Crossing the Rubicon:

An idiodynamic investigation into the

relationship between willingness to

communicate and learner talk

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Thesis Summary

The 'learning to talk, talking to learn' paradigm is applied in language classes worldwide. In Japan, a lack of authentic practice opportunities; a focus on exams and exam-English; a fear of cultural degradation; and memory-focused, teacher-centered learning styles all hinder language acquisition efforts.

To enable learners to interact and access more affordances for linguistic development, I undertook a study into willingness to communicate in the second language (WTC). I investigated the following three research questions:

Q1. What factors impact WTC in the classroom?

Q2. What, if any, are the differences between immediate-WTC and classroom talk?

Q3. What factors facilitate or impede realisation of WTC into classroom talk?

Using a novel idiodynamic methodology, I collected and triangulated video data; stimulated recall data; and trait-, class-, and idiodynamic WTC ratings to develop coherent explanations for cognitive and affective phenomena that influenced learners' in-class actions.

I categorised learner talk and conversational behaviours into themes, such as dominance and control, proactive turn-taking, and facilitative turn-sharing actions. Then, I juxtaposed learners' talk with WTC ratings and found that multiple motivators of talk could coincide and be in conflict. I also found a talk—feedback effect that led to unpredictable changes in WTC ratings. In response, I reconceptualised WTC as a complex, dynamic WTC—talk system. I then delineated factors that promoted a desire to communicate from factors that acted as a prerequisite for talk, and I developed a model of WTC—talk realisation.

Some of the findings are culturally specific, for example: compulsion to talk in the classroom, particular listening-only behaviours, and restrictive perceptions of turn-taking rules. To this end, I used Dörnyei and Tseng's (2009) Motivational Task Processing System to investigate Wen and Clément's (2003) cultural framework, 'other-directedness'. Findings indicate that other-directedness is a valid construct, which acts as a culturally situated decision-making framework.

Key Words: willingness to communicate, idiodynamic methodology, complex dynamic systems theory, affordances for language acquisition, other-directedness

Dedication

To Kokomi and Milan:

Ordinary day
Laugh, cry, smile, shout
My universe

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It is impossible to acknowledge all the people who have helped and supported me during my studies. Some people, however, have had a direct hand in the completion of this work, so I would like to take this opportunity to say thank you to them. First, none of this research could have been completed without the kind cooperation of the current and former students, teachers, and coordinators at APU. I count many of you amongst my friends, and although I don't have space to name you all individually, I am sure I will see you all at the beach and / or the bar sometime soon. To the ever-dependable Mr. Lance Stilp without whom the whole project would have fallen at the first hurdle, I would like to say an enormous 'THANK YOU'.

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I have also been surrounded by my wonderful family. Especially, Joseph, Lizzie, Nancy, and Steve for all their efforts to make things happen; and Dad whose fortitude in the face of adversity is simply astounding. Mum, I wish you could have been around to see me finish this, I know you would have been proud. Finally, thank you to Yumiko, who has managed to drag me away from the computer and out into the sunshine on a weekly basis.

CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS

EFL	English as a Foreign Language
WTC or WTC L2	Willingness to Communicate in a second language
WTC L1	Willingness to Communicate in a first language
APU	Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University
ELP	English Language Program of APU
EMI	English as a Medium of Instruction
CA	Conversation Analysis
CDST	Complex Dynamic Systems Theory
MTPS	Motivational Task Processing System
ELT	English Language Teaching
L1	First language
L2	Second Language
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
TOEIC	Test of English for International Communication
IELTS	International English Language Testing System
FCE	First Certificate in English
JET programme	Japan Exchange and Teach programme
ALT	Assistant Language Teacher / foreign language assistants
JETs	ALTs employed by the JET program
MEXT	The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
Eiken	English language assessment backed by MEXT
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
JTEs	Japanese Teachers of English
Eigo	test-based English taught in Japanese schools
Eikaiwa	communicative-based English practiced as a hobby
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
TL	Target Language
TBL	Task-Based Learning
PBL	Project-Based Learning
CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
ILD	Individual Learner Difference

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ILLUSTRATIONS / FIGURES

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.1. Origins of this study

English is a worldwide, multibillion-dollar industry and, despite historical isolation and extreme geographical distance from any particular base of English, Japan is as an important a market for teaching and learning English as any other country in the world. English in Japan is viewed as necessary for personal and national economic development; therefore, everybody in Japan has, does, or will study English. Based on my personal experiences, having lived in Japan since 2002, everybody in the archipelago has an opinion about English. Common refrains that many non-Japanese people living in the country will be familiar with hearing include:

'Eigo yada'
'oh no, not English.'

'Eigo muzukashi desu ne'
'Yeah, English is so difficult, isn't it?'

'Eigo hazukashi'
'I'm so embarrassed about my English.'

'Eigo kirai'
'I hate English.'

'Eigo dekinai'
'English; I can't do it!'
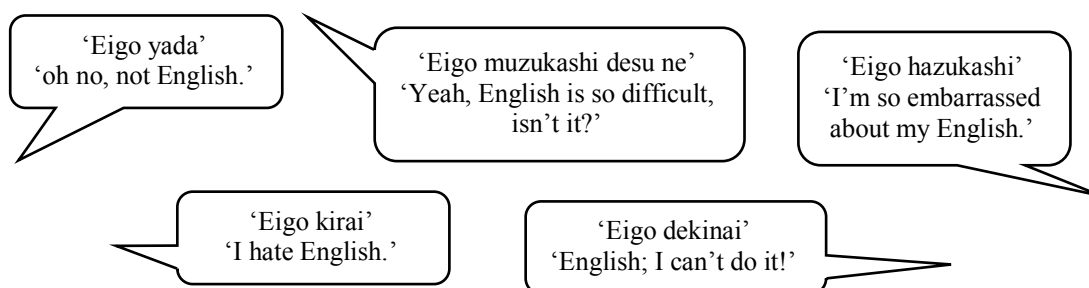
Somewhat paradoxically, many Japanese people hold both negative and positive opinions concerning the language, with many commenting on its importance:

'Eigo kakoiine'
'You are so cool; you can speak English!'

'motto benkyou shitara yokatta'
'I wish I had studied (it) harder'

'I have to speak English for my future.'

'Please teach me English!'
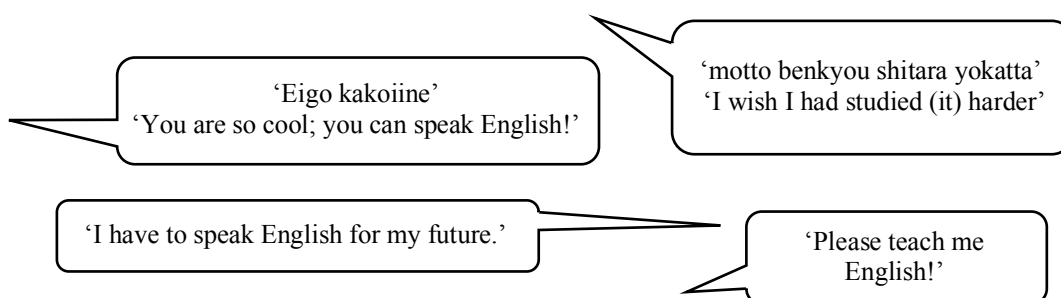
A large proportion of Japanese people also indicate that they believe the challenges of mastering English as a foreign language are beyond the capabilities of the vast majority of the population. I often meet people who state, "We Japanese are shy." Or, "We study hard, but we can't speak." These stereotypes about Japanese people's ability to communicate in the language are often reflected in the opinions of many non-Japanese stakeholders in the EFL market: international students studying in Japan often ask me of their classmates, "Why don't they

speak?"; whilst attending training courses upon arrival in Japan, I was repeatedly told, "They know all the grammar better than you do, but they won't be able to speak."; and a UK-based language school program manager confided in me, "We always stick them (Japanese students) in two levels lower than their grammar scores coz they just don't speak." Such attitudes are persistent and can have a negative impact on both learner performance and educator decision-making.

These stereotypes are also supported by a plethora of researchers and commentators (examples include, but are certainly not limited to: Guest, 2006; Hiramoto, 2013; Ikegashira, Matsumoto, & Morita 2009; King, 2013a & b; Matsuoka, 2009; Miller, 2014; Mulligan, 2005; Murphy, 2013; Rapley, 2010; Reesor, 2003; Talandis JR & Stout, 2014; Tsuboya-Newell, 2017; Wakabayashi, 2015; and Yokogawa, 2017). These researchers decry Japanese people's English abilities and apportion a large part of the blame at the door of the Japanese education system while also attributing a large number of language learning difficulties to a risk-averse culture within which a proclivity for silence interferes with efforts to promote communication-focused learning and teaching.

It is not easy to dismiss all these claims of the 'Japanese English problem', but perhaps the voice that spoke to me the loudest throughout my 18-year association with Japanese learners of English was a student called Mika[1]. Having delayed her all-important job hunting for a long-term, stable, graduate position in Japan, Mika had saved enough money during her university studies to do a six-month homestay while attending a language school in West London. One morning before class, I found Mika sitting at a table in the school coffee corner in tears. She confided in me (in perfectly fluent English):

> "It's not fair, I study really hard, I take extra conversation classes in the afternoon, I go home after class and read books, and learn vocabulary; but I just can't join in. The other students just get drunk and go to parties, but they can speak better than me."

Mika's problem encapsulates perfectly the situation that many Japanese students I have since met struggle to come to terms with: (1) spending a large amount of time, money, and effort on

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[1] All names in this thesis are pseudonyms.

trying to learn English; (2) study that focuses on many non-communicative aspects of English; (3) a lack of sociocultural and strategic skills that are appropriate for learning English communicatively; (4) eventually leading to bewilderment, frustration, demotivation, and in some cases, anger and withdrawal from any kind of meaningful connection with the language they have been learning from the age of 12 or earlier. As a basis for this study, I have long tried to answer the question, "What can I do better to help these learners communicate well in English?"

In response, I have developed an interest in the academic field of willingness to communicate in a second language (from hereon in WTC) and, with this study, I aim to be able to better respond to the following concerns of my peers, my students, and other stakeholders:

- Are Japanese learners willing to communicate in the classroom?
- Under what circumstances are they (un)able to realise such intentions to communicate into actual communication?
- Are there culturally relevant factors that create difficulties specific to Japanese learners?

1.2. The (unique) context of the study

One important aspect of this study, which contributes to its originality, is the context in which it takes place. Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) is a four-year, private university in Southern Japan that was founded specifically to foster international relations and intercultural contact within the Asia Pacific Region and beyond. With this goal in mind, roughly 45% of the 5000-strong student body are recruited (largely) from Asian countries such as China, Korea, Indonesia, Thailand, Vietnam; but also from further afield with students featuring in this study originating in Botswana, Kazakhstan, Samoa, Tonga, and the UK. At the time this study was carried out, the university boasted students from 83 different countries. The university's unique selling points to these students are (1) its Japanese / English dual-language programs and (2) the

multicultural dormitories and campus that allow students to network with peers from all around the world while living in Japan. For Japanese students, the presence of a large body of overseas students is considered to create an English-language environment inside Japan, and APU markets this as an additional strong point of appeal for domestic students wishing to improve their English skills through real language contact.

With the growing popularity of low-cost airlines, the internationalisation of Japan's universities, and an increase in Japan's foreign-born population, the university also serves as a bellwether for issues and challenges that Japanese universities and society face as opportunities for intercultural contact increase. In addition to developing international students' jobhunting / workplace skills useful for the Japanese market and developing programs to help integrate a large body of foreign nationals within a small rural population, the university also faces exciting challenges within its Japanese population. The university has had to set up systems to: (1) foster intercultural exchange on campus; (2) integrate Japanese and international students in on-campus dormitories; (3) promote teamwork and collaborative study between English-basis students and Japanese-basis students; (4) work out how to best make use of the multicultural environment to promote both in-class and real-life language contact and development; and (5) develop a robust English-language program for Japanese students, which usually includes 6 lessons of communicative-focused English per week and the requirement to take 20 credits in specialist-content courses in the medium of English (EMI classes). With relevance to this thesis, it should be noted that the university abounds with potential opportunities for Japanese students to (1) practice their English in a wide variety of situations, and (2) stay motivated to study English through their proximity to English-speaking foreign nationals who are considered to be fluent English speakers, and (3) benefit from a strong English language program including a requirement to study 20 or more credits of content courses in the medium of English.

1.3. Research framework

Willingness to communicate is both an ambiguous concept and an eclectic field of study. This ambiguity partly stems from the fact that it has been described as a personality-trait like propensity to engage in communication (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987); a situational, cognitive, and emotional decision to communicate (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels; 1998); a fluctuating, momentary state of communicative readiness (Kang, 2005); a probability of initiating communication (Macintyre, 2007); an intention to communicate (Matsuoka, 2009); or a part of an integrated learner-self system (Dörnyei, 2010). This ambiguity is reflected in the fact that, in the data I elicited with students, the term 'willing to communicate' arose only once; leading to the conclusion that, if it exists at all, WTC is extremely ephemeral in nature.

WTC is also considered to be an eclectic field (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998) and can best be described by the question it seeks to resolve. That is: "Why, regardless of linguistic ability, do some learners seek out and embrace opportunities to engage in L2 communication, while others deliberately avoid and reject such opportunities?"

Three assumptions underpin WTC as a field of study. First, higher levels of communication lead to improved language learning (Gregersen & MacIntyre, 2014; Kang, 2005). Second, higher levels of WTC lead to higher levels of communication (Peng, 2014). Third, it therefore behooves educators to explore various ways to increase a learner's WTC (Macintyre et al., 1998). I approach these assumptions cautiously; and questioning these assumptions underpins the work I carried out in this study.

Conversely, I wholeheartedly embrace the eclecticism of WTC and draw on various frameworks and fields of study to collect, analyse, and draw conclusions about the nature of WTC and communication in the classroom. More specifically, in order to describe learners' behaviours in the classroom, I draw upon the field of Conversation Analysis (CA); to explain the apparent random nature of WTC and its association with communication, I draw upon Complex Dynamic Systems Theory (CDST); and to better understand cultural factors that form the basis of Japanese learners' decision making, I draw upon theories from the field of Japanese

cultural studies and intercultural communication while applying Dörnyei and Tseng's (2009) Motivational Task Processing System model (MTPS) to explain learners' behaviours.

1.4. Research questions

My overall goal for this study was to better answer, for myself and others, the question, "What can I do better to help my learners communicate well in English?" To do so, I wanted to understand learners' cognitive and affective processes, and the relationship between these and environmental factors in the place they use English the most, the classroom. As such, I sought to respond to the following three research questions:

Q1. What factors impact WTC in the classroom?

Q2. What, if any, are the differences between immediate-WTC and classroom talk?

Q3. What factors facilitate or impede realisation of WTC into classroom talk?

1.5. Overview of this thesis

This section gives an outline of the organisation of this thesis. Chapter Two explains the background of English in Japan. First, I review the claims of the importance of English in Japanese people's lives and the general malaise that a large proportion of the population feel with relation to the language. Second, I describe a wide range of pedagogical and social factors that contribute to Japanese learners' difficulties in acquiring communicative abilities in English.

Chapter Three covers the literature on two important frameworks for this study. I begin with a discussion of the relevance of WTC by describing the main theories that support the educational paradigm of 'learning to talk and talking to learn' and the widened description of language abilities that this approach necessitates. Then, I explain the construct of WTC with a particular focus on the potential weaknesses in the theoretical construct that this study seeks to

address. Finally, I discuss potential differences in the WTC construct across various cultures with particular reference to the Japanese context.

Chapter Four is the methodology section of my thesis. First, I outline the socio-constructive approach to research and discuss its strengths and weaknesses. I then describe the data collection setting, participants, events, and issues concerning access to the site. I next explain the data collection tools I used to elicit information about learners' participation. Finally, I discuss the processes of data preparation and analysis I developed for the study.

I split the main findings of this study into four separate chapters. In Chapter Five, I explicate the communicative behaviours recorded during class, which account for some of the stereotypes of the 'uncommunicative Japanese leaner'. Then, in Chapter Six, I describe the unpredictable nature of WTC and explain its apparent random relationship to observable communication through the paradigm of dynamic complex systems theory. In Chapter Seven, I propose a model of WTC and speech that can help clarify the necessary conditions for WTC to be realised in to speech. In Chapter Eight, I explicate some culturally specific learner-decisions that can help stakeholders, such as researchers and educators, understand some of the reasons for the conversational difficulties observed in the classroom recordings.

In Chapter Nine, I discuss the implications of this study by explaining the limitations of my work, then describing the utility of my results from both a researcher's perspective and from an educator's perspective, and next by pointing out potential future studies that could be developed as a result of this study. Finally, I close the thesis with a brief review.

1.6. Original Contributions

This thesis provides an original contribution to research in the field of English language teaching (ELT) and applied linguistics in various ways. As mentioned, the context for this research can be described as a bellwether for various issues and challenges that Japanese universities and Japanese society face in the near future.

Challenging current theoretical stances, I draw a distinction between, and measure, both WTC and realised speech. I challenge the assumption that WTC automatically leads to, or equivalates with, speech; and I deliberately investigate the reasons why WTC does not become speech. My findings show that measures of WTC do not correlate with observable communication in the classroom. As a result, I then provide a heuristic model of factors that inhibit or facilitate WTC from becoming realised communication. This model may also be used as a potential check list for pedagogical interventions to promote learner talk.

This study also widens the possibilities of what can be studied in WTC. I did not just quantify the amount of speech that was realised from WTC but also qualified this speech in terms of various conversational maneuvers, such as proactive turn-taking or passive responses to direct questions. This approach is novel, and this study provides a model for future research into the relationship between internalised cognitive / affective factors and specific conversational behaviours.

The data collected also calls into question the role of dominance and control in conversations. While, a priori, being dominated and controlled in a conversation may seem to lead to reduced opportunities to speak and have negative effects on language learning, this was proven to not be the case in the conversations I recorded.

By evaluating the kind of speech that took place, I also provide an extremely detailed account of various conversational strategies that Japanese learners seem to typically adopt in conversational classes. These descriptions may be extremely useful for context-specific-materials development that focuses on the strategic and actional competencies that Japanese learners need to master; these are skills which are generally not dealt with in any systematic way in currently available EFL materials.

In addition, I use these descriptions of conversational-actions to draw relevance to the relationship of WTC and successful language acquisition. That is to say, that I qualify the usefulness of WTC in the immediate context by evaluating if increasing a learner's levels of WTC would actually improve their L2 learning behaviours. In most other studies of WTC, it is simply assumed that increased WTC automatically leads to more, or better, L2 acquisition.

The methodology I employed in this study is also novel. Until recently, detailed examination of the relationship between internalised cognitive / affective factors and observable behaviours was not possible. Based on MacIntyre & Legatto's (2011) idiodynamic methodology, I commissioned a specific software that various researchers including Tammy Gregersen, Peter MacIntyre, Lourdes Ortega, and Tomoko Yashima have contacted me about; either to use the software themselves or to distribute to their graduate students. The protocols I established for using this software may be of great relevance for researchers interested in examining similar constructs to WTC.

Concerning research design, current published studies using idiodynamic methodology took place in laboratory conditions. As such, a lot of the findings from these studies pinpoint linguistic competences (i.e. grammar and vocabulary) and topic knowledge as important factors influencing learner behaviour and WTC. To examine the full spectrum of communicative competencies, my research design not only took place in the classroom but also with groups of three or four participants. This specific research design allowed participants to decline turns in favour of another speaker or to take turns from other speakers. This allowed my study to fully account for the parameter of 'freedom of choice', and the findings revealed previously unconsidered aspects of WTC, such as turn-taking rules and strategic competencies.

Another important aspect of the research design was the aspect of 'intercultural contact'. By using conversations between Japanese students and international students, various other phenomena, such as the role of culturally bound speaking styles in WTC and an inferiority complex vis-à-vis international students, were uncovered.

Concerning findings, in addition to showing the WTC ratings do not correlate with talk, I uncovered various causes of this phenomenon. First, WTC functions a part of a dynamic complex system in which successful and unsuccessful talk have a strong feedback role. Second, multiple motivational forces provide coinciding and conflicting talk-arousing and talk-depressing influences; this study identifies seven of these motivational forces. These findings led me to posit WTC as a 'WTC—talk system' in which a third key factor in the development of talk is the alignment of multiple facets of a learner's second language (L2) competencies.

By further examining the third factor, I was able to uncover the key role of learners' understanding of turn-taking rules in the development of WTC and talk; for example, the participants in this study placed importance on: listening as a separate activity from speaking within the conversations, fair turn-sharing, and equal access to the conversational floor.

The extremely detailed examination of learner decision-making, that the idiodynamic methodology permitted, helped me further uncover the mechanisms by which WTC is aroused or depressed. For example, it is well known that topic knowledge is an important factor in arousing WTC, but learners in this study described how shared topic knowledge provided a kind of mental bridge that allows them to find a point of connection with another interlocutor. Furthermore, I found that topic knowledge and interest can be further broken down into more detailed aspects such as incongruity, curiosity / surprise, patriotism, shared interests, and hometown pride. I also was able to elicit similar detailed examples of the relationship between anxiety and classroom performance, and details on turn-taking rules which can be useful when designing language learning tasks.

