did you feel about your performance **during** the task?

あなたがこのタスクを行っている最中、あなたの英語力に関してどう感じましたか。

3. Would you like to do this activity again? Why / Why not?

この活動をもう一度したいですか。それは何故（したい／したくない）ですか。

4. Did you like working with your task partner? Why? Why not?

このタスクと一緒に活動を行ったパートナーはあなたにとって活動をし易い相手でしたか。それとも難しかったですか。またそれは何故ですか。

5. Is there anything else you would like to say? If yes, **write it**.

他に何か感想や意見はありますか。どのような事でも構いません。あれば、是非教えて下さい

## Screenshot of example diary entry provided to students:

Example diary entry:

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Today I completed a task in English class in pairs with an a classmate. We talked about which city was the best to travel to during summer holidays. I felt nervous because I am not a confident English speaker and I don't have much experience talking about this topic. However, I prepared for the task so I was excited to practice expressing my opinions using English. I didn't know what to expect from my speaking partner because I don't know much about China, but I was looking forward to learning about Chinese culture and getting feedback on my English. When the task started, I felt anxious because I couldn't remember any of the vocabulary, but my partner helped me, which made me more confident. I also was impressed with how my partner talked slowly and taught me many words that were useful. Half way through the task, I began to talk more fluently and confidently. I learned many things about China and I felt I completed the task very well. After I finished the task, I was sad because I wanted the task to last longer. This is very rare because I usually find English class boring. I didn't think it would be an interesting task, but after my attitude changed and I thought the task was a great learning experience. I want to do the activity again because I have many more opinions to express. I felt it was better to learn by talking in a task than by listening to the teacher. My task partner was a really good English speaker and she was a great person to talk to. I think I can learn a lot from talking to her. She taught me vocabulary, pronunciation and I even learned about cities in China. I can't wait to do a task like this again. I will am determined to practice my English more this week.

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今日私は英語の授業の中で、留学生と一緒にペアになって活動を行いました。私達は夏休みに旅行に行くのに一番良い場所について話しました。最初は自分自信の英語に自信がなくて緊張しました。そして留学生とについて話をすること、今まであまり経験した事はありませんでした。けれど、この活動の為に様々な準備を重ねていたので、自分の意見を留学生と英語で交換することがとても楽しみでもありました。私は中国の文化についてあまりよくしなかったの、私のパートナーと話す事で何が得られるのか、あまりはっきりとは想像できていませんでした。ただ、中国の文化について学んだり、私の英語に関してよりよいアドバイスが貰えるのではと思い、楽しみにしていました。タスクが始まった時、準備した語彙を緊張のあまり忘れてしまい、不安でいっぱいになりました。しかし、パートナーの学生が助けてくれたお陰で、少しだけ自信を持って話す事ができました。さらに、彼女はゆっくりと話しながら、役にたつ語彙をたくさん教えてくれました。タスクが半分くらい終了したところで、私は今までより、流暢にそして自信を持って話している自分に気づきました。私は中国についてたくさんの事を学び、このタスクをとっても満足して終えることができました。そしてこのタスクを終えたとき、私はもっと長くこの活動をしたいと寂しく感じました。普段、英語の授業がつまらないと感じている私にとってこのできごととはとても珍しいことでした。最初はこのタスクが興味深いとは思いませんでしたが、パートナーのお陰で積極的な態度をもって活動を行うことができ、とても良い、経験となりました。もっと意見を交換したいので、また同じタスクをしたいです。タスクを通じて会話をする事は先生の話聞くよりも勉強になると思いました。私のパートナーは中国人でとてもよい人でした。中国の人と話す事は日本人と話すよりも学ぶ事が多いとも感じました。具体的には彼女から英語の語彙、発音そして日本と中国の英語教育の違いについても教えてくれました。次にまた、留学生と一緒にタスクを行う機会がとても待ち遠しいです。彼女と次にあう機会に備えて今週英語を一生懸命練習したいと思います。

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