Finally, this study responds to Wen and Clément's (2003) claims that learners from Confucian backgrounds struggle to participate in class because concerns about their relationships with others, face-saving, and risk-avoiding behaviours restrict the development of WTC in to talk. By default, such a stance regards apparently reticent behavior as a kind of deviance from the expected norm of talking proactively in class. I investigated this claim by using Dörnyei and Tseng's (2009) Motivational Task Processing System model (MTPS) to examine three aspects of learners' decision-making. My findings suggest that Japanese learners' apparent reticence should be considered as a set of proactive, group-based, floor-sharing behaviours, which learners are deliberately choosing to pursue, rather than as simple struggles to participate in English conversations. The analysis approach I developed, using the MTPS, provides a model for understanding cultural relevant factors in L2 learning settings. In practical terms, my findings suggest that educators and materials makers should focus on encouraging learners from various contexts to study and practice appropriate conversational behaviours for their particular L2 target context.

CHAPTER 2: BACKGROUND OF ENGLISH AND ENGLISH PROVISION IN THE
JAPANESE CONTEXT

This section describes the context of English in Japan; I outline reasons for many Japanese students' English-learning-angst and describe the learning opportunities that the participants in this study will have been afforded.

2.1. The importance of English in Japan

Against the backdrop of population crisis arising from a rapidly declining birthrate ("Number of babies born in Japan", 2018) and the world's oldest population (Kopf, 2018), many commentators and researchers argue English is a tool for ensuring Japan's social and economic survival (Hagerman, 2009). Arguments include the effects of English on: (1) specific industries, (2) attracting an international workforce, and (3) developing and sustaining a modern tertiary education system.

As an economic strategy, the Japanese government is committed to attracting 40 million overseas tourists by 2020 and 60 million by 2030 ("Boosting visitors to Japan", 2014; "Increasing inbound tourism", 2018). However, some question if Japan can improve its English provision enough to successfully welcome foreign tourists ("Why is Japan such an unpopular tourist destination?", 2015; Ong, 2016).

Furthermore, as "the challenges of Japan's demography" (2018) states, there are currently 1.6 vacancies for every job applicant. To fill this gap, Japan desperately wants to attract highly skilled foreign workers in areas such as IT and education. To achieve this, the Japanese government boasts that it has developed the "quickest permanent residency system in the world" (Smith, 2017, para. 4) for such workers. However, a lack of opportunities to use English in the workplace, and a lack of provision of English in education for children are posited as two important barriers to attracting more highly-skilled foreign workers (D'Costa, 2013; Morita, 2017; Obe & Funatsu, 2018; Smith, 2017).

Finally, the Japanese government wishes to attract international students to increase the global competitiveness of Japanese universities (Hashimoto, 2017) and businesses (Yonezawa, 2010). However, Yonezawa (2010) argues that Japanese universities cannot attract international students and faculty due to a lack of English in academic institutions. Furthermore, Rappleye and Vickers (2015) state that English language problems at work, at school, and in social situations will stop elite institutions succeeding in their policy goals of tripling their foreign faculty.

Thus, it can be argued that problems surrounding English provision in Japan have a wide ranging negative impact: hindering the development and continued international standing of Japanese universities; damaging the Japanese economy in terms of selling itself as a desirable location for international recruits to work and limiting Japanese people's ability to sell Japan as an international tourist destination; and limiting the possibility of immigrants settling in Japan and relieving the current population crisis. In relation to this study, all the participants agreed that English was "important for my future", but they also worried that Japan suffers from poor English provision.

2.2. Overview of Japan's 'English problem'

It is often remarked that Japan spends a lot of money on English for relatively little nationwide gains. As examples of this spending, between 1997 and 2004, Japan was the leading source of students for EFL courses in the UK, USA, and New Zealand (British Council, 2006); while Japan spent $6bn per year on private English lessons (Keogh, 2015) compared to China's $4.5bn (Bolton & Graddol, 2012). Yet, many commentators often cite statistics that Japan frequently scores badly on international tests of English (Yokogawa, 2017). One such statistic is the fact that Japan ranked 105th out of 115 countries on TOEFL world score rankings (ETS,

2017)[2] while it also rates as 'low' on Education First's English proficiency test (Education First, 2018). Such details are used to support claims, such as Reesor's, that we should be "stupefied" by this situation, and that Japan is a "poster child" for failure in developing English speakers (2003, p. 57).

2.3. Government policy concerning English communication

Explanations for this English-learning-angst amongst students, researchers, and commentators are wide and varied. An examination of government policy concerning the provision of English skills, however, indicates that Japanese students are expected to learn to communicate in English by studying under a communicative curriculum. By comparing the expected outcomes of the government's English policy with the actual outcome of a large number of low-confidence English speakers, I aim to highlight the value of examining WTC in the Japanese context.

The Japanese government and tax payer spend a lot of money on providing opportunities for learning communicative English. To 'supplement' Japanese teachers' English lessons, the Japan Exchange and Teach (JET) programme, which invites young college graduates (with any major) from around the world to live in Japan and teach English education activities in schools around the country, was inaugurated in 1987. Its reported purpose was to improve foreign language education and develop international exchange (CLAIR, 2015a). With 5,761 JETs employed on an average 3.75 million Japanese Yen annual salary, the cost to the Japanese tax payer in salaries alone was over $190 million dollars in 2019. These figures are for 2019; to date over 70,000 people from 75 countries have been invited to Japan to participate (CLAIR, 2015b). It should also be noticed that this is just the tip of the iceberg. McCrostie (2017) notes that JETs represented only 24.5% of the 18,484 foreign language assistants (ALTs) that schools used in 2016. This means that even poorly serviced schools, in addition to

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[2] Education Testing Service (ETS) warns strongly against comparing countries using its standardized test rankings.

receiving their regular English language classes delivered by Japanese teachers, are usually

visited at least once every week by an ALT.

Ten years after the inauguration of JET, the Japanese Ministry of Education (MEXT)

initiated policy changes to align the goals of English education with the presence of foreign

assistants in the classroom, by announcing that:

> "Much value will be set on the improvement of fundamental and practical
> communicative competence in foreign languages and the subject of 'Foreign Language'
> will be a required one at lower and upper secondary schools. Elementary schools will
> provide hands-on learning activities to expose children to foreign languages and help
> them get familiar with foreign life and culture in the 'Period of Integrated Study'."
> (MEXT, 1998)

This focus on communication, for personal development as well as "enhancing our international

presence and further developing our nation" (MEXT, 2003), was underlined in 2002 with a

strategic paper focusing on cultivating 'Japanese with English Speaking Abilities' (MEXT,

2002) and an action plan to support the white paper (MEXT, 2003). Key points from which

included:

1. A goal for secondary school students to be able to hold 'normal conversations in
   English'.

2. A project to demonstrate how a communicative approach could be implemented.

3. The improvement of English provision by (1) avoiding translation and teacher-centered
   methods, and (2) encouraging students to communicate and use the foreign language.

4. Having native-English speakers support junior and senior high schools more than once a
   week.

5. Increasing English study motivation, including promotion of high school study abroad
   programs.

6. Support for English conversation activities in elementary schools.

In addition to this five-year plan, in 2006 the government introduced an English

listening test to the national university entrance examinations and made it possible for

elementary schools to include English in their curricula. While English was introduced at the

individual school's discretion ("Native speakers in demand", 2018), uptake was high. It is estimated that, by 2007, 97.1% of the 21,864 elementary schools in Japan had already begun some kind of English instruction (Uematsu, 2015). Between 2004 and 2006, I had personal experience of working as an ALT in an elementary school. I was tasked with providing a 'fun and motivating' introduction to English in elementary school classes on Fridays from 1st to 6th period. With 4 class groups per grade and 6 grades, I was able to meet each class once a month.

Following a review in 2006, changes were made to the 2011 course of study. In elementary school, to "foster a positive attitude toward communication" (MEXT, 2008b, p. 1), 35-hours of compulsory "foreign language activities" were introduced for fifth and sixth graders (MEXT, 2007, p. 36). In junior high school, extra focus was to be placed on communication too, with an increased emphasis on teaching the four skills (not grammar) and increased time for classroom activities which promote communication; the directive states explicitly that increased time should not be spent on grammar (MEXT, 2008a, p. 6). Similarly, high school lessons should "in principle, be conducted in English to enhance the opportunities for students to be exposed to English" (MEXT, 2009, p. 7), and "Grammar instruction should be given as a means to support communication" (MEXT, 2009, p. 7).

Additionally, in the private sector, the government promotes the Eiken Test (Test in Practical English Proficiency) with targets that, by 2017, 50% of students would be passing the Grade 3 by the last year of junior high school and the Eiken Grade Pre-2 by the final year of senior high school (MEXT, 2014b). However, Torikai (2018) notes these targets are not being met and claims that the above reforms should be considered as failing.

Current plans for 2020 further promote communicative English education. In elementary school, there will be 35 hours, approximately one hour per week, of "Foreign Language Activities," for both years 3 and 4; and 70 hours, approximately two hours per week, of "English as a formal assessed subject" for both years 5 and 6 (MEXT, 2018). Additionally, it will become mandatory for English classes to be taught in junior high school in the medium of English (Torikai, 2018).

The most substantial change was proposed for the step between secondary and tertiary level. In 2020, the current English tests for university entrance were supposed to be replaced with standardised oral English tests provided by external private testing companies. Internal documents circulated at my university showed tests being considered were: Cambridge English exam series, TOEFL, TOEIC, GTEC, TEAP, TEAP CBT, EIKEN, and IELTS. However, due to complaints from high school and university teachers concerning its practicalities, the plan has since been dropped.

The students who participated in this study entered elementary school in 2002 or later. Before entering university, they would have had exposure to English and cultural exchange from a foreign language assistant in their Elementary school and then six years of mandatory English lessons in junior and senior high school supplemented by the presence of a mandatory foreign language assistant. These English classes should have been (1) delivered mainly in English with (2) a communicative focus. Furthermore, in high school they should have had integrated language classes with grammar used as support for communication, and they would have entered university in an environment whereby spoken language testing in the form of the Eiken tests was being promoted and students were being encouraged to travel abroad. Yet, many of the students in the study expressed deep anxiety when communicating in English, and displayed clear difficulties in participating in communicative activities. I will next explain how the geopolitical context contributes to these learners' English difficulties, then I will describe how many stakeholders in the education system ignore calls to focus on communicative aspects of English pedagogy. These issues further underline the need for ongoing WTC investigations to promote Japanese students' classroom participation.

2.4. Geopolitical struggles surrounding English provision in Japan

Ostensibly, the Japanese ministry of education (MEXT) greatly values communicative English language ability, yet students and other stakeholders may actually focus their efforts on

furthering various conflicting goals. One such goal is the protection of Japanese culture and

identity.

Historically, Japan's relationship with English can be seen as somewhat ambivalent, as

this anecdote lifted from Hagerman exemplifies:

> "In the early 1800's the Bakufu (the ruling military government of Japan during the
> Edo period) sent six 'interpreters' abroad with orders to learn English and Russian and
> gain intelligence about those imperial powers. However, due to fears that those six
> might transmit ideas to others they were ordered on pain of death to not become literate
> in those languages." (2009, p. 48)

Perhaps this anecdote should be taken as an example of anachronistic jingoism; however, the

sentiment has repeated itself often enough in Japanese history. For example, Reesor (2002)

explicates that, in 1922, the Japanese government hired Harold Palmer to study how to improve

English education provision in Japan. After 14 years of promoting, trialing, and proving

successful oral-aural language learning methodologies, the government ignored his work and

allowed the incumbent system of grammar-translation to continue.

In more modern times, the JET programme was actually devised as an economic

appeasement tool rather than for educational purposes. As, Nose Kuniyuki, the Home Affairs

Ministry official who wrote the original proposal for JET, made clear:

> "The purpose of the JET programme was never focused on the revolution of English
> education… … what I was thinking about was how to deal with the demands of the US
> that we buy more things such as computers and cars. I realised the trade friction was not
> going to be solved by manipulating things, and besides, I wanted to demonstrate the
> fact that not all Japanese are economic animals who gobble up real estate." (Cited in
> McConnell, 1996, p. 456).

Further reticence to fully embrace English is found in later adjustments to national

English education policy. In MEXT's 2008 'study of course guidelines', that decreed 35 hours

of English per year in Elementary school grades 5 and 6, the following points are included:

1. "Instruction should be given on the following items in order to deepen the
   experiential understanding of the languages and cultures of Japan." (MEXT, 2008b,
   p. 1)
2. "Teachers should enable pupils to deepen their understanding not only of the
   foreign language and culture, but also of the Japanese language and culture through
   foreign language activities." (MEXT, 2008b, p. 3)

Furthermore, in the guidelines for English provision in junior high school, the following can be found: "Materials should be useful in deepening the international understanding from a broad perspective, heightening students' awareness of being Japanese citizens…" (MEXT, 2008a, p. 8). A similar guideline is indicated in the 'English education reform implementation plan responding to globalisation' published by MEXT (2014a): "Enrich educational content in relation to nurturing individual's sense of Japanese identity (focus on traditional culture and history among other things)." While a sense of personal identity is in no way a bad thing, Aspinall (2003) and Hashimoto (2002) argue this focus on Japanese identity in English classes reflects the fact that English is seen as threatening to Japanese culture and traditions.

Crucially, a fear of assimilation and cultural damage is an important factor in reducing learners' WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998). This worry is clearly articulated by some Japanese students. Turnbull's (2017) study of Japanese university students found that 25% of respondents to his survey believed that learning English would result in loss of Japanese identity. In my classes, I frequently hear variations on the same theme of: "It is important to learn English, but we Japanese must be careful to not lose our Japaneseness", and participant's in Mielick's study on the creep of English clearly articulate a fear that it threatens the Japanese language:

"I think it is a flad (flood) of English words" and "There is a breaking of Japanese."

"If English has much more influence, the original language is jeopardized (sic) to extinct" (2017, p. 12).

Such fears, of course, can impact learning motivation and provision. Gottleib explains that in the minds of some "… not being able to speak English well signifies that one is Japanese and is the real underlying explanation for the poor quality of English teaching in Japan" (2008, p.44). While in my own personal experience as an ALT, the introduction of the alphabet or phonics at elementary level was strictly forbidden by the board of education as "It might spoil the learning of the Japanese syllabary system." While it cannot be said that all Japanese students hate English and stubbornly refuse to learn the language, data collected in this study

indicates that some participants were influenced by a somewhat negative stance towards English.

2.5. Aspects of pedagogical appropriateness

While MEXT's policy documents indicate that students should be learning communicative English, in practice this is often not the case. Factors such as (1) a focus on testing, (2) the use of a non-communicative model of English, (3) a reliance on grammar-translation methodologies, and (4) a mis-appreciation of communicative approaches to English also contribute to the equivocal success rates reported.

2.5.1. The washback effect of the national university entrance exams.

University entrance tests, or *Senta Shiken*, have had an important role in English provision in Japan. With around 60% of young workers in Japan (25—34 yrs. old) having a tertiary education (OECD, 2018b) they have wide coverage. Furthermore, they have a deep influence because school reputation is considered a strong indicator of future life success, as noted by the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD):

> "Thus, there is a general belief that a student's performance in one crucial examination at about the age of 18 is likely to determine the rest of his life. In other words: the university entrance examination is the primary sorting device for careers in Japanese society. The result is not an aristocracy of birth, but a sort of degree-ocracy" (OECD, Reviews of National Policies for Education: Japan. 1971 p.89 as cited by NIER, 2011a, p1).

Potentially, *Senta Shiken* could have promoted MEXT's designated communicative approach to English. For example, in 2006 a listening section was added and, from 2020, spoken tests were to have been added to a new 'Common Test for University Admissions'; until vociferous opposition was rasied by high school teachers and university educators. However, for the individual student, this 'degree-ocracy' creates "excessive competition for entry to the

best schools or top-class universities" which "has inflicted psychological stress on both children and parents" (NIER, 2011, p.6). This phenomenon is commonly known as 'exam hell' (Hiramoto, 2013, p. 230).

Furthermore, at the societal level, the OECD notes that "getting the design of the university exam wrong will hold the whole education system back, narrow the scope of what is valued and what is taught, and encourage shortcuts and cramming" (OECD, 2018a). A myriad of researchers claim this is exactly what has happened. Brown (2002), Gorsuch (2000), Kikuchi (2006), Nishino (2008), O'Donnell (2005), Saito (2017; 2019), Taguchi (2005), and Tsukamoto and Tsujioka (2013) all found that washback from the *Senta Shiken* interferes with teachers spending time on communicative English development in classes, and forces teachers and students to spend their time focusing on written texts and translating sentences from English into Japanese and vice versa. In 2018, the *Senta Shiken* was used by 848 institutions; including 82 out of 82 national universities; 89 out of 90 public universities, and 526 out of 589 private universities (DNC, 2018). Therefore, it is not an exaggeration to say that the university entrance system has had enormous negative washback effect on English language education for communication purposes at high school in Japan.

The phenomenon of testing blocking English teaching may be endemic in all levels of education in Japan. In my own personal experience, as a junior high school ALT (2004—2006), all the ALTs I worked alongside shared the experience of gradually becoming redundant as the school year progressed and teachers' efforts focused on completing the selected text book before end-of-year tests took place. Unfortunately, it seems this trend is being extended to younger groups of students with English tests recently being included in many private junior high school entrance exams ("English Adopted for More Junior High…", 2018) and in national achievement exams for secondary schools (Chiwaki & Mito, 2019).

2.5.2. Differences in English taught for tests and English for communication

In addition to limiting time spent on communicative activities, examination washback changes

the subject being studied. McVeigh (2004) argues that test-based English (*eigo*) and

communicative-based English (*eikaiwa*) are two clearly distinct subjects. Hiramoto expands this

explanation by stating: "*eigo* is something one needs to learn for examinations while *eikaiwa* is

something one may take up as extracurricular skill training or a hobby" (2013, p. 230).

Examples from a widely used, MEXT-approved, junior high school text book

(Sunshine English 3; Niisato, 2012) can illustrate some of the limitations of *eigo*: (1) unrealistic

situations and dialogues; (2) no distinction of written and oral English; (3) and de-

contextualised practices that are devoid of communicative competencies, such as a discourse

and strategic skills. The excerpts below illustrate problem (1). The following dialogues are (a)

unrealistic, due to advancements of inflight and mobile technology they simply no longer

happen; (b) are irrelevant for the majority of junior high school students just about anywhere;

and (c) produce overly formal and unrealistic English. For example, "My father is not home

now." is much more likely to be realised with pronouns as "Sorry, he's not here right now."

In flight (p. 14)
-Excuse me
Yes
-What time is it in Hawaii now?
It's about 2:30 a.m.
-When will we arrive at Honolulu
International Airport?
-We'll arrive there at 9:30 Friday morning.
The flight time will be around seven hours.
-OK, thank you.
You're welcome. Please enjoy your flight
-Thank you. I will.

Taking a phone message (p.58)
-moshi moshi
Hello?
-Hello
This is John Brown. May I speak to Mr.
Suzuki, please?
-My father is not home now.
All right. May I leave a message then?
-Sure
Tell him we've changed plans for our club
activities.
-You changed the plan.
Please ask him to call me back after 2 p.m.
-OK. After 2p.m. Is that all?
Yes, that's all. Thank you. Goodbye.
-Goodbye.

All the dialogues are delivered to the students in a General American accent which

many students living in Japan are unlikely to encounter. Additionally, Hiramoto (2013) argues

that the flawless English accents presented by the Japanese speakers creates a model of

pronunciation and fluency that is unrealistic and unobtainable. In addition to a lack of realism, these kinds of activities have also been criticised as ritualistic and reliant on rote memorisation of linguistic items specific to that situation (Naoyama, 2006; Otsu, 2006 both cited by Hiramoto, 2013, p. 234).

Furthermore, there is no explanation of how the sounds of spoken language deviate from written representations. In the following excerpt, the left column presents the text presented in the book as a conversational dialogue (Niisato, 2012, p. 55). However, when the role of *Pat* is removed, right column, the exact same text works seamlessly as a formal speech or written paragraph.

Mr. Oka: *kaiten-zushi* has an interesting history. The first kaiten-zushi bar was opened by Mr. Shiraishi Yoshiaki, a sushi chef, in Osaka in 1958. It made sushi more popular in Japan.
Pat: Really? How did he get the ideas?
Mr. Oka: He got the idea when he saw bottles at a beer factory. They were traveling on a conveyor belt.
Pat: Is that true?
Mr. Oka: Yes. The *Kaiten-zushi* belt moves at eight centimeters a second. That's the perfect speed for customers to pick up plates.
Pat: That's great! Mr. Shiraishi was a man of ideas. His idea helped to make sushi more
popular in the world.

(Pat removed)
Kaiten-zushi has an interesting history. The first *kaiten-zushi* bar was opened by Mr. Shiraishi Yoshiaki, a sushi chef, in Osaka in 1958. It made sushi more popular in Japan. He got the idea when he saw bottles at a beer factory. They were traveling on a conveyor belt. The *kaiten-zushi* belt moves at eight centimeters a second. That's the perfect speed for customers to pick up plates. Mr. Shiraishi was a man of ideas. His idea helped to make sushi more popular in the world.

Finally, pictured in Illustration One, next page, is an oral practice dialogue. Throughout the book, there is no indication of how this kind of dialogue can sequence with the wider conversational context, i.e., it is not preceded by (1) any explanation of when this dialogue might be used; (2) a preceding greeting, "Hi … how's it going?"; (3) any segue in to the topic, "So, I was just wondering…"; (4) any kind of relevant reaction or final comment, "I hope I can visit it someday!"; or (5) a greeting to close, "OK, gotta run. See you tomorrow."

Illustration 1. Oral practice dialogue, Sunshine English 3 (Niisato, 2012, p. 18)

It is also noticeable that such dialogues do not attend to any of the 'live' issues of communication that could occur, such as clarifications requests, rephrasing around miscommunications, and coping with breakdowns in communications.

2.5.3. A model of education that devalues communication, personalisation, or ad. lib.

Perhaps *eigo* would not be an issue if English texts were used as the building blocks of communicative competence rather than used verbatim. However, Japanese education has its basis in Confucian ideology (Hadley, 1997; NIER, 2011b), and key tenants of this Confucian education in Japan include:

1. An ethic of hard work and memorisation

2. Written examinations designed to ensure conformity, equality and diligence

3. An emphasis on the right way and proper form (grammar-translation)

4. An emphasis on knowledge retention over innovative analysis

5. A belief that language study could infuse one with characteristics of the culture from which it came (Hadley, 1997).

While point five relates to the geopolitical struggle between Japanese and English, points one through four highlight that Confucian beliefs about education support the development of students who are excellent at memorising, listening to their teacher, and rote learning from texts or the teacher. This also devalues student-centered, communicative styles of teaching that

promote the ad-lib and spontaneous production required for communicating in a second language (Littrell, 2006; Hu, 2002). Arguably, in such contexts, students do not develop the required self-sufficiency and flexibility that would enable them to personalise the *eigo* that they are learning when necessary. Additionally, these learning traits, it should be remembered, are used to "survive 'examination hell'" (Hiramoto, 2013, p.230) by concentrating students' efforts on reading and grammar-translation (Gottlieb, 2008; Hiramoto, 2013).

A wide range of literature indicates that grammar-translation, known as 'yakudoku', is still widely employed across all levels of the Japanese education system (see e.g., Anscombe-Iino, 2013; Cook, 2013; Gottlieb, 2008; Hiramoto, 2013; Humphries, 2014; Kikuchi & Browne, 2009; King, 2013a & b; Sakamoto, 2012). This leads to a very narrow interpretation of what *eigo* is and reduces students' chances of flexibly working around a communicative problem, as reported by a student in Taguchi and Naganuma's study:

> "When I was in the third year of high school, I studied only for the entrance examinations. There seemed to be only one answer for a question. Studying for entrance examinations was painful. I did not like being forced to have only one answer for each question when we translated from English to Japanese or from Japanese to English" (2006, p. 15).

In my personal experience, Japanese Teachers of English (JTEs) do introduce some aspects of communication into their classes. As well as previously working as an ALT, as part of my university social outreach program, I have been lucky enough to join junior high school English classes as an observer to a '*super teacher*', whose remit is to experiment with advanced methods of teaching. In both situations, I have observed an eclectic mix of grammar-translation, interpretation- / translation-parsing, and audio-lingual methodology. Typically, in the first phase of the class, students will read aloud a text from the text book. Then, once each sentence has been reverted to Japanese and broken down for grammar and meaning (grammar-translation), the teacher will engage in some explanation / translation of key phrases. These phrases will then be used in a listen and repeat activity (audio-lingual and grammar work). Next, the teacher will ask students to make new sentences (oral or written interpretation-parsing) by changing key

verbs and nouns. Time permitting, a game such as 'bingo' will be played at the end whereby key vocabulary items are marked on bingo sheets and students walk around the room asking a question corresponding to the item on the bingo sheet. If the item the student mentions is confirmed with a positive answer, then the item can be crossed off until 'bingo' is achieved.

Barriers to more communicative interaction are time and practicality. Often the final game is cancelled if there is not enough time to cover the text and key grammatical points of the class. Additionally, with roughly 30 students per class, it is impossible to attend to all learners' needs when a communication breakdown occurs. Thus, while this kind of class does elicit some oral interaction, it is a mostly vocal repetition that does not engender negotiation of meaning, personalisation of the language, nor ad-lib communication. Nor do these activities focus on how various parts of the language fit together to make communication, which is a common weakness with ELT provision in Japan (McGroarty & Taguchi; 2005).

2.5.4. Negative attitudes towards learning English communicatively

Repeating claims made by McVeigh (2004), Hiramoto (2013) states that exam hell is one reason for Japan's love / hate relationship with English. These claims are substantiated by a MEXT survey of 70,000 students, which showed that 81.4% of high school students saw the purpose of English as passing university entrance exams and that 58.4% of responders did not like to study English ("58.4% of high school seniors"; 2015).

Given the importance of exams and the serious nature of Confucian learning, a focus on English communication and communicative style learning is often seen as frivolous and meaningless. This is noted by Sakui (2004) whose interviews with school teachers reveal that educators perceive occasional CLT lessons as primarily used for 'fun' to help motivate students in their more 'serious' *yakudoku* classes. The stance is somewhat institutionalised; the ALT handbook describes one of the main roles of the foreign language assistant as:

> "Motivator – Here, your role is mainly to add interest and spice to the lesson. The JLT (JTE) may ask you to recount anecdotes about life in your home country, amusing stories about cultural misunderstanding in a Japan, or to provide ideas for games and

activities to increase student energy levels and enthusiasm" (MEXT & British council, 2013, p. 11).

Unfortunately, this approach can be misinterpreted; Carrigan (2018a) notes that ALTs often feel that they are received as clowns. Such attitudes are reflected in multiple domains; elementary and junior high school students often use silly voices when practicing English in class, or cat-call, heckle, and physically assault foreigners as they go about their daily business. Thus, it is easy to agree with Gorsuch (2000) and Otani (2013), who both claim that students need to be convinced of the utility of communicative lessons before teachers can successfully implement them.

This attitude is also reflected in the private sector, where Hawley-Nagatomo describes a pervasive belief that "foreign teachers only teach fun and games" (2016, p. 133). Hawley-Nagatomo goes on to explain that the dichotomy or *eigo* and *eikawa* can thus be extended to English language practitioners. In short, foreigners teach *eikaiwa*, while Japanese teachers teach *eigo.* Logically, as *eigo* becomes more and more important for junior high and senior high school students as they approach exams, the majority 'retire' from *eikaiwa* lessons; with many then attending cram school *eigo* lessons taught by non-qualified university students (Hawley-Nagatomo, 2016; Lewis, 2018).

 A lack of serious focus may be pervasive in tertiary education too (Poole, 2005; Whitsed & Wright, 2011). Many universities have been recruiting non-Japanese teachers (usually Westerners) to provide Japanese university students with communicative style lessons (Jones, 2019; McVeigh, 2002; Poole, 2005). However, many students fail to prepare (Robb, 2019) for, or concentrate on, spoken activities in class with many reverting to using Japanese to discuss other topics, search on their phones, or do other homework in communication practice time.

2.6. Impact on Japanese educators

The contextual factors discussed in this chapter also affect the Japanese teachers of English (JTEs). Many JTEs are highly aware of, and struggle with, the dichotomies of communicative *eikaiwa* and test *eigo*. Both McConnell (1996) and Sakui (2004) note that teachers struggle to find time for, and found it technically difficult to, integrate communicative practices and grammar-fronted explanations into English classes. This problem may be exacerbated when trying to incorporate ALT-centered activities which can be seen as a distraction from serious studying (Hiratsuka, 2013; Sakui, 2004).

In addition, the very presence of ALTs may also cause difficulties for JTEs. Many ALTs lack expertise; having no qualifications or any teaching experiences (Ducker, 2010; Sponseller, 2017; Tajino & Smith, 2015). Yet, the training of these ALTs is left to the JTEs (Sponseller, 2017). This in itself is problematic, and such challenges may be exacerbated due to ALTs lacking Japanese language skills or some JTEs feeling pressurised into communicating exclusively in English (Miyazato, 2009). Furthermore, McConnell (2000) notes that studying how to accommodate ALTs into lessons requires an important investment in time on the part of JTEs.

Negative feelings may also be intensified by differences in how the roles of JTEs and ALTs are reciprocally perceived (Mahoney, 2004) and cultural differences in professional conduct (Hasegawa, 2008). The effects of these differences on Japanese staff is described by a former JTE:

> "Often, whether I worked with a positive or negative ALT would go a long way to determining whether I had a good or bad day at work." (Carrigan, 2018b, section 5)

Comments such as this highlight that a policy focusing on English through communicative teaching poses a wide range of problems for JTEs and may reduce the amount of attention they can pay to their students.

2.7. Conclusion

Part one of this chapter outlines the apparent importance and utility of English in Japan for individual students' futures as well as nationwide economic strength. Accordingly, all Japanese university students' English ability will have been heavily scrutinised on the way to entering tertiary education, and all students must pass mandatory English classes before graduating from university. Against this backdrop, given the apparent lack of success in developing a population comfortable in communicating in English, it is not surprising that the Japanese government has repeatedly made significant changes in the mandated course of study.

Unfortunately, several institutionalised and interrelated factors continually undermine efforts to improve the provision of communicative English. First, English may be seen as potentially damaging to Japanese identity and culture, meaning students may be reluctant to wholeheartedly undertake learning to communicate in English. Second, the distorting effect of university entrance exams means that little time can be devoted to communicative activities prior to entering university. Furthermore, the kind of study required to pass entrance tests focuses on grammar-translation, reading, rote-learning, and memorization, all of which do not engender the personalisation and ad-lib required in real communication. Furthermore, the high-value *eigo* (test English) that is studied for these tests is clearly distinguished from frivolous *eikaiwa* (communicative English) that Japanese students are then criticised for failing to master.

In the current study, the majority of participants (but not all) indicated a somewhat positive attitude towards English, but they did not (1) positively seek out opportunities to engage in English communication practice on campus or (2) engage in any out-of-class English study. This may be partially explained by exhaustion from studying exam-English and confusion / demotivation caused by an inability to hold even basic English language conversations. Unfortunately, at university, students are expected to adapt to a new style of English pedagogy, which promotes 'frivolous *eikaiwa*' and an unfamiliar and foreign communicative style of teaching espoused by many non-Japanese teachers. It is this pedagogical approach that I will discuss next.

CHAPTER THREE: LITERATURE ON COMMUNICATIVE APPROACHES TO LEARNING AND WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE

This chapter is divided into two main parts. In part one, I describe issues concerning communicative approaches to language learning (CLT) and explain why WTC is a relevant field of research both in Japan and other contexts. In section two, I introduce the WTC construct. I explain developments in the field, the focus of this study, and give an explanation of culturally prevalent factors that may influence the participants in this study.

3.1. The use of CLT in Japan

Around the world, speaking proficiency is a main goal (Green, 2000; Macintyre & Charos, 1996) and a yardstick of success in language learning (Bygate, 1987). Accordingly, speaking has become one of the main mediums for L2 learning (Bygate, 2012). In response to this speaking-focused trend, MEXT policy, and universities' aggressive marketing of English lessons provided by foreign 'native' teachers (Kinmonth, 2005; Whitsed & Wright, 2011), there has been a strong uptake in communicative approaches to ELT in Japanese tertiary education.

The exact form of CLT is not explicitly mandated by MEXT, leading to various approaches, which place students' use of the target language (TL) as central to the learning process, being implemented. This includes the use of speaking tests, as described by Ducker, Brown, and Posselius (2014) and Talandis Jr. and Stout (2014). Additionally, Burrows (2008) and Cutrone and Beh (2018) have investigated the appropriacy of Task-based language learning (TBL), while Ducker (2013) and Fujimura (2016) have implemented project-based learning (PBL) courses. Further innovations, which require learners to interact with peers and instructors in the TL, include: content and language integrated learning courses (CLIL), as described by Ikeda, et al., (2013); and English as a medium of instruction lessons (EMI), the use of which is extensively reviewed by Bradford and Brown (2017). Consequently, even if Japanese students have not studied under a communicative approach before, the majority will be required to learn to communicate in English in order to gain the required credits to graduate.

3.1.1. What is CLT?

As described by Richards and Rogers (2014), communicative language teaching (CLT) has become an umbrella term for various methods of language teaching, such as TBL, PBL, and CLIL, that put communicative competence as the goal of language teaching and acknowledge the interdependence of communication and language as a central assumption. Consequently, learners are required to go beyond studying grammar and vocabulary to acquire the following competencies:

- Discourse competence: ability to organise language into various genres.

- Linguistics competence: having knowledge of syntax, lexical items, phonological structures and other 'parts' of language.

- Actional competence: ability to convey and understand intent.

- Sociocultural competence: ability to express ideas in a culturally / socially appropriate manner.

- Strategic competence: ability to cope with problems and difficulties.

  (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell; 1995).

The *eigo* tested in university entrance exams and presented in the vast majority of classes and texts prior to university has a specific focus on linguistic competence. As such, Japanese learners' limited exposure to the other requirements described here may undermine both in-class learning efforts and real-life communication.

3.1.2. Theories underpinning CLT

Understanding how communication in the target language is believed to promote language acquisition is important to (1) legitimatise WTC as a field of study, (2) help instructors optimise activities so that the maximum affordances for language development occur, and (3) enable learners to take advantage of such opportunities.

The basic maxim for CLT is often that "students who actively participate in the learning process learn more than those who do not" (Weaver & Qi, 2005, p. 570). In terms of

language acquisition, more talk should, *hopefully*, translate to more chances to: access input (Ellis, 2005), build skills from explicit knowledge (DeKeyser, 1998), pay attention to useful / repeated linguistic forms (Schmidt, 2001), pay attention to problematic form (Long & Porter, 1985), practice segmenting and copying (Pica, 1992), develop pushed output (Swain, 1985), take advantage of assisted performance (Ohta, 2001), and gain legitimacy with target language groups (Peirce, 1995). A glossary of these items is provided in Appendix One.

Ellis and Shintani point out, however, that educators and students should not unquestioningly assume that more communication automatically leads to better learning as, "Some studies report a positive correlation between participation and language learning, some report no correlation, and some a negative correlation" (2014, p. 220). To clarify this statement, one can imagine a student who talks a lot in a classroom may simply be repeating already mastered language without challenging their current abilities while their silent partner may be carefully paying attention to new forms of language they have not yet encountered.

Furthermore, it is important to note that CLT may not be innately superior to other approaches to learning. Specifically with reference to Japanese learners, given their familiarity with a Confucian-based learning approach, some of the conditions of CLT, such as: learning through doing (Finocchiaro & Brumfit, 1983), the high value placed on learners' (juxtaposed with teacher or text book) contributions (Nunan, 1991), the non-hierarchical relationship between learner and teacher (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), and a focus on fun and positive feelings (Tomlinson, 1998), may not suit many Japanese learners.

3.1.3. CLT and the Japanese learner

To evaluate the efficacy and subsequent effectiveness of any communicative pedagogy, it is important to consider if learning activities promote learners' access to affordances for language development either inside or outside the classroom, and whether learners are able to take advantage of those opportunities. However, many researchers (Burrows, 2008; Cutrone, 2009; King, 2013a & b; Miller, 1995; Nakane, 2006; Takanashi, 2004; Samimy & Kobayashi, 2004) claim that the majority of Japanese students struggle *to study English in a communicative*

manner. A wide range of interrelated factors are considered to contribute to this perception, although these factors can be roughly grouped.

First, acquisition is somewhat dependent on the relative proficiency of a learner's interlocutors. For example, if learners are to use input from peer—peer interaction to access models of the target language, this language requires legitimacy; otherwise, a learner cannot be sure it is appropriate, accurate, or useful. Similarly, when responding to a partner's feedback, a less proficient interlocutor may simply not understand what is, in fact, a perfectly correct and appropriate utterance. In most classrooms in Japan, the 'legitimate model of English' is only provided by the JTE or ALT; thus, conditions for acquisition may not be completely fulfilled. In this study, however, more proficient speakers are present in the form of 'English-basis' or 'international' students.

Second, culturally-grounded behaviours may affect participation. Japanese learners are frequently described as having a fear of standing out from the group or being evaluated by others; this may lead to them not volunteering ideas or personal information in class (Cutrone, 2009; King, 2013a & b; Miller, 1995; Takanashi, 2004). Concerning communication styles, Japanese learners are also considered to prefer reticent behavior (Cutrone, 2009) characterised by limited self-disclosure (Miller, 1995). Moreover, Japanese learners may prefer to be regarded as a good listener rather than a good talker (Miller, 1995) and may use silence as a tactic for saving-face when faced with difficult situations (Nakane; 2006).

Additionally, pedagogical preferences may constrain successful implementation of CLT. Burrows (2008) cites a reliance on the teacher; a rejection of autonomy; and reluctance to guess, volunteer information, or ask questions in the classroom. Miller (1995) also explains that Japanese students prefer structured, clearly prescribed turn-taking orders. Priority within this turn-taking may depend on social status (Shea, 2017) and can impinge free communication. Furthermore, Takanashi (2004) notes that there may be a lack of intimacy between classmates and teachers in Japanese classrooms. A further widely noted phenomenon is a focus on knowing the correct answer which leads to a fear of making mistakes (Samimy & Kobayashi,

2004; Takanashi, 2004; Talandis Jr. & Stout, 2014). Finally, King (2013b) and Shea (2017) argue that learners may simply be used to, and prefer, a silent learning environment.

Past English learning experiences may also contribute to problems. Cutrone (2009) suggests learners may be confused over the benefits of, and correct behaviours relating to, CLT. Talandis Jr. and Stout (2014) point out that many students simply lack speaking practice which, in turn, may lead to the lack of confidence, the lack of turn-taking skills, and the poor linguistic competence that Harumi (2001; 2011) describes. Finally, King (2013b) suggests that some students simply lack motivation to study English.

These observations mean Japanese students are often characterised as **un**willing to communicate. However, as second language ability and proficiency are not considered clear predictors of target language use either inside or outside of the classroom (MacIntyre, et al., 1998; Yashima, 2012), educators may be confused by this apparent reticence and will ask questions, such as: "Do students realise they should be talking?"; "Are students aware of the benefits of talking?"; "Do students want to talk?" and "If so, why are they not talking?" In response to these issues, the study of willingness to communicate in a second language, or WTC, has been gaining in popularity both in Japan and around the world.

3.2. Willingness to Communicate

3.2.1. An introduction to Willingness to Communicate

Individual learner differences (ILDs) are a set of social, cognitive, and affective constructs unique to each learner that can help account for varying levels and rates of L2 learning success. As CLT has grown in popularity, recognition of the importance of willingness to communicate (WTC) as an ILD has also increased. The logical inference is that an individual with high WTC levels will pursue opportunities to communicate in the TL, and consequently, they will encounter more affordances for L2 development than individuals with low WTC. In short, this means that teachers and other educational planners may focus on the heuristic 'increased WTC

= increase talk time'. This paradigm is represented in this thesis by the shorthand 'WTC→talk'; whereby increased/increasing levels of WTC (influenced by a range of factors that will be discussed in this section) increase a learner's propensity to engage in communication, and reducing or negative WTC decreases the likelihood of a learner initiating communication. Therefore, understanding factors that promote or inhibit WTC may: guide teachers' decision-making when devising curricula, syllabi, and classroom activities; inform moment-to-moment classroom management; and help students develop learning behaviours which lead to better L2 acquisition. Furthermore, a high WTC is also proposed by some researchers as a language learning goal in itself (Macintyre, et al., 1998; MacIntyre, et al., 2003) as it may improve one's career and social prospects, and promote life-long L2 learning.

3.2.2. Development of the WTC construct

3.2.2.1. Quiet behaviours considered deviant

The concept of WTC was developed in North-American contexts as researchers investigated factors that restrained first language talk, such as shyness and communication apprehension (McCroskey et al, 1981; McCroskey & Richmond, 1982) and **un**willingness to communicate (Burgoon, 1976). In positioning such tendencies as problematic, these researchers situated non-verbosity, or quietness, as undesirable or 'deviant' from expected behaviours. This stance is mutually reinforced by the centrality of learner action in CLT.

3.2.2.2. Initial proposition: A personality trait in the first language

In response to the issue of quiet individuals, McCroskey and Baer (1985) and McCroskey and Richmond (1985) (cited in Chan and McCroskey, 1987) proposed the existence of a personality-based characteristic *Willingness to Communicate* (WTC) which would explain why one person is more talkative than another. They also hypothesised that, as WTC was personality-based, one's level of WTC would be consistent across many situations.

Evidence of a stable personality-based construct was found by McCroskey and Baer (1985) who reported consistent correlations between an individual's pre-disposition to

communicate in multiple contexts; e.g., presentation, small group, large meeting, and one-to-one in a casual situation; and consistent correlations between WTC with different interlocutors, such as strangers, acquaintances, and friends. Subsequent studies identified stable, trait-like antecedents of WTC, such as: introversion / extroversion (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990a; McCroskey et al., 1990), self-esteem (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990a), self-perceived communication competence (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990a), and communication apprehension (McCroskey & Richmond, 1990a; Barraclough, et al., 1988).

3.2.2.3. Second language studies: WTC as a dual trait- and state-like construct

As L2 researchers began to pay attention to WTC, they posited that the situational aspect of WTC was more important in the L2 than in the L1 (Charos, 1994, as cited in MacIntyre, et al., 1998, p. 546; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). MacIntyre, et al., (1998) argued that uncertainty concerning L2 pragmatics, actual competence, perceived competence, and new communication norms would lead to a far more unstable WTC construct in the L2 than in the L1. Juxtaposing WTC L2 against previous descriptions of WTC L1 as a personality-based construct, MacIntyre and associates (1998) proposed a heuristic model of WTC L2 (below) comprising both state (temporary) and trait-like (enduring) variables. In Figure One, next page, factors in layers 6, 5, 4 are considered to be trait-like and consistent across many situations; factors in layers 3, 2, 1 are considered to be situational and change from context-to-context.
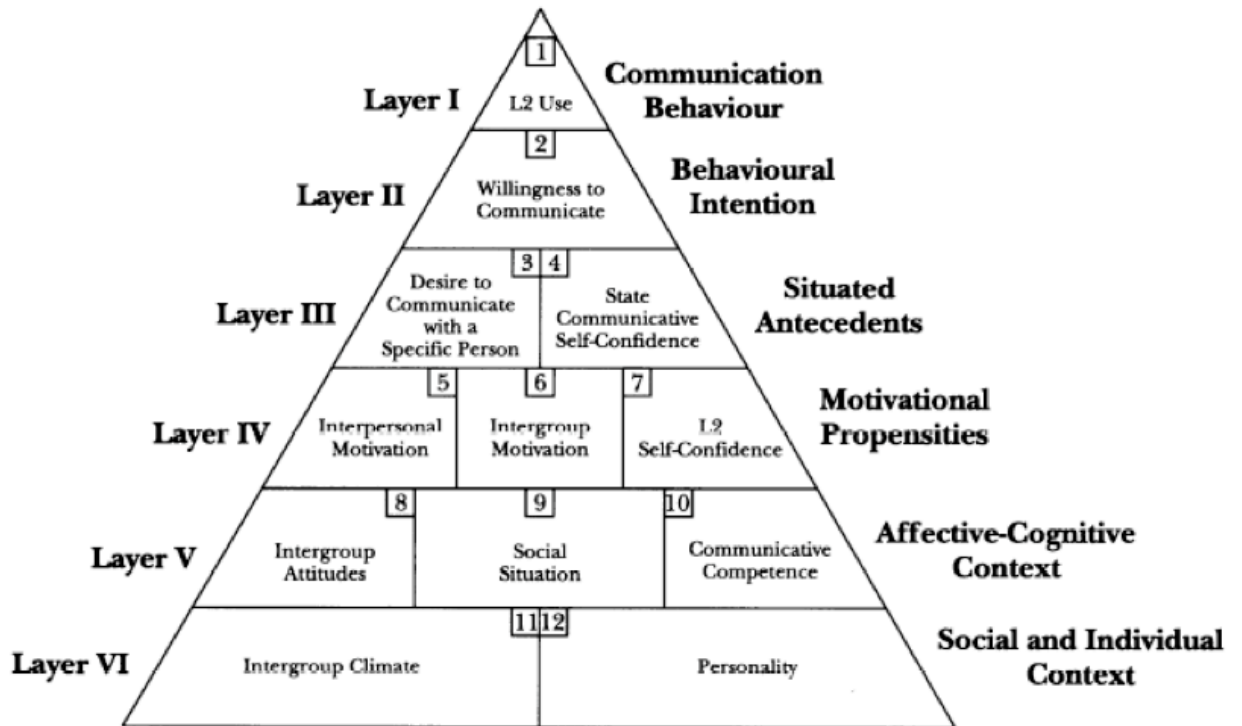
Figure 1. Heuristic model of WTC (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547)
Reproduced with permission from MacIntyre et al., 1998 © The Modern Language Journal

In layer six, intergroup climate describes power relationships between linguistic groups and, in Japan, there may be some rejection of English communication due to geopolitical issues. Personality is also considered to have an enduring influence on how individuals react to people of different linguistic and cultural groups, and MacIntyre et al., (1998) indicate that the personality factor introversion/extroversion may be of relevance in the Japanese context.

Factors in layer five are subject to cognitive and affective self-appraisal. Important factors include: a learner's personal attitude, such as integrative intentions towards, or fear of assimilation by, the culture they are coming into contact with; an evaluation of the social situation (e.g., formal/informal, peer/stranger) and the associated behavioral norms this situation entails; and the learner's self-perceived L2 competence.

The fourth layer relates to the learner differences of motivation and confidence. Intergroup motivation describes the expected benefits of interacting with an L2 group; examples include economic (job hunting) or social benefits (English is cool). Interpersonal motivation concerns the expected benefits of interacting with individual members of the L2

group. In regards to this study, it may concern hoped for friendship or the search for a study partner to help with homework. At this level, WTC is also affected by confidence in using the L2.

Factors in layers VI—IV are considered to be more enduring, and measures of this aspect of WTC can account for the tendency of an individual to seek out situations where L2 contact is possible (MacIntyre et al., 2019). On the other hand, the third layer examines contextual, situated factors, which many subsequent WTC L2 studies acknowledge as having an important role in WTC L2. For example, attitudes towards the teaching context (Aubrey, 2010), social status within the immediate group (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000), and the positive reinforcement of peers (MacIntyre et al., 2001) will all influence one's immediate desires and confidence to engage in communication. Given WTC's dual nature, studies of classroom WTC must consider both background, trait-like variables and situational, immediate-classroom variables.

3.2.2.4. Classroom studies: WTC as a dynamic, constantly fluctuating construct
Following recognition of the dual trait-like and situational nature of WTC, Kang (2005) proposed a construct of WTC L2 as a dynamic, situational concept that fluctuates from moment-to-moment. As described in Figure Two, next page, a variety of situational variables grouped as topic, interlocutors, and conversational context combine to influence the constantly fluctuating psychological antecedents of security, excitement, and responsibility. These antecedents, in turn, contribute to a student's situational WTC which combines with trait-WTC to lead to an ultimate WTC.

Situational variables	Psychological Antecedents	Emergence of Situational WTC	Ultimate WTC

Topic
Interest
Relevant knowledge
Personal experiences
Sensitivity pertaining to
speaker's culture
Prior experience
discussing

Interlocutors
First language
(native vs. non-native)
(same as or different)
Familiarity
Number
Interest / attitude /
response
(Relative) L2 proficiency
between speakers

Conversational context
Stage in a conversation
when: Asked for
additional information
When misunderstood
When making mistakes

Other potential
situational variables

Security

Excitement

Responsibility

Situational
WTC

Individual's
Ultimate
WTC

Trait-like
WTC

Figure 2. A construct of situational willingness to communicate (Kang, 2005, p. 288)
Reproduced with permission from Kang, 2005 © System

Research on the situational aspect has led to recommendations to teachers, such as: generating

excitement through better topic choice, including students' opinions on topic selection, careful

partner selection, and classroom management to generate security (Kang, 2005).

Both Kang's (2005) and MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) models acknowledge a situational

and a trait WTC aspect which coalesce into an ultimate, talk-anteceding WTC construct;

therefore, this study will take into account the trait-like; the situation-specific; and the

constantly varying, state-like (ultimate) aspects of WTC.

3.2.2.5. Focusing on "how" instead of "what": WTC as a complex dynamic system

Many studies in to ILDs treat important differences such as motivation and WTC as stable, discrete entities or 'modules'(Dörnyei, 2010). However, in recent years, there has been growing recognition that ILDs may act differently depending on the timeframe under examination (Dörnyei, 2003; MacIntyre, 2007). For example, a learner may have a strong desire to learn to speak a language and will volunteer for many extra language classes at university (a time frame of 4 years). Yet, in the classroom, high levels of anxiety may limit their participation (time frame: 90 minutes). In addition, apparently similar factors, such as motivation to go to class (for an attendance grade) and motivation to carry out a classroom activity (for learning or for a participation grade), are actually different things (Dörnyei, 2001; 2005). Furthermore, processes affecting any single variable may differ depending on their relationship to the event under examination (Dörnyei, 2005). As an example, WTC before an activity may be characterised by anticipation, excitement, nervousness, or dread; during the event, panic, frustration, or enjoyment may occur; finally, after the activity, relief or disappointment may be felt. Taking these points into account, the 'modular approach' to ILDs may not adequately account for the wide range of needs learners in classrooms exhibit. As a result, findings from such studies may have limited consequences for actionable classroom interventions. To better account for the variability of WTC, and other ILDs, a new, flexible, and accommodating research paradigm is required.

Complex dynamic systems theory (CDST) views ILDs as contributing factors to a system, rather than stable, discrete entities or 'modules' within a learner (Dörnyei, 2010). Larsen-freeman (2015) notes that a complex dynamic systems approach to ILDs proposes the following parameters:

1. The state of an ILD is context dependent. Thus, WTC in the classroom may be very different from WTC in other situations.

2. An ILD's function varies across time scales; for example, long-term behavioral tendencies may differ from reactions to specific moments-in-time.

3. The state of an ILD fluctuates rather than being an unvarying trait.

4. The state of an ILD is linked to prior events and states, undergoes continuous evolution, and is susceptible to feedback in the system.

5. The nature, extent, and timing of cause and effect relationships is unpredictable.

6. Research should focus on interrelated relationships between variables rather than discrete items.

7. MacIntyre et al. (2015) also propose that changes in ILDs are impacted by multiple factors (multicausality),

8. and ILDs undergo soft assembly; even slight variations in extremely similar combinations of factors can lead to widely differing outcomes.

In conjunction with a growing recognition of the potential impact of instructor intervention on WTC (Kang, 2005; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Matsuoka, 2015; Pawlak, 2017), recognising the temporal and situational salience of WTC indicates the value of deep and detailed research into the "specific, conflicted moments in time" (MacIntyre, 2007, p. 572) when an individual is deciding to speak or not.

3.2.3. Crossing the Rubicon: Studying the moment WTC becomes speech

This area of investigation has been described by MacIntyre as *"crossing the Rubicon"* (2007, p. 567). It asks the question, 'What factors impact learners at the moment when they must decide: "Do I speak or not speak"?' MacIntyre explains that this maybe an unconscious or even mindless decision; but, at other times, it may be a highly difficult decision undertaken with "reluctance, hesitation or trepidation" (2007, p. 568).

To understand this decision-making process, an important procedural and theoretical issue must be resolved. Until recently, most classroom studies of WTC have used counts of utterances as an indicator of WTC (for example Aubrey, 2010; Cao, 2011; Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005). However, MacInytre and Doucette point out "There is an unfortunate tendency for people in general, and language learners in particular, to fail to act on their intentions…" (2010,

p. 161). Furthermore, when empirical data was collected, Macintyre and Legatto (2011) reported a "near-zero correlation between dynamic WTC ratings and speaking time..." (2011, p. 156). Therefore, it is necessary to elicit information and draw comparisons between learners' intentions (internalised WTC) and their observable communication. Thus, I decided to investigate factors which contribute to classroom-WTC *and* factors which facilitate or impede students from realising WTC into talk. The focus of my study is indicated in the truncated image of Macintyre al.'s (1998) heuristic model, as shown in Figure Three:
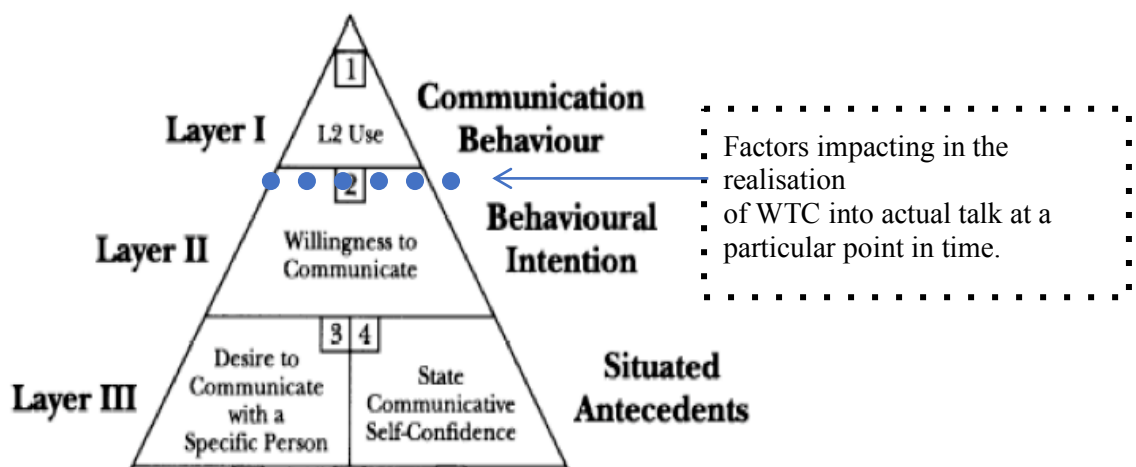
Figure 3. Truncated image of Macintyre et al.'s (1998) heuristic model of WTC
Reproduced with permission from MacIntyre et al., 1998 © The Modern Language Journal

This diagram indicates a hypothesised layer of intervening factors which, when a student has high WTC, may contribute to a student being able to participate or not.

The focus of this study is important because prior studies that reported on utterances (Aubrey, 2010; Cao, 2011; Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005) by default evaluated factors that contributed to the decision to speak but did not evaluate the decision **not** to speak. Consequently, they also examined WTC as a binary construct and did not allow for variations in intensity of the construct; such as high WTC but no communication, or low/negative WTC coinciding with communication.

Furthermore, while some researchers have pointed out that a higher WTC *probably* leads to greater instances of classroom participation and language contact (Alemi et al., 2012; Hashimoto, 2004; Yashima, 2002), evidence that a high WTC directly leads to high levels of participation is not unequivocal. For example, in a study of 16- and 17-year old Hungarian students in compulsory education, Dörnyei and Kormos (2000) found a correlation between self-reported WTC L1 and the number of turns taken in an L2 learning task, only when students had a positive attitude towards the learning task in hand.

Additionally, concerning modular studies into WTC, which regard ILDs as stable, enduring influences on learner behaviours, the predictive validity of measures of WTC has also not been unarguably confirmed. A survey of 14 studies (50 participants or more) into WTC L2 reveal that researchers either use self-reports of frequency of communication, or make no attempt to correlate WTC with observable actual behaviors; and then note this as a significant limitation of their study (the studies are: Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; Berowa, 2012; Fu et al., 2012; Fushino, 2010; Kim, 2004; MacIntyre et al., 2001; MacIntyre et al., 2003; MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010; Matsuoka, 2009; Peng, 2007; Peng & Woodrow, 2010; Yashima, 2002, 2009; Yashima et al., 2004). As such, findings concerning the relationship between WTC and speech may help clarify if ratings of WTC can predict students' communication behavior, and thus would support the claims of many of the aforementioned WTC studies.

Finally, eliciting information on WTC *and* observable communication will help elucidate the effects of feedback on WTC. Beatty (1988) and MacIntyre et al. (1999) posit that one act of communication (or failure to act) should have an effect on subsequent WTC levels and actions. There is currently little empirical evidence for this, but the potential pedagogical implications are significant. For example, Matsuoka (2015) reported that students' working as volunteer staff at an international conference combined hindsight with strategy development to reduce their communication apprehension and improve their WTC in the long-term. In the classroom, students studying Spanish from the United States reported various benefits of in-class computer-mediated-communication, including: the motivational effects of being recorded, anonymity provided by the medium, positive attitudes towards the novel use of technology in

the class, and the use of a computer to overcome vocabulary issues (Yanguas & Flores, 2014). The authors considered the effects of the intervention to be situation specific and, consequently, having a short-term benefit. Similarly, Cutrone & Beh (2018) reported increases in WTC from TBL classes that *may* be related to enjoyment and realistic English use. Research such as this reveals how WTC can be influenced, and can be used to develop learner-based strategy training and class-room interventions to improve students' chances of successfully acquiring an L2.

3.2.4. Cultural variations in WTC

Early development of the WTC construct was done in Western contexts to study individuals whose quiet behaviours were 'deviant' in North American classes and workplaces. However, cultural differences in WTC have been found. In WTC L1, McCroskey and Richmond (1990b) reported that the mean WTC in the USA was 63.1 but 47.3 in Micronesia. They also found a 20+ percentage-points-gap between the mean WTC score (58.1%) and the anteceding mean self-perceived communicative competence score (79%) amongst Swedish speakers. In Micronesia this difference was 1.7 percentage points at 47.3% and 49% respectively. This indicates that learners have differing propensities to engage in communications in their L1 and that WTC variables are likely to have differing influences across cultures.

In the L2, differences between Japanese and Western WTC constructs have been identified. With personality-based factors, MacIntyre et al. (1998) point out that Japanese students are likely to be less extroverted than their American counterparts. In terms of motivation, the stance that English allows Japanese people access to international communication and the world in general, known as 'international posture' (Yashima, 2002), is now considered a more relevant model of L2 learning motivation in Japanese EFL contexts than Gardner's (1988) widely known model of integrative and instrumental motivation. Therefore, I next discuss frameworks for examining factors prevalent to the Japanese context.

3.2.4.1. Other-directedness

Wen & Clément (2003) argue that a Western individual's interpersonal motivations and intergroup motivations, such as control or affiliation, are personal choices; but that in Confucian contexts, such as Japan, China, Taiwan, Korea, and Thailand, these motivations are overridden by a sense of belonging to the group (Wen & Clément, 2003). They proposed the existence of a filter between the desire to communicate and WTC in Confucian contexts based on "an other-directed self that is concerned with a concept of self that is reflected from the outside and a submissive way of learning" (2003, p. 19). In Figure Four, this filter is shown as existing between layer 3 (desire) and layer 2 (WTC) in Macintyre et al.'s (1998) heuristic model.

Layer II
WTC

Affective perceptions
Social acceptance (face)
Inhibited monitor
Expectation of evaluation

Motivational orientation
Affiliation
Group intentions
Hierarchy
Task orientation

Personality
Risk taking
Tolerance of ambiguity
Modesty

Societal Context
Group focus
Class atmosphere

Layer III
Desire to communicate with
a specific person
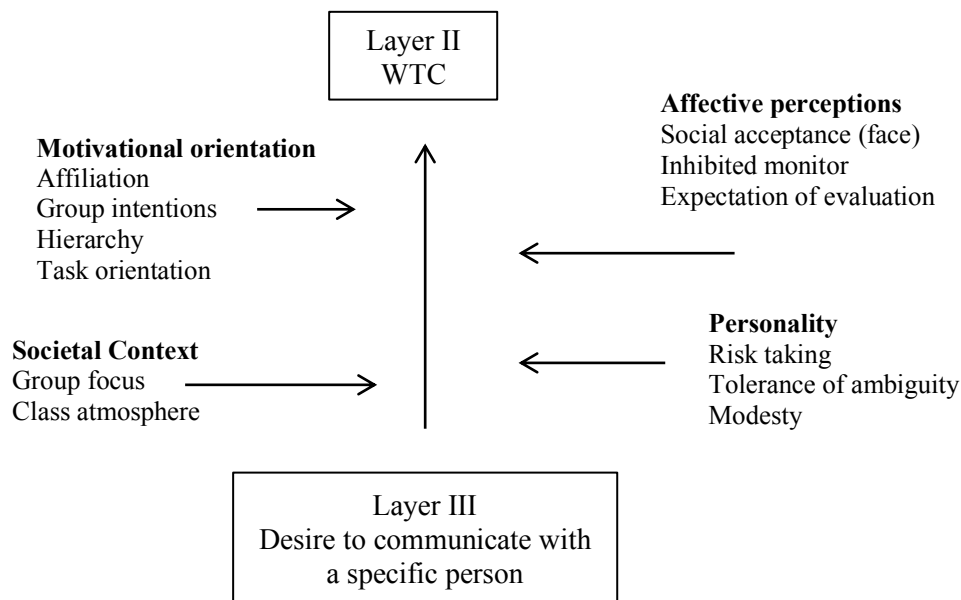
Figure 4. Wen and Clément's (2003, p. 25) proposed filter on WTC
Reproduced with permission from Wen and Clement, 2003 © Language, Culture and Curriculum

In this model, a student's desire to communicate would be mediated before becoming WTC by factors stemming from these orientations, such as: motivational orientation (the need to belong to groups, the need to fit into group hierarchy, and focusing on the task to help the group); the immediate classroom context (fitting into class rules and not standing out from

peers); affective perceptions (fear of not fitting in, not wishing to make mistakes, and sensitivity to other's opinions); and personality (high risk-avoidance, avoiding ambiguity, and modesty).

Various researchers (Choudhury, 2005; Nakane, 2006; Tsui, 1996) have reported on Asian students' apparent reticence to take turns in class stemming from a wish to avoid being too conspicuous or different, and a fear of losing face by making errors. Additionally, in Ducker's (2007) study, Japanese students in conversational EFL classes were found to experience anxiety when asked to freely share personal opinions in front of others. Therefore, the existence of other-directed behaviours is investigated in this study.

3.2.4.2. Cross-cultural speaking styles

Behavioral norms, such as appropriate speech and body language, may also impact WTC. For example, Asker's (1998) Hong Kong students reported that multiple inappropriate communication situations, such as talking to strangers, were featured on a self-report WTC scale they were using. While such context-specific communication norms may not yet have been incorporated into model of WTC, it has been noted that the formal communication behaviours observed in Japanese classrooms are not conducive to successful implementation of CLT (Miller, 1995; Takanashi, 2004).

Further potential factors influencing WTC and speech are described in cross-cultural communication studies:

First, Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1998) described differences in cultural propensities towards more verbose or tacit communication; with trends being described on a continuum as elaborate, exacting, or succinct. Japanese speakers are considered to be more succinct; thus, they may tend to use fewer words and more silences to convey messages than many Western English users.

Next, some cultures display a greater reliance on contextual reading and shared knowledge to communicate rather than explicitly stated words; as described by Hall's (1989) theory of high- and low-context cultures. Japanese speakers are considered to use fewer

explicitly stated messages but read more into tacit communications, such as silences and pauses; therefore, they fall into the high-context category.

Finally, there may be important differences in the speed of uptake of turn-taking opportunities. Such variations are described by Tannen's (1984) theory of high-involvement and high-considerateness turn-taking styles. High-involvement styles have fast-paced, over-lapping turn-taking patterns, which leave little opportunity for pauses or silence between turns. Conversely, high-considerateness style, which many Japanese are considered to use, is characterised by less overlap, fewer interruptions, and the potential for longer turns to be taken.

3.2.4.3. Interlocutor relationships and interactions

Communication activities require a partner or interlocutor, the behaviours and identity of whom may impact one's behaviours and participation. Dörnyei (2002) hypothesised that, by completing adjacency pairs, a less talkative speaker may be pushed to interact by a more talkative speaker. The opposite phenomenon has also been noted by Allwright who described how one interlocutor "stole" turns from other participants (as cited in Ellis & Shintani, 2014, p. 220). Therefore, one area for investigation is the feedback effect of a dominating partner on WTC.

Additionally, power relationships may influence the development of WTC and learners' interpretations of appropriate interactions. Japan is considered to have a highly stratified culture with social imbalances stemming from gender and age differences. On Hofstede's cultural dimension scale (Hofstede et al, 2010), Japan scores 95 on the 'masculine' scale which is reflected by Davies and Ikeno's (2002) assertion that there is a large difference in the relative status of males and females in Japan. In my own experiences in the Japanese education system, gender socialisation and female oppression in the classroom is practiced throughout kindergarten, elementary, and junior high schools. Boys' names are called before girls' names, boys' activities take place before girls' activities, and seating plans are often divided into boys' and girls' sections. Miyazaki (2018, p. 87) notes that these institutionalised discriminatory

practices have long been reported by other researchers such as Mori (1989), Miyazaki (1991), and Otaki (2006). Consequently, in many university classes, I frequently observe Japanese students self-segregating by gender.

How such gender socialisation affects WTC is unclear. Mori and Gobel found significantly higher ratings of *integrativeness* for female participants, meaning that:

> "female participants have a greater interest in the cultures and people of the target language community, a greater desire to make friends with those people, and are more interested in travelling and/or studying overseas than male participants" (2006, p. 205).

Potentially, female participants in the study may display greater motivation and desire to communicate in English; however, this could be offset by male domination in the classroom.

Additionally, Hendry (1995) points out that correct communication in Japan depends on Japanese interlocutors strictly observing age-related hierarchical relationships. Thus, junior students may find participation opportunities impinged by the presence of senior students; however, it may be the case that a younger student's higher English proficiency could negate the effects of any hierarchical dispositions.

An often-misunderstood part of this seniority system is that, in addition to *priority* in social situations, seniors also carry *responsibility*; i.e., seniors are expected to help juniors acclimatise, juniors benefit from seniors' guidance and learn from seniors' past experiences. Collins (2013) reported on the importance of the leadership role in class-activities (not dependent on age) in a study carried out in the same university that this study takes place in. Currently, little is known about the role of age seniority in WTC, and this study may help elucidate the role of age seniority in classroom interactions.

3.2.4.4. Preferred learning styles

To explain Japanese students' apparent difficulties in CLT environments and subsequent limited English development, researchers have proposed explanations centering on difficulties in transitioning to Western style pedagogies. Aspinall (2006), Cutrone & Beh (2018), King (2013), and Shea (2017) note that student may be unused to showing initiative or speaking out.

Additionally, Aspinall (2006) notes that rather than quickly and openly sharing ideas, students tend to write answers down before speaking. This behaviour may stem from expectations of producing 'perfect' answers (Guest, 2006; Harumi, 2011; Shea, 2017). In this way, Aubrey (2010) found, in his study of *eikaiwa* style classes, that students who reported greater appreciation for CLT methodology participated more. Based on these points, I need to establish early in the data collection if students appreciate the benefits and requirements off CLT.

3.3. Conclusion

CLT is a Western pedagogical import which is mandated by the ministry of education, promoted by universities, and practiced by teachers. However, it seems that Japanese students may struggle to adapt to the demands of such approaches and are, by many accounts, 'unwilling to communicate' in ELT classes. The field of WTC L2 draws its relevance from this situation.

My study proposes a dual focus on factors that influence a learners' in-class WTC and on factors that influence whether speech ensues or doesn't. By doing so, this study may provide empirical proof, or lack thereof, of correlation between WTC and observable communication, which is an important limitation of both qualitative and quantitative WTC studies.

Furthermore, rather than a modular approach to WTC that assumes a learner's WTC is a psychological 'module' specific to each learner that they can carry around with them and grow over time, I adopt a CDST approach which requires the elicitation of detailed, rich accounts of the situated nature and dynamic development of WTC over time and the elicitation of information about the effect of feedback on an individual's WTC system. I chose this approach as I believe that information concerning the situated, interrelated, and dynamic nature of WTC will help develop effective learner strategies and classroom activities for communication-orientated learning.

Furthermore, the construct of WTC was developed in order to respond to individuals who did not conform to Westernised idealised expectations of voluble communication behavior. As such, caution in applying the WTC paradigm to Japanese learners must be applied. Thus,

this study aims to consider WTC from a culturally appropriate viewpoint. I therefore will investigate (1) if Japanese students *really* value communicative competence and classroom communication activities, (2) whether Japanese learners are more other-orientated in their classroom motivations and interactions, (3) how sociocultural discourse norms of Japanese speakers influence the development of WTC, and (4) how culturally prevalent interpersonal power differentials influence the development of WTC.

CHAPTER FOUR: METHODOLOGY

4.1. Research questions and introduction

Conditions for successful language learning require high levels of actionable affordances for language acquisition. Detailed knowledge of factors that influence WTC arousal and the subsequent generation of successful talk can help ELT practitioners effectively induce these conditions. I therefore developed the following research questions:

Q1. What (culturally prevalent) factors impact WTC in the classroom?

Q2. What, if any, are the differences between immediate-WTC and classroom talk?

Q3. What (culturally prevalent) factors facilitate or impede realisation of WTC into classroom talk?

To answer Question One, I needed to elicit quantitative ratings of students' WTC in the classroom and qualitative introspective data concerning changings in ratings. For Question Two, I needed to examine WTC ratings and counts of actual utterances for correlation. Question Three required WTC ratings, counts of actual utterances, and introspective interview data. As such, I adopted an approach to data collection that elicits and analyses qualitative and quantitative data concurrently, consecutively, and cohesively. I also needed to use a relatively novel methodology, idiodynamic methodology, to access ratings of learners' in-class, or immediate-, WTC.

To develop coherent and actionable results from multiple sources of data, I interpret and group learners' affective and cognitive responses to various in-class phenomena; thus, this work falls into an interpretive paradigm. In this chapter, I describe the philosophical underpinnings of such an approach, the strengths and weaknesses of this approach, and considerations for maintaining the quality and truthfulness of the work and for making it accessible to a wide-readership. Then, I will explain how I carried out the study: describing the location and participants in the study, the data collection tools employed, and the process of analysis.

4.2. Research paradigm

With the goal of helping students to communicate better in my classes, this investigation falls into a constructivist approach to research in that I "seek understanding of the world in which they (I) live and work" (Creswell, 2009, p 8). An understanding of the parameters and constraints of the socio-constructivist approach is necessary for the reader to understand the research design process and be assured of the quality of my work.

4.2.2. Philosophical underpinnings of the socio-constructivist approach

Early in my study, two colleagues at the study site acted as 'peer debriefers' (Creswell, 2014) to confirm my study's accessibility and appropriateness for others. They criticised the work for lacking sufficient participants and statistically verifiable data, and they complained that findings were "just what the students described about themselves in that class." Thus, it is important to clarify how socio-constructivist research can be read and used.

Table One compares two divergent research paradigms' stances towards the nature of reality, knowledge, truth, and how new knowledge is developed:

	Interpretive (socio-constructivism)	Positivist (natural sciences)
Ontology (what is reality)	Multiple realities interpreted from unobservable phenomena	One generalizable reality measured with observable facts
Epistemology (what is knowledge)	Case specific theories are built from reported and interpreted personalised data.	General theories are testable and can be applied in multiple cases. Needs tangible evidence.
Axiology (what is truth)	Subjective	Objective
Researcher role	Personal involvement to understand subject	Detached observations
Developing knowledge from	1. Looks for decisions 2. Flexible and unstructured research that can adapt to the situation. 3. Methods valid to the specific subject. 4. Data are small scale, insider-descriptive accounts.	1. Looks for causes 2. Structured research (not adapted post-hoc to specific situations). 3. Reliable methods that can be repeated in many situations. 4. Data are large scale and statistically verifiable.

Table 1. Divergent research paradigms (derived from Creswell, 2014).

While Henn, Weinstein, and Foard (2009) argue that there is no natural, clear demarcation between the two paradigms, it is necessary to highlight the interpretive spirit in which I carried out the study. First, the study begins with a flexible approach to an open question rather than a testable theory. Second, as a former teacher at the site of the data collection, I am deeply embedded in the context, and I recognise that my bias will be unavoidably present in the findings. Third, I aim to understand individuals' decision-making processes, rather than searching for objective, generalizable causes. Finally, my findings are open to alternative interpretations.

Accordingly, the value of this study is subject to a reader's judgement as to whether the phenomena described are relevant to their own contexts. To exemplify, this study takes place in a communication practice lesson in a university classroom in Japan, and the findings could be relevant to parallel situations. However, when applying my findings to an out-of-class conversation involving Japanese students and other English users, readers must consider differences between in-class and out-of-class contexts. In particular, the unique context, while considered a strength of this study, means findings may not be generalisable.

Furthermore, the process of eliciting and analysing data concerning the participants' point of view may be open to criticisms of subjectivity and bias. In response, the following section [4.2.3.] describes aspects of my research design that I used to ensure the quality and trustworthiness of my work.

Regarding issue of generalisability, readers should not only understand the background factors explained in Chapter Two, which impact all Japanese university students, but also pay careful attention to the description of the study's context in section [4.3.].

Finally, in response to issues pertaining to a lack of objectivity, I elucidate key considerations concerning [4.5.] procedures, [4.6.] data collection instruments, [4.7.] data preparation, and [4.8.] the analysis process.

4.2.3. Responding to criticisms concerning lack of objectivity

Mirroring my peer debriefers' earlier confusions, Creswell (2014) and Dörnyei (2007) note that defining how to maintain quality in qualitative research is a contentious issue. To this end, I used Lincoln and Guba's (1985) taxonomy to guide my research design:

- Credibility: can the audience believe my interpretations and findings?

- Transferability: can the audience use my findings in their context?

- Dependability: have I been consistently rigorous in my work?

- Confirmable: is my work transparent at all levels, and does it stand up to scrutiny?

In the following sections, I will show how these aspects apply to different stages of my work.

4.2.3.1. Research design

To support claims of credibility, my research designed incorporates triangulation and responds to the need to spend a prolonged time in the field.

Triangulation provides multiple sources of complementary data that can prove a weight of evidence to support my arguments. Following Miles and Huberman's (1994) advice, I use multiple sources (subjects) and multiple methods (interviews, stimulated recall, and analysis of the video data) for triangulation. First, by using group conversations, I collected diverse accounts of similar conversational phenomena. Second, by recruiting different subjects across consecutive semesters, I could confirm congruent themes from various sources over an extended time span. Third, by using two types of stimulated recall, transcriptions of classroom talk, and interviews, I could continually cross-check findings for inconsistencies.

Spending a prolonged time in the field can affirm my expert knowledge of the phenomena under examination. In this regard, both my three years teaching full-time at the data collection site and multiple viewings of large quantities of video data helped me develop an in-depth understanding of the phenomena under investigation.

4.2.3.2. Checking

Concerning dependability, multiple checks were incorporated into the research process to ensure consistency. As Gibbs (2007) recommends, I repeatedly checked all transcripts (interviews and classroom interactions) for mistakes. Furthermore, because classroom interactions were transcribed in a conventional line-by-line manner and in a second-by-second manner, I could extensively cross-check both formats.

During analysis, to avoid unchecked drift in the definitions of the codes and help re-interpret and re-focus findings so they are more appropriate to the audience, I repeatedly presented partial findings at various professional development conferences and asked peer debreifers for their comments. Furthermore, to help validate ongoing findings, I confirmed them with research subjects in subsequent data collection rounds.

Finally, external checks added to the rigor of my work. While I carried out all of the transcriptions and translations by myself, I confirmed their accuracy and clarified ambiguous items with bilingual, English-speaking, Japanese-nationality teachers at the research site.

4.2.3.3. Reporting findings

In order that particularity and subjectivity do not undermine my work, I followed Brown's (2014) advice in offering thick descriptions (detailed and rich) of the setting in which the study takes place and of how various phenomena relevant to the findings occur and interact. Additionally, following Creswell's (2014) and Dörnyei's (2007) advice, I reported any negative or discrepant information that may run counter to the themes of the research. Finally, throughout the study, my bias is laid open to scrutiny by using first person reporting, including: a clear account of my purpose, reasons for carrying out the research, and how I formulated my conclusions.

4.3. Context of the study

As a socio-constructivist study, the value of my findings is dependent on the reader understanding the context in which data was collected. To this end, Miles and Huberman (1994) describe four aspects of selecting the data collection pool that should be reported: (1) the setting, (2) the individual subjects to be studied, (3) the events to be recorded, and (4) the processes to be recorded.

4.3.1. The setting

Data collection took place at a university that I previously worked at between 2011 and 2014. This university may be considered as a bellwether for social and educational issues that will arise as Japan recruits more and more international students.

Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University (APU) was founded in 2000 with the goal of creating a multicultural campus to educate "young people to function effectively at an international level in order to support their region's burgeoning global role." (Ritsumeikan APU, 2008, p. 1). At the time that data collection began, there were 3,208 domestic (Japanese) students and 2,526 international students from 83 different countries enrolled at the institution (Ritsumeikan APU, 2018). Undergraduates enroll in the school under one of two language mediums.

English-basis students study the majority of their content-based lectures in English. At the time of data collection, language requirements included a minimum score in a standardised test; such as TOEFL iBT 61 points, TOEIC 700 points, IELTS 5.5 points, or the Cambridge FCE 160 points. Accordingly, this group consists of mostly overseas students and a small number of advanced-level domestic students. For stakeholders in the university, these English-basis students are interchangeably referred to as 'international students' or 'English-basis students' and are considered to be fluent English speakers. Based on their Japanese language ability as tested at matriculation, they study of a set number of Japanese language courses. For

beginners, this includes pre-sessional Japanese syllabary writing practice and, during the semester, twelve 90-minute classes per week.

Japanese-basis students study the majority of their content courses in Japanese while attending English language classes. They consist of mostly domestic Japanese students and a small, but rapidly growing, number of students from neighboring East-Asian countries. This study focuses on the in-class EFL participation of these Japanese-basis students. The level and number of English language classes attended depends on students' language ability as tested at matriculation. As is commonplace in Japan, the majority complete mandatory English classes by the end of their second year. Upon passing the pre-intermediate level of the English language program (ELP), Japanese-basis students become eligible for 6 credits in the 'bridge program'. This is a set of liberal arts content courses delivered in English. Upon completion of the intermediate level of the English program, Japanese-basis students are eligible to complete their required 20 content-course-credits in English.

Regardless of language medium, all first-year students are required to attend two courses of academic preparation, known as 'workshop'. The second workshop is designed as a multicultural group project. Thus, by the end of the first year, all students have some exposure to studying / working with students from the opposite language medium.

Another important factor in the social and linguistic development of students is that on-campus housing is provided for 1,688 students. Rooms in dormitories are laid out around a communal kitchen with a balanced mix of domestic and international students allocated to each kitchen. International students are guaranteed on-campus accommodation in their first year, and most first-year Japanese-basis students are also able to find accommodation there; so many of the students enrolled in the ELP have experience of living alongside international students.

Finally, the university's location is rural, an approximately 30- to 40-minutes bus ride from the main train station of the small city of Beppu (pop. 122,600). This isolation means that student social activity centers around the on-campus clubs of which there are over 100 registered by the university. These clubs are screened by the university, and one of the criteria

for acceptance is 'international mindedness'. For many students, these club are regarded as the gateway to intercultural exchange.

This environment is somewhat unique. Currently, APU has the highest percentage of international students in Japan at over 50%, while its nearest competitors are Osaka University of tourism (39%) and Kobe International University (24%) (Benesse, 2018). However, as Japan attempts to attract more international tourists, workers, and students, stakeholders in the university face issues that may be indicative of the challenges Japanese students and citizens will encounter in the future; for example, bumping in to a foreigner in a café or shop, working in a bilingual office, or meeting international classmates in a domestic or foreign educational institution.

On the surface, the university provides abundant opportunities for language exchange and intercultural contact; however, according to published research (Lee, Browne, & Kusumoto; 2011), internal memos, and students' comments, interactions between English-basis students and Japanese students are not as plentiful or as rich as might be expected or wished for. A WTC study in an environment where potential intercultural contact *opportunities* are plentiful, but *actual* instances are not as common may provide a rich source of data, particularly into some of the tensions surrounding students' intercultural contact.

4.3.2. Events to be recorded

APU's dual language curriculum allows for 'exchange classes' in which 45 minutes is allotted for 'authentic' English practice, and 45 minutes is allotted for 'authentic' Japanese practice. At the request of either the Japanese- or English-language teachers, these classes can be scheduled. As Table Two shows, they provide interesting opportunities for studying WTC:

Class	Exchange class	Regular class
Required English language use	Students must use English to interact with international students.	Students may 'get by' in Japanese but are expected to use English.
Potential generation of WTC	High, due to the authentic challenge of communication with international students.	Dependent on students' commitment to task and cohesion within the group.
Parameter of 'free will'	Usually student-directed activities to maximise interaction time and promote authentic practice.	Dependent on task type. Often limited to short, controlled practices to fit lesson goals.
Students' comparative English language proficiency	Japanese students are likely to have lower proficiency than their international partners.	Students are streamed by TOEFL PBT score.
Potential obstacles to realising talk	Differences in competency, accents, and cultural difficulties	Commitment to task, use of Japanese
Schedule	3 or 4 opportunities per semester	Anytime

Table 2: Considerations concerning data collection settings

I wanted to collect data in exchange classes as they may provide more opportunities for authentic practice, longer interaction times, and induce greater levels of WTC than regular EFL classes.

4.3.3. Participants

Dörnyei (2007) suggests purposive sampling of the data pool. However, first- and second-year students at APU tend to have four or more classes at least 4 days a week with Wednesdays set aside for sports and club activities; therefore, selection of participants was somewhat limited by availability.

Concerning the number of subjects, Dörnyei (2007) advises recruiting subjects until no new information is added to the study and new informants repeat the same information as previous subjects. As such, six rounds of data collection were carried out: 19 volunteer students participated, 21 classroom activities were recorded, and I conducted 40 separate interviews (see Table Three). In all but the first- and final-rounds of data collection, some students who had previously attended interviews attended interviews again. Due to attrition, the interview schedule does not perfectly match the recording schedule.

Date of Exchange class	Participants (pseudonyms)	# English basis partners	Date of Interviews	Attended Individual Interviews		
2015.11.05	Seo / Natsumi	2	2015.11.05	Natsumi	Seo	
	Michelle / Kevin	2	2015.11.06	Kevin	Michelle	
	Hermione / Annie	2		Annie		
	Steve / Terry	2		Steve	Terry	
2015.12.17	Seo / Michelle	1	2015.12.17	Seo	Michelle	
	Seo /Michelle	1	2015.12.18	Seo	Michelle	
	Annie / Kerry	2		Annie		
	Annie / Kerry	2		Annie		
	Chi-Chi / Tad	2		Tad	Chi-Chi	
	Chi-Chi / Tad	2		Tad	Chi-Chi	
2016.1.28	Kevin. Seo. Natsumi	0	2016.01.29	Kevin	Naomi	Seo
3	Michael. Keo. Tad. Chi-Chi	0		Chi-Chi Karl	Mike	Tad
2016.5.09	Harry / Michael	2	2016.5.10	Harry	Mike	
	Harry / Michael	2		Harry	Mike	
2016.7.11	Kobe / Terry	2	2016.7.12	Kobe	Terry	
	Kobe /Terry	2		Kobe	Terry	
	Kobe / Terry	2			Terry	
2016.11.7	Aki / Kiki	2	2016.11.08	Aki	Kiki	
	Aki / Kiki	2		Aki	Kiki	
	Hide / Taka	2		Hide	Taka	
	Hide / Taka	2		Hide	Taka	

Table 3: Schedule of data collection and interviews

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3 Due to a prior typhoon, the Japanese language teacher canceled the exchange class in order to stay on schedule with the Japanese curriculum. I had already boarded a train by the time the decision was made. The EFL teacher continued with the planned activity as they had no alternative class planned, and we proceeded with the scheduled data collection and interviews.

The student 'Kevin' is Taiwanese. He entered the study as an oversight; however, in every class I have taught at APU and my current university, one or two students from neighbouring countries have been enrolled alongside their Japanese counterparts. Nationwide, this number is increasing so I accepted his data in the interviews, but it is not used in the results concerning the culturally-specific other-directed model in Chapter Eight.

4.3.4. Processes to be recorded

Understanding WTC is principally a question of studying a subject's volition to communicate "when free to choose to do so" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 546). This 'free will' impacted the research design in two ways.

In line with the purpose of exchange classes, the general principal was for Japanese-basis students to practice using English in as free and authentic a manner as possible. Participating teachers were asked to record class activities which provided students with "as many opportunities for free talk as possible." Some teachers' instructions were simply, "get to know one another"; while in other cases, the teachers provided a list of questions or a game in order to "generate some conversations and follow-up questions."

Additionally, in pair work, learners might be compelled to speak to complete adjacency pairs or respond to direct questions due to a lack of alternative speakers. This negates the possibility of declining to respond or to 'freely' take turns. As such, one very specific parameter for this research was group conversations rather than pair-conversations. To balance power differentials, groups with two English-basis students and two Japanese-basis students were preferred. This format allowed individuals to decline turns in favour of another speaker or to take turns from other speakers, and it allowed me to examine the relationship between strategic competencies and WTC. To my knowledge this format is unique; current published studies using idiodynamic methodology (such as MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011; and MacIntyre & Serroul, 2015) took place in laboratory conditions with a single participant and a researcher.

4.4. Access to site

Accessing the site required gaining various permissions to carry out the research and overcoming physical distance to carry out the research.

4.4.1. Ethical Permission

Before collecting data, I needed to obtain ethical permission from Aston University's Language and Social Science Ethics Committee. The documentation I submitted for this is included in Appendix Two. Concerning ethics, the following points were addressed:

Consideration	Steps to ensure ethical treatment
Compulsion	As I no longer worked at APU, students were not unfairly compelled to participate
Consent	All students and teachers needed to sign consent for video data to be recorded in class. Then participants signed a second consent form before stimulated recall interviews. Data-collection would be abandoned if consent could not be obtained from all students.
Privacy and discomfort of non-participants	Data collection was localised in the classroom using an external microphone placed on the table of the participants. The video camera was also angled to avoid recording non-participating students.
Right to withdraw	Students could withdraw from participation during interviews and for up to a month after the data collection took place.
Confidentiality, anonymity	Findings of the research are not to be disclosed directly to stakeholders at the site. Pseudonyms are allocated to all participants.
Data protection	The videos of class were used in the stimulated recall; but otherwise, the viewing should be restricted to myself, a peer checker, and my supervisor.

Table 4. Ethical Considerations

I also needed reciprocal agreement between the Dean of my new university and APU via proxy of the head of the Center for Language Education (CLE). The Dean of my university sent a letter to APU, and I confirmed permission with the head of the CLE in person. I then verbally gained approval from the heads of the ELP and Japanese Language Programs, and the

level coordinators for the Japanese courses. Before recording classroom activities, consent forms were signed by all the teachers and students present in the exchange classes (this form is provided in Appendix Three). Finally, before interviews were carried out, participants signed another consent form (provided in Appendix Four). While consent forms were provided in English or Japanese as required, only English-versions are supplied in this thesis.

4.4.2. Physical access.

The site is 200+ kilometers from my current university and, due to its rural location and infrequency of public transportation, a one-way trip requires over five hours. As such, round-ticket day-trips to carry out interviews were not possible. In addition, exchange classes only happen a few times per semester and can be subject to last-minute cancelations. During the course of this study, exchange classes scheduled for data collection were canceled three times: once due to a landslide, once due to a typhoon, and once due to a teacher falling behind on their schedule. Additionally, interviews were abandoned on-site twice as teachers in the exchange classes had been unable to follow the prescribed video-recording procedures.

As I no longer worked at APU, a former colleague acted as a middleman for all exchange classes. He ran multiple trials with the video cameras and recorders in his classes to work out the best angles / locations of cameras and microphones for the project. Consultations about this work were carried out via email and Skype. When I was ready to begin data collection, he then scheduled exchanges, recruited participants, got agreements from partner Japanese teachers, explained the project to students, distributed and collected consent forms, set up video cameras in classrooms, and post-exchange-class he locked the video cameras in a work cabinet for me to pick up once I arrived at the site to conduct interviews. On the day of an exchange class, I was then ready to travel to the site and conduct interviews in the afternoon after the class and / or on the following day.

4.5. Data collection

I used a wide range of instruments to elicit data on WTC and classroom talk. A list of these

instruments and their purposes is shown in Table Five:

Instrument	WTC focus	Purpose
Video data	Talk	Record observable communication.
Transcriptions	Talk	Detail quality of the turns taken, providing insights into students' reciprocal actions.
Stimulated recall using idiodynamic software	Immediate-WTC	Measures a moment-to-moment WTC during the class activity. This WTC will be compared to talk; and affective and cognitive processes.
Stimulated recall interview	Immediate-WTC	Elicits descriptions of affective and cognitive processes.
Semi-structured interview	Trait- and situational-WTC	Provides insights into background WTC factors.
Questionnaires	Trait- and situational-WTC	Provide data to juxtapose trait- and situational-WTC with moment-to-moment state-WTC.

Table 5. Instruments used in the study

While each instrument was designed to answer specific aspects of my three research questions,

the triangulation of multiple sources of data naturally contributes to the credibility of the study

by allowing for a wider range of observances (Mackey & Gass, 2005) and for more valid

insights into a subject's behaviours (Duff, 2008).

4.5.1. Procedures

Time pressures influenced the data collection procedures. Polkinghorne (2005) argues that, to

capture sufficiently full and rich data from interviewees, an icebreaking / introductory

interview, a main interview, and a follow-up interview are required. However, due to my

travelling arrangements, I needed to complete all the data collection in one session. The order of

these activities is described in Figure Five on the next page. Between the exchange class and the

stimulated recall interviews, students completed [B] situational- and trait-WTC questionnaires

(included in Appendix Five and Appendix Six respectively), which doubled as a warm-up to the

stimulated recall session by introducing the concept of WTC. Next, I conducted [C] the

idiodynamic-stimulated recalls to elicit ratings of moment-to-moment changes in WTC during

the recorded class activity. I then used these ratings to guide the open stimulated recall

interview [D] in which I elicitated cognitive and affective reactions to in-class phenomena. A

stimulated recall interview guide is included in Appendix Seven. Finally, I used a follow-up,

semi-structured interview [E] to further elicit information on background WTC and any other

points arising; the interview guide is included in Appendix Nine.
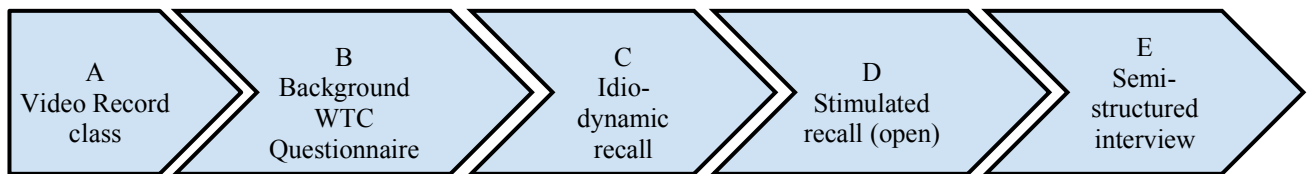
Figure 5. Order of data collection procedures

Stimulated recall requires that data collection is carried out temporally close to the

event (Gass & Mackey, 2000). Thus, activities [A], [C], and [D] needed to be carried out with

as short a delay as possible. To guarantee that all the collection procedures could be completed,

I asked participants to be available for 90-minute sessions.

4.6. Instruments

I will discuss the instruments in the order in which I used them, as illustrated in Figure Five.

4.6.1. Video data collection

There is limited empirical data to support claims that levels of WTC correlate with levels of

participation, so evidence of such a relationship would be of interest to many researchers and

teachers. Therefore, I considered counts of utterances to be central to the success of this project.

To maximise my chances of observing every act of communication, I selected video data as

opposed to audio only data. I also believed that video data would provide better stimuli during

the recall interviews. Furthermore, while spoken output is of primary concern to students,

teachers, and language testers, WTC references all modes of communication. In a similar way, I also considered video data to be more thorough evidence of communication than audio because body language, gestures, and facial expressions may replace, strengthen, or contradict spoken utterances.

Videoing the classes caused data validity and practical issues. Concerning validity, two problems may arise concurrently. First, Dörnyei describes the problem of the Hawthorne effect as "the excitement and increased attention caused by the fact that there is a research project going on may affect the participants' output benefit" (2001, p. 235). In this case, participants may feel compelled to participate more as they know they will be video-recorded. Conversely, knowing that a third party is watching their participation may cause students extra anxiety, which could act as a stimulus or hinderance to participation. Indeed, in the interview sessions, one student mentioned greater anxiety due to the presence of video recorders. Additionally, during recording, some participants used the recorders as the source of a joke; however, one student did deliberately stop another student from answering a question because they didn't want the response to be caught on camera. Clearly, the camera had some effect on participation, but I considered this influence to be negligible due to the number of other factors impacting classroom talk.

As a practical matter, trial and error was required in order to collect video data. First, the cameras needed to have an electrical outlet within reach, so I purchased five-meter extension cables. Second, to catch gestures, body language, and facial expressions, student seating needed to be arranged to allow all participants to be in-shot. For portability and to be unobtrusive, I had chosen the smallest possible video cameras; however, they did not have telescopic lenses and needed to be set about 2 meters away from the group being recorded. In order to catch the best-quality audio possible, I purchased extra microphones with 2-meter extension cables. The microphones were placed on a desk in the middle of the participants.

4.6.2. Pre-interview WTC-rating questionnaires

To better understand learners' general English learning motivations and their attitudes to English and CLT, I required measures of trait-WTC and classroom-WTC. These measures also enabled me to make comparisons between an individual's participation, immediate-WTC ratings, and class-/ trait-like WTC. This data also enabled cross-student comparisons of the same measurements.

To measure general motivations and attitudes, questionnaires are advantageous as they provide uniformity of measurement, resulting in (1) reliability when drawing comparisons and (2) ease of analysis (Mackey & Gass, 2005). They are also quick and easy for subjects to complete (Nunan & Bailey, 2009); however, their limited depth and lack of idiosyncratic insights means I only used them as a small part of the study.

Questionnaire-elicited, quantitative data is also somewhat subjective (one student's maximum rating of 10 may not equivalate to another student's maximum rating of 10). To ensure sufficient reliability and validity for my purposes, I used previously reported trait-WTC questionnaires (McCroskey, 1992) and class-WTC questionnaires (Doe, 2014).

4.6.3. Stimulated recall

Video playback of the exchange classes served as stimuli to elicit WTC ratings and descriptions of factors that affected WTC ratings and / or actual participation. Such methodology is described as 'stimulated recall' and assumes that "a subject may be enabled to relieve an original situation with great vividness and accuracy if he / she is presented with a large number of the cues or stimuli which occurred during the original situation" (Bloom, 1954, p. 25 cited in Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 17). The accuracy of this methodology depends on time limitations, attention during the event, and acceptance of bias.

First, Ericsson and Simon (1993) posit that memory becomes subject to abstraction and inference as time passes. This means elicited data becomes more of an explanation of one possible memory of the event rather than the actual memory of the event. Second, Ritchie et al.

(2006) note that there is a fading affect bias whereby negative emotions associated with a phenomenon tend to fade from memory quicker than positive emotions. To reduce the effect of these problems, interviews had to be scheduled as temporally close to exchange classes as possible.

Additionally, if a subject was not paying attention to the phenomenon that a researcher is interested in during the event, the memory will not exist; and the subject may infer or generate a best-guess answer to the researcher's probing (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). In reference to this point, I frequently reminded participants that "I don't know" was a valid and acceptable response to my interview questions.

Gazzaniga (1998) notes that humans tend to create plausible stories to explain phenomena that they have experienced. In addition to the unintentional interpretation of a subject's memories, this interpretation is culturally moderated. As Lyons (cited in Gass & Mackey, 2000, p. 9) describes:

> "What we gain access to… ...is a private and personal storehouse of myriad public performances, edited and 'replayed' according to our stereotypical views about our cognitive life" (Lyons, 1986, p. 148).

A subject's bias must be acknowledged as relevant to the study, i.e., I want to know how each participant interpreted the situation; however, as the interviewer, it is important to avoid leading questions that may support *my* biases. During reporting of the study, it is also important to acknowledge the impact of the general context on both the learner's psyche and on the immediate situation in which the data is recorded; thus, particular attention must be paid to the pressures to study English that the Japanese students have encountered and to my role as an English teacher. Finally, I need to accept that, justifiably, my findings may be interpreted differently by other readers of this thesis.

4.6.3.1. Stimulated Recall (1): Idiodynamic software to elicit WTC ratings

In 2011, Macintyre and Legatto used a self-designed software to register changes in a student's WTC during a laboratory task. The design of their software is described below:

> "The software plays the participant's video-taped interview in one window and records ratings of WTC in another window. As participants watched their video, clicking a computer mouse rated or lowered the level of WTC shown on the screen (ranging from -5 to + 5). The software included a feature that move the rating one step toward zero every second if no response from the user was given." (MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011, p. 154, 155)

This software has since been unavailable, so I commissioned a slightly adjusted replication from an online agency. I trialed the software with volunteer students from my current university. Following their advice, the completed software has the following adjustments:

1. Video and ratings controller were incorporated into one window constituting a video player with mouse-controlled 'up' and 'down' buttons at the bottom of the screen.

2. Ratings were from –10 to +10 rather than –5 / +5. This would allow for representation of larger changes in WTC, and it simplifies comparisons with trait- and situational-WTC ratings elicited from pre-interview surveys.

3. A hold function that would maintain a consistent rating if a student wished to indicate no change in WTC.

4. A 2.5-second delay to the automatic-return-to-zero function in order to give the users better control over the changes; it was found during trialing that the automatic function was forcing users' scores down at times when they did not wish to reduce their score.

5. A score reversal button that would allow a user to flip their current rating score from positive to negative; this button was included to allow for sudden changes in WTC ratings that the original software did not allow for.

Output is in the format of a Microsoft Excel table and chart, which report the subject's recorded WTC and time data. Ratings elicited with this software are from here on described as 'immediate-WTC ratings.'

As a relatively new methodology, there is little literature concerning issues with idiodynamic methodology; however, during data collection it became apparent that participants needed to become accustomed to using the software, so sometimes the data collection had to be re-started in the first 30 seconds of interviews. In some interviews, participants also mentioned 'mistakes' in rating their WTC; when this happened, I rectified the mistake by opening the Excel sheet and manually inputting data under the student's guidance.

Secondly, there may have been a small time-lag between seeing the video and then entering a rating. Conversely, students may have recalled an event as it approached on the video and may have pre-emptively rated their WTC. There was no definitive proof of either issue occurring, but it is a consideration that may need to be resolved in the future. I discuss further issues concerning the subjectivity of idiodynamic ratings in Chapter Nine.

4.6.3.2. Stimulated Recall (2): Guided interview using idiodynamic ratings

I established a protocol for using the idiodynamic ratings to guide the second part of the stimulated recall. I used an A4 notebook with columns for (1) 'time', (2) 'WTC changes', and (3) 'observations' to note points of interest. During a second viewing of the video, I used these notes to direct questions to relevant parts of the video. An example of my notes is included in Appendix Eight.

Examples of phenomena that I marked as interesting included: changes in ratings; long silences; times of visibly strong emotions; and incidents that went against my expectations as a language teacher, such as when students failed to ask follow-up questions to their partners' self-disclosure. Participants were also invited to stop the video anytime they had something they wanted to discuss.

In order to avoid leading, biased, or difficult questions (Friedman, 2012), my main form of questioning was "What happened then?" If students could not respond, I further prompted the students with "Why did you do [xx]?" Or, "How did you feel when [person] did [action]?" As interviews progressed, it became possible to stop the video and simply wait for students to

self-initiate comments. Often, it was necessary to confirm meanings with participants by re-phrasing the original comments or by offering two alternative interpretations of their comments: "Did you mean [alternative A] or [alternative B]?"

The use of these checking questions may leave researchers open to accusations of using leading questions. In order to be as transparent as possible, I would like to give some examples of these questions. In the first example from conversation [3.2], Tad (T) agreed with my (R for 'researcher') interpretation:

> R:… well why couldn't you say your opinion?
> T: So, in class, there is a limited amount of time, and everyone should be speaking, so if it is just me talking then it is not good.
> R: Ah, like there is a limited amount of time, so if it the speaking time is not divided evenly, it is not fair?
> T: Yes

In the second example with Kota [5.1], I first offer two alternatives based on earlier comments in the interview, but Kota offers a third alternative. Then, I try to understand his response, but Kota clearly corrects my incorrect assumption:

> R: Again, he kind of helps out, and again, you have no grammar or (can't think of) questions?
> Ko: No, maybe his asking timing was good.
> R: Ah, he's maybe quicker than you?
> Ko: I didn't thought that.

In the third example, I offer Aki [6.2] an interpretation of her comment based on prior comments she had made in the interview. She rejects this interpretation and offers a more complete and less ambiguous response:

> R: From here and here your score went a little bit negative.
> Ak: Yeah, it starts.
> R: Ah, listening is a little bit difficult?
> Ak: No, she started to talk, after that, I have to speak.

In this way, learners were able to accept or reject the alternative explanations and recasts I offered, and we were able to co-negotiate (Fontana & Frey, 2005; Silverman, 2001) clear and understandable interpretations of the learners' experiences of the exchange classes.

4.6.4. Semi-structured interview

I did not elicit qualitative data concerning personality trait-like WTC factors during the stimulated recall or from questionnaires; therefore, at the conclusion of the stimulated recall activity, I asked some additional background interview questions relating to feelings towards pedagogies, such as CLT; past learning experiences; and background, trait-like antecedents to WTC.

I chose a semi-structured interview format as too much structure would have negated the possibility for relevant follow-up, while an unstructured interview risked irrelevant questions or overrunning the allotted schedule. Pre-determined topics (see Appendix Nine) were derived from previous studies in WTC and learning motivation:

- Prior international experience (Macintyre, et al., 2001)

- International posture (Yashima, 2002; 2009; Yashima, et al., 2004)

- Attitudes to learning English (Dörnyei, 2002; Ryan, 2009)

- Perceived communicative competence (Macintyre & Charos, 1996; Ryan, 2009)

- L2 Classroom Anxiety (Dörnyei, 2002; Macintyre & Charos, 1996)

- Motivational intensity (Ryan, 2009; Yashima et al., 2004)

- Instrumentality of English (Dörnyei, 2002; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000)

- Milieu and social support (Macintyre, et al., 2001; Ryan, 2009)

4.7. Data preparation and analysis

4.7.1. Translation and Interpretation

During data collection, data preparation, and data analysis it was necessary to translate and interpret from Japanese to English and vice-versa. I asked a wide range of people to help assure the accuracy of this language-related work.

For documents related to collecting data; such as consent forms, explanations of the research for participants, and letters requesting permission to access the site, I employed a

professional translator. In each case, I then asked a native-speaking Japanese teacher at the site to check the documents for clarity, the correct register, and locale-specific linguistic variations.

I sourced translations of trait-like WTC-questionnaires from Fushino (2010) and Matsuoka (2009) and the in-class WTC questionnaire from Doe (2014). The translator checked that the Japanese in the surveys was complementary, not contradictory; and I trialed the surveys with some volunteer students at my current university to check for clarity and ease of response.

During the stimulated recall sessions, I was the primary source of translation and interpretation. At the beginning of each interview, I began the interviews in English as it was my belief that many of the students would appreciate the opportunity to practice English. I then switched to Japanese as and when became necessary. I asked bilingual, English-speaking, Japanese-nationality teachers with locale-specific experience and knowledge to confirm discrete sections of ambiguous transcribed classroom- and interview-data until agreement could be found on all the items I was unsure of.

4.7.2. Transcription

Three sets of data were transcribed:

1. A second-by-second account of oral communication juxtaposed to WTC ratings
2. A record of classroom-talk for analysis of conversational maneuvers
3. A record of interview data

I will now explain (1) how I represented Japanese language communication, (2) how I juxtapose classroom talk with WTC ratings, and (3) how I represented the participants' relationships and communicative behaviours in the transcriptions.

4.7.2.1. Romansing of Japanese sounds

The Japanese language is written with three different integrated systems:

- Kanji are Chinese symbols that represent 'content' words such as nouns, verbs, and adjectives.

- Hiragana is a phonetic syllabary used for inflections and function words, such as grammatical markers.

- Katakana is a phonetic syllabary that is generally used for words of non-Japanese origin.

To represent spoken Japanese in Latin alphabet for non-Japanese readers, a system called Roma-ji or 'roman lettering' is used. Multiple variations for doing so are available although the most widely known system is the 'Hepburn' system. While various standardised systems exist to remove controversies and confusions, they are not used uniformly by all Japanese. Thus, the sound of 'JI' can be represented with "zi" or "zhi" or "ji", and the sounds of 'SHI' may be written with "si" or "shi".

While rendering Japanese talk into roman lettering, I aimed to reproduce sounds / lettering that would be as familiar as possible to people used to reading British English newspapers. To avoid later mis-translations, I discussed ambiguous sections of transcriptions with Japanese-nationality teachers at the site before translating them all into English.

4.7.2.2. Juxtaposing classroom talk with WTC ratings.

I can find no equivalent study at the level of detail of describing and juxtaposing second-by-second changes to WTC with talk. As such, there was no precedent for how to record and annotate these changes. As the idiodynamic software returned WTC data in Microsoft Excel, and as this WTC data was central to answering my research questions; I decided to transcribe second-by-second conversational behaviours next to this data in Excel.

An example of this transcription is included in Figure Six, next page. Column [A] contains second-by-second time data. Columns [B] and [C] contain immediate-WTC ratings for

Japanese participants in the group activity. The speaker who has the floor is shown in [D] and described by the initial of their pseudonym. English-basis students are described by country of origin and sex (TF=Thai Female; SM=Samoan male). In [E], spoken utterances or relevant non-verbal turns are noted. In cases of more than two participants, up to 4 columns of idiodynamic WTC data could be included, and columns moved accordingly.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G
1	TIME	Seo	Natsu	SPEAKER	TRANSCRIPTION	BODY LANGUAGE	
439	0:07:36	1	4	B	yeah no we all like		
440	0:07:37	0	4	TF	Grapefruit		
441	0:07:38	0	4		I don't know why		
442	0:07:39	0	4		Japanese people crazy for		
443	0:07:40	0	3		Grapefruit		
444	0:07:41	0	2		is it for		
445	0:07:42	0	3		another [(inaudible)		
446	0:07:43	0	3	SM	[you like	points at S	
447	0:07:44	0	1	S	[un yes		
448	0:07:45	0	1	SM	[do you ?		
449	0:07:46	0	0	TF	grapefruit		
450	0:07:47	0	0	N	au un		
451	0:07:48	0	2		I like		
452	0:07:49	0	4	TF	nande grapefruit		
453	0:07:50	0	4		nihon de yuume?		
454	0:07:51	0	4	N	yuume? Minna		
455	0:07:52	0	4		taberu you		
456	0:07:53	0	5	TF	what do you mean		
457	0:07:54	0	5	N	everyone	=B asks S coffee?	
458	0:07:55	0	5		eats	=S shakes head	
459	0:07:56	0	5	TF	[(inaudible)		
460	0:07:57	0	5	SM	[so he you does n	interupts TF & N	
461	0:07:58	0	5		like coffee[what about you		

Figure 6. Example of second-by-second WTC ratings and transcription

As the conversation proceeds second-by-second, the transcription continues in the next cell down. In the case where separate pairs talk concurrently, the speakers who originally did not hold the floor have their data transcribed in the next column across, [F], but in the same row as the concurrent utterances. The initials of the separated pair are described at the beginning of cell preceded by "=" to show that this is a participant's initial and not an utterance; see for example row 457 and 458. Otherwise, [F] is reserved for important gestures and facial expressions. Extremely close overlapping is described by '[', thus at some stages, concurrent

actions may be represented in consecutive boxes, causing a slight time-lag. Relevant comments elicited during stimulated recall interviews were annotated in further adjacent columns, for example [G], in the same row (time) that the phenomenon under examination occurred in the activity.

I found three disadvantages to using the Excel file. First, as time is an analogue phenomenon, there is a small margin for time-lag-error in each second of the conversation; however, during cross-checking, I made efforts to ensure that errors were limited to drifts of no more than one row between time stamp and talk. Second, row-by-row, second-by-second transcription does not conform to standardised transcriptions conventions, making it difficult for readers to understand. Third, it does not adequately describe turn-taking maneuvers and interlocutor relationships. Thus, I also transcribed the classroom activities in a more orthodox manner. This allowed me to double check the accuracy of the transcriptions against each other. In cases where I could not resolve a discrepancy myself, I presented the standardised version and Excel version to a colleague for a second opinion.

4.8. Analysing data

Analysis of data did not begin after data was collected but actually started as I was conducting interviews. During interview sessions, I took notes of comments, events, and other relevant phenomena. Then, further familiarisation and early analysis of the data was possible as I was transcribing (Wong & Waring, 2010). After transcription, I divided data into 'sets' related to one classroom video recording. I then triangulated the various sources of data to create an overall picture of a student's WTC, speech, and decision-making. The triangulation steps were:

1. I transposed trait-, classroom-, and idiodynamic-WTC ratings for both Japanese participants to the idiodynamic Excel file for speaker A.
2. I transcribed the corresponding class talk on to that Excel file.
3. I then produced separate standardised transcriptions of the classroom activity.

4. I transcribed the results of the stimulated recall and follow-up interviews.

5. I added explanations of affective and cognitive processes, when students were both interacting and not interacting, to the Excel chart at the time corresponding to its relevance to the classroom talk.

4.8.1. Inductive, deductive, and recursive analysis

Data analysis was both inductive and deductive (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005). Once a data set was transcribed and triangulated in an Excel sheet, I then analysed it in an inductive manner to allow theories and themes to arise from the data. That is to say, I did not prewrite groups or themes, rather, I examined phenomena in the data and then attempted to draw interesting phenomena together into groups of similar behaviors and similar contributing factors before naming those groups appropriately.

Once I completed an initial analysis of the first data set, I transcribed and analysed a second data set. I drew new theories and themes in an inductive manner from the second set of data while using findings from the first data set to aid the analysis of the second set of data in a deductive manner. That is to say, notable phenomena could be assigned to either pre-existing groups developed from previous analysis or be used to develop new groupings. Once I completed an initial analysis of the second data set, I used any newly developed themes to revisit and re-analyse the previous data set in a recursive and cyclical manner.

4.8.2. Iteration and saturation

I continued to collect new data while analysing existing data. Data from rounds two—six were analysed in an inductive, deductive, and recursive manner in conjunction with sets of data from previous rounds. This ongoing pattern of data collection, analysis, followed by more data collection, further analysis, and subsequent data collection is known as 'iteration' and can "fill gaps in the initial description or can expand or even challenge it" (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 126). I continued this cycle of concurrent and consecutive data collection until I reached 'saturation',

described by Dörnyei as when: "...the iterative process stops producing new topics, ideas, and categories..." (2007, p. 244).

4.8.3. Grounded theory

According to Creswell, grounded theory is research "… in which the inquirer generated a general explanation of a process, an action, or an interaction shaped by the views of a large number of participants" (2014, p. 83). Thus, the codes and themes that I developed to explain the development of WTC and speech, and which I report on in Chapters Five—Seven, constitute grounded theories. Their development followed the grounded theory pattern set out by Dörnyei (2007) in which open coding, consisting of chunking phenomena into new codes and themes, leads to the development of overarching themes that subsume several subcategories. Thus grouped, a 'core category', which constitutes the main centerpiece of the theory, is formed. Chapter Eight is slightly different as I derived the overarching codes from Wen and Clément's (2003) model of other-directedness.

During my study, I submitted proposals to present my theories at academic conferences, a list of which is given in Appendix Ten. Preparing presentations forced me to revisit the data and allowed me to open up my work-in-progress to my peers for scrutiny. This process helped me confirm the credibility, transferability, and dependability of my work, and it helped me reject or re-adjust certain theories or codes that were not received well. The finalised ideas that stood up well to scrutiny are presented in the results chapters as: (1) issues concerning classroom participation and CLT for Japanese learners, (2) the CDST nature of WTC, (3) why WTC may not become speech, and (4) culturally specific other-directed behaviours influencing WTC.

CHAPTER FIVE: COMMUNICATION DIFFICULTIES

Interest in WTC has developed from researchers and educators' efforts to respond to 'communication difficulties' in classrooms, workplaces, and other interactional domains. Before I could examine the underlying cognitive and affective causes of said communicative difficulties, I needed to prove the existence of, describe, and categorise their observable manifestations. In addition to guiding investigations into WTC, these observations may provide insights as to *what kind* of participation is necessary for language learning. This is an aspect of CLT which Ellis and Shintani say (2014) has been largely ignored in the assumption that quantity of interaction is a sufficient prerequisite for acquisition to occur.

As such, Chapter Five contains description of the participants' interactions with observed difficulties providing insights as to issues that a study of WTC should resolve. I use excerpts of video data and participants' interview comments to illustrate and explicate my observations and findings. Video excerpts are presented in a line-by-line format which describes both talk and conversational maneuvers that affect learner—learner relationships. Interview transcriptions do not use line-by-line format because the relationship between speakers is not evaluated; thus, simple notations of spoken utterances are given. A full list of transcription conventions is provided in Appendix Twelve; however, before reading the results the following conventions should be noted:

158	Where line numbers are given in the furthest left column, transcripts are taken from videos of classroom activities.
R:	In transcriptions of interviews, the letter 'R' precedes comments by the researcher, myself.
bold italic	Denotes translations from Japanese to English.
[3.1]	For all data, numbers in square brackets denote the number of the conversation from which the example / data is drawn.

To describe and categorise communication difficulties, part one of this chapter reports on the quantity and quality of each student's participation, their proactive or passive stances with regards to sharing information, and their ability to control or to develop topics of their own

interest. Part two details further examples of learners (in)appropriate interactional maneuvers that contribute to their conversational difficulties. Finally, I will describe some potential affordances for L2 acquisition and learners' reactions to these opportunities.

5.1. Overview of WTC and description of interactional features

I first evaluated learner participation by examining conversational asymmetry, or the uneven sharing of conversational roles. A priori, learners and teachers may believe that an equal sharing of talk in classroom activities provides the best environment for all students to develop linguistically (Scarcella, 1990; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992; Ur, 1996); however, asymmetry is natural and inevitable (Itakura, 2001). That said, too much asymmetry, as reflected in silence or lack of participation by one interlocutor, may restrict learners from accessing affordances for L2 acquisition. Thus, high levels of asymmetry may be considered problematic, and their causes warrant further investigation.

In this chapter, I also include the WTC ratings, which I elicited at the beginning of (trait / class WTC) and during (immediate-WTC) each idiodynamic interview, because divergence between talk and ratings is problematic and relevant. As a crude example, a learner who reports consistently high WTC ratings but low levels of talk may require training in developing speech at appropriate junctures. Conversely, a learner who consistently returns low WTC ratings and low levels of talk may benefit from strategy training to develop their L2 motivation. Where multiple ratings are available because students participated in the study more than once, the ratings corresponding to the activity described are presented in **bold** to facilitate comparisons.

To examine asymmetry, I examined quantity of speech through the number of turns and number of words produced. I consider this metric as important because a large amount of speech, through more turns and / or more words, could lead to more affordances for language acquisition. Furthermore, if WTC precedes and predicts speech, quantity of speech should show some correlation with WTC. Finally, if correlation between WTC and quantity of speech is

high, it means a learner's intentions to communicate are being realised, which may have a positive feedback effect on WTC.

To evaluate the quality of speech, I measured 'density of speech' as calculated by the mean number of words per turn and by the number of turns of more than one turn construction unit (+1TCU) (Clift, 2016). I considered density of speech to be important because 'denser' turns may reflect a speaker's wishes to share a greater number of information items during a single turn and may relate to greater levels of WTC. Conversely, a lack of 'density' may be caused by limited linguistic, actional, and strategic competency as opposed to a lack of WTC. Finally, similarly to quantity of speech, 'denser' turns may lead to increased positive feedback in the WTC system and greater access to affordances for language acquisition.

I also evaluated learners' attempts to positively share information through the metric of 'proactive stance'. In terms of developing speech from WTC, a proactive speaker can: notice opportunities to speak, take the floor from other speakers, and contribute without relying on invitations to speak from others. I gauged proactive stances using three measures:

1. The percentage of turns comprised of backchannels; the lower the score, the more proactive.

2. The ratio of unsolicited turns compared to turns comprised of direct responses to questions (UTR = unsolicited turn ratio); the greater the ratio, the more proactive.

3. The number of interruptions they brought to bear on other speakers.

In ambiguous cases, UTRs held greater weighting than backchanneling percentages as calculations of the latter may be obfuscated by non-verbal behaviors such as smiles, laughter, head nodding, and 'thumbs-up' gestures.

Finally, I evaluated topic control by counting (unilateral and collaborative) initiations of topic and by counting topic related (not linguistic or procedural) questions. Level of control may be related to linguistic and strategic competence, and high levels could be indicative of a greater ability to realise speech from WTC. High levels of control may also indicate greater willingness to engage with other interlocutors. Additionally, 'topic interest' is a key factor in

arousing WTC; therefore, self-selecting topics of personal interest may promote positive WTC-feedback.

This section describes three examples of the recorded activities and an overview table of all the activities recorded. Implications of asymmetry are discussed at the end of the chapter.

5.1.1. Conversation 1.4 (11:22 minutes)
Type: unscripted; dominance and topic control (mostly) exerted by Japanese student

Terry (Japanese Male): TOEFL Score 473
Intercultural Experience: High school trip to the USA, lives and works in the international dormitory on campus, 3rd exchange class
[1.4] WTC Ratings: Class 3.4, Trait 4.92, variable mean 1.78; SD 2.61; Mode 0
[5.1] WTC Ratings: Class 4.2, Trait 5.00, variable mean 5.31; SD 1.43; Mode 5
[5.2]   variable mean 5.86; SD 0.70; Mode 6
[5.3]   variable mean 5.02; SD 0.55; Mode 5

Steve (Japanese Male) TOEFL score 430ish
Intercultural Experience: Short term study abroad to the Philippines, lives in international dormitory, 3rd or 4th exchange class
[1.4] WTC Ratings: Class 2.9, Trait 3.83, variable mean 0.46; SD 1.32; Mode 0

Fiona (Thai Female 1)
Janet (Thai Female 2)

Despite relatively modest WTC ratings, Terry somewhat dominated and controlled this activity. In terms of quantity, Terry (119) and Janet (121) both had more turns than Steve (82) and Fiona (65). However, Terry used 652 words in comparison to Janet (415), Fiona (300), and Steve (251). Similarly, Terry's turns had greater density with an average of 5.48 words per turn compared to Fiona (4.61), Janet (3.43), and Steve (3.06). Additionally, just over 40% of Terry's turns comprised of +1TCU compared to 25% for Steve and Fiona, and 20% for Janet.

Terry and Janet initiated a similar number of topics (respectively, 11 collaborative and 2 unilateral, and 12 collaborative and 2 unilateral). However, Terry asks 39 topic questions compared to Janet's 17 topic questions, Fiona's 8 topic questions, and Steve's 5 topic questions. Terry also had the most proactive role in this conversation; backchannels comprised 36% of his turns compared to 43% for Janet, 51% for Fiona, and 52% for Steve. Terry's UTR is also higher; Terry's ratio is 1.875, while Steve's ratio is 1.38, Janet's ratio is 1.22, and Fiona's is 0.94.

Terry's dominance, topic control, and proactive stance seem to be a direct result of a deliberate '*facilitating*' strategy to help his partners speak and maintain the conversation. During his interview, Terry explains his focus on helping his conversation partners: "I just want to make them relax", and "I'm really tend to care about like atmosphere and conversation, I just want them to talk, and them and like kind of just care about them…". This is a role that Terry frequently takes in conversations: "… so I'm always like trying to do like when I have conversation, that's my style… … I taught from my mum." During [1.4], this leads to an interesting incident where Terry speaks for Steve to increase Steve's opportunities to speak:

> *Janet has asked about studying abroad, and Terry has responded. Janet then directs the same question to Steve who responds in the negative (line 158), but Terry then contributes extra information about Steve (lines 161) to maintain the flow of the conversation.*

	157	TF2	how about you ((*points to S*)) how about you [what *inaudible*
→	158	S	[no no no stay japan stay
	159		japan
	160	TF2	ah:::=
→	161	T	=he went to philippine like last.. last two months
	162	TF2	ah::n with HHHHHH

Terry later explains why he interceded on Steve's behalf: "I thought like his conversation will be end, so I just want to add… …so, I just want him to explain his experiences." During his interview, Steve noted that he found this intervention helpful, which substantiates Terry's stance.

Overall, Steve enjoyed the conversation but was not satisfied as he could not speak English as well as his partner. On the other hand, Terry enjoyed the conversation and was satisfied that he had spoken enough. Terry's strategic and actional abilities were admired by his Japanese partners in both round one and round five of the data collection.

5.1.2. Conversation 2.2B (17:30 minutes)
Type: Prompt questions provided by teacher, dominated by Japanese student and international female student, controlled by international female student

Annie (Japanese Female): TOEFL Score 450ish
Intercultural Experience: Independent solo travel to Korea, Nepal, Thailand, America; school trips to Australia and New Zealand; Accompanied parent to Singapore, 3rd exchange class [2.2B] WTC Ratings: Class 8.8, Trait 8.083, variable mean 0.57; SD 1.36; Mode 0

Kerry (Japanese female): N/A
Sai (Indian Male)
Ji-Hye (Korean Female)

In terms of quantity, Annie shares dominance of the conversation with the female Korean student, Ji-Hye. Both took a similar number of turns: Annie 131 turns and Ji-Hye 133 turns. Annie spoke 844 words, while Ji-Hye spoke 751 words. The other two participants spoke much less: Sai had 47 turns and used 144 words, while Kerry had 65 turns and used 209 words.

Speech density also reflected a similar pattern. Annie had the greatest number of words per turn (6.44); similarly, Ji-Hye had 5.65 words per turn. Both had 34 turns of +1TCU. On the other hand, Kerry used 3.21 words per turn, and Sai used 3.06 words per turn; and, in terms of +1TCU, Kerry had 7 turns and Sai 8 turns.

Both Annie and Ji-Hye maintained a proactive turn-taking stance throughout the conversation. Annie's UTR was 1.47, while Ji-Hye's was slightly higher at 1.8. Conversely, Sai had a lower ratio at 0.88, while Kerry struggled to proactively take part with a ratio of only 0.27, which may help account for her low quantity of speech.

Ji-Hye exerted topic control by unilaterally changing the topic 4 times and collaboratively changing the topic 10 times. She also asked a total of 23 topic related questions compared to 15 questions for Annie, 3 questions by Sai, and 2 questions by Kerry. Ji-Hye's control of topics and use of topic questions marked her out as the 'leader' of this conversation. This power imbalance was marked out early on in the conversation as Annie tells the international students of her difficulty in participating in the previous conversation [2.2A]: "It is difficult for us to listen." To which Ji-Hye offers her sympathies and help: "Yeah. I see, we will speak slowly."

Her 'leader' role is also established early by Ji-Hye introducing herself first. Then, later in the conversation, an example of her leadership is displayed as she collaboratively changes the topic (line 110) then unilaterally changes the topic (line 113). Immediately after, in much the same way as Terry [1.4] responds for Steve, she responds for Sai when he is sharing his experiences in Japan (line 125 and 128):

Sai (IM) is discussing his part-time job. Ji-Hye (KF) shifts the topic from part-time jobs to places to visit, then shifts the focus to a different place to visit, and then expands Sai's answer for him.

```
          108   A    .. hea:: hiji i've never been
          109   IM   pfhum ha
→         110   KF   are there any good places in hiji that you could recommend us
          111   IM   i don't know like i just joined it [no idea
          112   A                                       [ah ha ha ha
→         113   KF   since you are our sempai [do you have any ah recommendable place in
          114              [BBBBB
          115   IM                          [yeah
          116   A    [unhum
          117   IM   eh ha ha [ i haven't been like much to BBBBB i've been to osaka [to
          118        tokyo [ kobe
          119   K         [ha ha
          120   KF                                                         [osaka
          121   KF         [tokyo
          122   KF   kobe
          123   A    oh:::
          124   K    an
→         125   KF   he has a sister in japan
          126   IM   in [osaka
          127   A       [oh really
→         128   KF   studying [in osaka
          129   K            [osaka
          130   A    oh really?
```

While Ji-Hye's leadership reduces Sai's need to speak, her questions and changes of topic encourage the Japanese students. Annie and Kerry respond to 19 and 18 questions respectively, while Sai responded to just nine questions; thus, Ji-Hye's leadership can be seen as equally facilitating for both Japanese students.

The difference in Annie's and Kerry's quantity and density of speech is due to Annie's longer answers and positive follow-up contributions. This is illustrated in the following excerpt:

In lines 340—343, Annie responds first with a 57-word answer, while Kerry's response is

limited to 10 words (line 352) with no extension or reasoning.

    The question "What would you do if your boyfriend or girlfriend has bad breath?" is
    being discussed.

→   340 A   actually i often s i often told some one very directly i am mean? [it's mean
       341   like so [maybe i tell him this [yeah this yeah this issue issue? ha ha i dunno
       342   i dunno so like or uh i will give some gum [ha ha ha or some candy eh he he
       343   so ha ha ha or let's go to the like bathroom=
       344 IM   [pf: hu hum
       345 KF   [AAAAA is speaking ((*indicates to IM to take notes*))
       346 K   [you will
       347 KF   [un
       348 IM =brush your teeth
       349 A   yeah [yeah yeah
       350 KF   [let's go brush [ok
       351 A   [yeah ha ha ha *inaudible* (*points to K*)
→   352 K   i maybe i can't say [ah i can't told him
       353 KF   [mm
       354 KF you [cannot tell him
       355 IM   [pf hu hu hu
       356 K   ((*shakes head*)) pfhu huhu *dou shio* (4) he he
       357 A   difficult right

The facilitating control and help given by Ji-Hye in this conversation is of particular interest as,

with the exception of Terry, all the Japanese participants observed displayed some dependence

on variations of this to support their participation.

5.1.3. Conversation 4.2 (17.02 minutes)

Type: Prompt questions provided, dominated and controlled by international male student

Harry
Intercultural Experience: One year in Iceland as a volunteer activity, some short trips overseas with family, previously lived in multicultural dormitory
[4.1] WTC Ratings: Class 5.66, Trait 6.41, variable mean 0.51; SD 1.18; Mode 0
[4.2] WTC Ratings: variable mean 0.37; SD 1.66; Mode 0

Michael
Intercultural Experience: Lives in multicultural dormitory, has international friends on the rugby team, traveled with family to Hawaii for vacation.
[3.2] WTC Ratings: Class 5.0, Trait 3.67, variable mean 0.57; SD 1.31; Mode 0
[4.1] WTC Ratings: Class 5.5, Trait 2.75, variable mean 0.07; SD 1.15; Mode 0
[4.2] WTC Ratings: variable mean 0.33; SD 1.02; Mode 0

Barsha (Bangladeshi Female)
Banyu (Indonesian Male)

Domination and control of this conversation is shared in various ways. In terms of quantity, only Harry had less than 100 turns (90) overall with both Barsha (168) and Michael (181) nearly doubling his number of turns, and Banyu also completing 138 turns. Counterintuitively, Harry records a trait WTC rating of 6.41 compared to Michael's trait rating of 2.75, indicating the prevalence of situational factors over trait-like WTC factors in predicting speech.

Also concerning quantity, Barsha uses far more words (1024) than her counterparts (Banyu = 636, Michael = 469, and Harry = 295). As shown in Table Six, below, Barsha's domination relates to the greater length of her responses rather than number of turns taken.

Question #	Words used			
	Barsha	Harry	Michael	Banyu
Proud of	144	9	20	43
First memory	162	7	19	28
Possession	56	8	6	15
Weekend plan	51	12	13	30
Fear	5	8	1	1
Live in future	120	10	7	7

Table 6. Comparison of number of words used in first responses

Barsha's responses are highly-contextualised and extremely elaborate whereas Banyu, Harry, and Michael's responses contain less contextual information and are more succinct or exacting.

Consequently, her density of speech is also higher than the other group members'. Her average words per turn is 6.1, while Banyu uses on average 4.61 words, Harry 3.3 words, and Michael 2.6 words per turn. Similarly, Barsha takes 46 turns of +1TCU and Banyu 40 turns of +1TCU, while Michael had 23 turns of +1TCU, and Harry only takes 11 turns of +1TCU. The overall influence of speaking styles on learners' perceptions of each other and their influence on WTC ratings are discussed in Chapters Seven and Eight.

In this activity, the Japanese participants are again somewhat reliant on the facilitative efforts of their international partners. In total, Banyu initiates 5 new topics and Barsha initiates 4 new topics, while Michael is the only participant to unilaterally initiate a new topic. However, when it comes to asking topic questions, Barsha seems to exert more control by asking 20 topic related questions; in comparison, Banyu asks only six, Harry four, and Michael three questions.

In contrast to Barsha's domination and control, Banyu is the most proactive speaker. Banyu's UTR was 2.32 while Barsha's UTR was 1.4. On the other hand, both Harry (UTR = 0.5) and Michael (UTR = 0.73) took more passive stances, which is reflected in the large number of questions they fielded. In this instance, Michael fielded more direct questions than Harry (22 as opposed to 16), which also happened in their previous activity [4.1]. There was nothing in the video excerpts to indicate that Michael actively invited more questions to be directed at him. The reasons for Michael twice receiving many more questions than Harry warrant further investigation as, by receiving fewer questions, Harry's access to turn-taking opportunities and affordances for learning are less than Michael's.

Banyu's proactive stance is also reflected in his lower ratio of backchanneling. Forty six percent of Banyu's turns are comprised of backchannels; which, while higher than many previous subject's ratings, is the lowest for this group. Michael's is the highest rating at 69%, while Harry records 61% of his turns as backchannels, and Barsha records 56% of her turns as backchannels.

In this conversation [4.2], the participants used the same prompts as they had used in the directly preceding activity [4.1]. Satisfaction with participation stemmed from familiarity with the questions, which made the conversation more accessible in terms of linguistic

competency and topic development. In line with increased satisfaction, Michael reported a slightly elevated average mean WTC score; however, the opposite was true of Harry who reported a slightly lower mean WTC in contrast to his greater satisfaction. This complicated relationship is discussed in Chapter Six.

Overall, the facilitating control and domination of the English-basis students seems to be a standard feature of the exchange classes, as can be seen in Table Seven (next page).

5.1.4. Overview of interactional features

Interactional features from data collection rounds one—five are described in Table Seven. Data from round six is not included as the audio recordings were compromised. A key is provided:

**	Indicates interlocutor who exerted topic control.
boldface	Denotes interlocutor who exerted quantitative dominance.
1 – 4	Proactive stances are ranked below names from 1 (most) to 4 (least).
Bob[3]	Repeat participation is indicated by superscript numbers.
☑ ☒	Denotes satisfaction with language production for L2 acquisition.
(M) (F)	male or female participant

	Japanese-basis		English-basis	
1.1	☒ Natsumi (F)[1]	☑ Seo (M)[1]	**Samoan male****	Thai female
	4	3	2	1
1.2	☒ Michelle (F)[1]	☒ Kevin (M)[1]	**Korean male****	**Thai female**
	4	3	1	2
1.3	☒ Annie (F)[1]	Hermione (F)	**Nepalese female****	Uzbek male
	1	4	2	3
1.4	☑ **Terry (M)**[1] **	☒ Steve (M)[1]	Thai female	Thai female**
	1	2	4	3
2.1A	☒ Michelle (F)[2]	☒ Seo (M)[2]	**British female****	
	2	3	1	
2.1B	☒ Michelle (F)[3]	☑ Seo (M)[3]	**British male****	
	2	3	1	
2.2A	☒ **Annie (F)**[2]	Kerry (F)	Korean male	Tongan female**
	3	4	2	1
2.2B	☑ **Annie (F)**[3]	Kerry (F)	Indian male	**Korean female****
	2	4	3	1
2.3A	☒ Chi-Chi (F)[1]	☒ Tad (M)[1]	Indian male	**Korean female****
	4	2	3	1
2.3B	☒ Chi-Chi (F)[2]	☒ Tad (M)[2]	Korean male	**Tongan female****
	4	3	2	1
3.1	☒ Seo (M)[4]	☒ **Kevin (M)****[2] **(Taiwan)**		☒ Natsumi (F)[2]
	3	1		2
3.2	**Tad** **[3]	☑ **Michael**[1]	☒ Chi-Chi[3]	☒ Keo
	1	2	3	4
4.1	Harry (M)[1]	☑ Michael (M)[2]	**Bangladeshi male****	Korean female
	3	4	1	2
4.2	Harry (M)[2]	☑ Michael (M)[3]	**Bangladeshi female****	Indonesian male
	4	3	2	1
5.1	☑ **Terry (M)****[2]	☒ Kobe (M)[1]	Thai female	Thai female
	1	3	2	4
5.2	☑ **Terry (M)****[3]	☒ Kobe (M)[2]	Korean female	**Sri Lankan male**
	1	2	4	3
5.3	☒ **Terry (M)**[4]	☒ Kobe (M)[3]	Vietnamese female	Korean female
	2	1	3	4

Table 7. Overview of participation

A feature of all these activities was the facilitative control exerted by the English-basis participants. With the exception of Terry, and data collection round three where no English-basis students attended, the Japanese students relied on their international counterparts to take the lead role in the activities.

As dominance through total words and 'density', proactiveness, and control are considered desirable actions for developing affordances for learning (and possibly for promoting positive feelings of WTC) it is perhaps worrying that there is a trend towards dominance, control of the conversations, and more proactive stances by the English-basis students. The literature described in this report and my experiences both in this school and other schools indicate that this should be considered as a 'typical' learning problem for Japanese students in CLT situations.

Among the Japanese-basis students, only Terry (1.4 / 5.1 / 5.2 / 5.3) accepted the responsibility to control any conversations. He controlled and dominated every time he participated, which he attributed to a focus on taking care of other people in conversations that he had been taught by his mother.

Annie was able to quantitatively dominate two of her conversations (2.2A / 2.2B), but this dominance was facilitated by the international students directly encouraging Annie's participation and by the limited participation of her Japanese partner, Kerry.

Various other factors, the relevance of which will be discussed in Chapters Seven and Eight, also contributed to the international students' dominance. These include, but are not necessarily limited to: comprehension issues leading to long delays and difficulties in responding to questions; strategic issues restricting students from taking the floor or responding in a timely fashion; linguistic issues meaning students had difficulty in verbalising responses; difficulties in thinking of topic relevant ideas; gender-relevant relationship issues; speaking style differences leading to negative opinions of non-Japanese interlocutors; and limited output and discourse issues relating to limited development of ideas by Japanese students.

5.2. Conversational maneuvers

Having described the limited quality and quantity of many of the Japanese learners' talk, this section describes conversational maneuvers that may have contributed to the Japanese learners' difficulties and reliance on the facilitating control of the English-basis students. These maneuvers may be interpreted as indicators of a lack strategic and actional competency that the learners need to develop to realise WTC in to speech. Occurrences of these issues helped guide the stimulated recall interviews, and their relevance to my research questions are discussed in Chapters Seven and Eight.

5.2.1. Failure to take initiative

Despite asserting that new friendships and access to authentic practice were benefits of the exchange classes, Japanese students repeatedly failed to signal their intent to communicate and take advantage of these opportunities. In six of the 19 conversations, participants did not acknowledge their English-basis counterparts and chatted in Japanese while waiting for instructions. Sometimes, this wasted valuable practice time: in [2.2A], a 20-minute recording, the Japanese participants conversed in Japanese for over 2-and-a-half minutes before interacting with their partners; in [6.3] the Japanese students talked in Japanese for 3 minutes before following instructions to talk to the English-basis students.

Engaging English speakers outside of class is considered to be an important part of L2 development (Ortega, 2009); however, out-of-class practice requires a proactive stance towards English communication. In this regard, the Japanese participants failed to show intent to initiate interaction or determine the content of conversations. In addition to an overall passive stance during activities, they relied on the international students to make the first substantive speech and determine the initial topic in conversations. In twelve of the nineteen conversations, international students offered the first substantive speech; while, in three of the remaining seven conversations, Japanese students offered their formalised and formulaic self-introductions first after being instructed to "do self-introductions" by the teacher. Examples of Japanese students

finding appropriate conversation starters were limited, but include: Annie in [1.3] offering "*I have been to Nepal*" to the Nepalese student *in Japanese*; and in [2.1] Michelle asks, "Do you know each other?" after Seo and the international student greet each other in Japanese with "*long time no see.*"

5.2.2. Speaking patterns and 'classroom-hybrid' conversations

According to Nunan, "in genuine communication, decisions about who says what to whom and when are up for grabs" (1987, p. 137). Thus, in CLT activities, students should be positively evaluating when it is reasonable to '*take* turns' without any set / pre-determined order or signals to indicate an interlocutor is relinquishing the floor. Similarly, students should practice suggesting, developing, and transitioning between topics. In the classroom activities recorded, free turn-taking and natural topic development rarely occurred.

Learners implicitly or explicitly followed 'floor-sharing' rules. These are variations of set patterns of 'classroom turn-taking rules' that are arranged to share talk turns somewhat evenly. During the stimulated recall sessions, it became apparent that floor-sharing sometimes led to students not taking up opportunities to speak or even suppressing development of WTC. Floor-sharing also means learners do not practice turn-*taking*. The importance of this phenomenon cannot be overstated in terms of WTC suppression, learning to enter into communication in natural settings, and for developing appropriate learning tasks; thus, I will describe floor-sharing next.

5.2.2.1. Floor sharing variation one: Round robin

In many instances, groups were reliant on one member becoming the leader, who then develops or chooses topics to discuss. The leader would initiate a topic then, after the first speaker had finished their turn, that (current) speaker would designate the second responder with a verbal or non-verbal variation of "How about you?". Turns subsequently proceeded in round-robin fashion. In the following excerpt [2.2A], Macey (Tongan Female) takes a prompt from an

activity sheet (line 109) and asks the questions to the current speaker, Henry (<u>K</u>orean <u>M</u>ale).

This leads to a new round of questioning; KM passes the same question back to TF (line 116),

who then passes the question on to <u>K</u>erry (line 124), who then passes the same question on to

<u>A</u>nnie (line 139).

```
        108   KM    nice to [meet you=
→       109   TF           [what about dislikes ((points to item on the teacher's screen))
        110   A     =nice to meet you
        111   KM    oh my dislikes [what do i not like hmm tsu:: what do i not like ... i:: don't
        112               really have a specific dislike [eh
        113   A                       [dislike
        114   A                              [ah ha ha ha
        115   TF    wow ok
→       116   KM    what do you not like
        117   TF    ah basically learning japanese ha ha ha ha
        118   A     [ha ha ha really oh my god
        119   K     [ha ha ha
        120   TF    cuz it's too hard for me maybe i'm just kinda mm lazy [but it's too
        121               difficult so so ... but not really once i'm good at it then i think it's ok
        122   A                                                          [mm
        123   A     MMmm ...
→       124   TF    how about you ((points to K))
        125   K     dislike=
        126   TF    =something you don't like yeah
        127   K     i don't like the:: putting and eh machya .
        128   TF    putting ((nods)) machya ((nods))
        129   K     un
        130   KM    oh really
        131   A     are you a japanese right? ha ha ha
        132   K     ah ha ha ha ha ha
        133   KM    everything's ((machya))
        134   K     un
        135   KM    yes
        136   K     i don't like ((machya))
        137   KM    [ah
        138   A     [un::
→       139   K     you don't like ((indicates to A with hand))
        140   A     so like corn in food [and mince
        141   K                          [corn
        142   KM                         [corn
        143   TF    [corn?
        145   K     [pfhu hu hu
        146   A     yeah corn and mince like small [((indicates 'tiny' with fingers)) very
        147               small kind of like i don't like that yeah
        148   K                                    [pfhu ha HA HA HA
        149   KM    difficult to pick up with chopsticks
        150   A     yeah
```

5.2.2.2. Floor sharing variation two: The pivot

Sometimes, the leader acted as a 'pivot'. The pivot would take sole responsibility for passing a question, in turn, to each respondent; passing the same question to the next respondent once a sufficient response had been elicited. In [2.3A], the Korean Female (Ji-Hye), develops a question and asks it to Chi-Chi (line 174). KF then provides backchanneling (line 178) and follow-up questions (180; 184). KF then asks the same question to Indian Male (line 188/189) and adds a follow up question (line 194). Finally, KF passes the question to Tad (line 205).

```
→   174   KF    what do you do in your free time hobby
    175   C     ... my hobby is watching TV [and listening music a:and sometimes
    176         playing tennis
    177   KF                              [watching tv
→   178   KF    tennis
    179   T     n tennis ((still searching on his phone))
→   180   KF    in AAA house so you watch do you own a television or do you watch TV
    181         in the kitchen
    182   C     in the [kitchen yeah
    183   KF          [kitchen
→   184   KF    ((nods head)) there's not many channels right
    185   C     yeah
    186   KF    nn
    187   IM    just news channel
→   188   KF    news channel and some regional TVs what about you SSSSS san what's
    189         your hobby
    190   IM    i sleep [ha ha ha
    191   T            [ha ha ha ha
    192   KF           [you sleep you like sleeping
    193   IM    or i'm on baito
→   194   KF    baito [what baito
    195   T           [where
    196   IM    macdonald [hiji hiji
    197   KF              [ahun
    198   T              [uhwa
    199   C              [a
    200   KF    HIJI
    201   IM    un … do you know hiji
    202   KF    yeah i've never been there though
    203   IM    it's near right
    204   all   ((nodding))
→   205   KF    baito are you doing any part-time [job
    206   T                                       [un
```

The pivot role places responsibility on the leader and stops other students from practicing various strategic competencies. In another WTC study, conducted at APU, Collins

(2013) found that other learners rely on, and appreciate, the work of the leader in promoting communication. This kind of turn-taking pattern is also common in the participants' regular language classes: Keo [3.2] notes that "***It's always like this. Always in this way, Tad speaks first and Tad asks the other three what we think. And, I always answer last.***" Tad, who acts as the pivot for Keo in [3.2], notes that this is his preferred format for talking in class: "So, I prefer that one by one people say their opinions, you speak, you speak, you speak…".

5.2.2.3. Floor sharing variation three: The inquisition

A final turn-taking pattern was the 'inquisition' whereby English-basis students alternately 'peppered' a Japanese student with questions which each receive a brief response. This pattern was prevalent in the 'dry run' trialing of the video cameras; as such, no WTC data exists for the conversations, and the data are not included elsewhere in the study. In the example below, an Indonesian female (I) questions a <u>J</u>apanese <u>M</u>ale student about his hobbies (lines 01—10). When this topic finishes, a Taiwanese female (TF) picks up the questioning role (lines 13—18).

```
01   I       do you like to go to the beach in BBBBB
02   JM      iya… umm very dirty
03   I       dirty
04   JM      yeah, i don't want to swim in dirty sea (3)
05   I       oh what is your hobby like aside from sports like do you like to listen to
06           music or no
07   JM      i like i like listen to music
08   I       ah you like to listen to music
09   JM      ah especially i like ah jazz
10   I       jazz
10   TF      oh
11   JM      ha ha ha
12   I       jazz jazz
13   TF      where in New Zealand do you want to go
14   JM      queensland
15   I / TF  ((both)) queensland
16   JM      yah i have been to new zealand once uhhhh then i went to queensland
17           ahh i do jet boat ahhh bunji jump there
18   TF      how did you feel when you first bunjee jumped
```

Round robin, the pivot, and the inquisition were not just common behaviours in this study; Campbell-Larsen (2019a) claims they are widely used in many Japanese classrooms. As

such, understanding factors that promote these behaviours may help expand the relevance of this study to a wider context than the university where the data was collected.

5.2.3. Lack of self-disclosure

Many participants displayed passive stances in their conversations by failing to construct an appreciable number of turns of +1TCU and developing less dense turns than their English-basis counterparts. Unfortunately, this limits learners' ability to self-maintain and self-progress conversations (Stivers & Robertson, 2006), which consequently curtails access to affordances for L2 acquisition. It also creates potential for negative feedback in the WTC system if learners evaluate their limited conversations as unsuccessful. This problem manifests as short, undeveloped turns, and limited disclosure of personal information. In the following excerpt, in spite of the instructor's instructions to "ask many follow-up questions and develop many opinions", Seo (S) and Natsumi (N) respond to their partners' questions with limited information. In line 54, Seo fails to offer extra information about his cat, and the turn moves on to TF (Thai Female). When surprised by TF's response (line 60), Natsumi fails to ask for any further explanation. Later, SM (Samoan Male) asks about talent shows (line 63), Natsumi fails to respond to the opportunity, and the question and floor is soon passed to the next speaker (line 68).

	50	SM	ok next one
	51	TF	uh huh u huh huh
	52	SM	ah pet ... you like ((*points at s then n*))
	53	TF	do you have any pets? dog?
→	54	S	cat I have a cat
	55	TF	cat
	56	SM	do you like pets?
	57	S	yeah
	58	SM	ok *writes on paper*
	59	TF	I don't like pets
→	60	N	[eh?
	61	S	[huh u hu
	62	TF	sorry
→	63	SM	show talent show
	64	N	*un*
	65	SM	you like
	66	N	yeah

```
        67   TF   what kind of talent show=
  →     68   SM   =you ((points pen at Seiji who shakes his head))
        69   N    no [you hate
        70   SM      [oh you hate
        71   S    hate
        72   N    nande=
        73   SM   =I don't ha ha ha ((writes on the sheet))
        74   N    ah it's ok
        75   SM   oh ok skip it. how about hot weather atsui mono
```

Thompson, Fox, & and Couper-Kuhlen (2015) note that it is necessary to expand answers to provide interlocutors with information to latch onto; thus, these short turns not only limit one's own learning opportunities but also lead to poor conversations for all participants. In response to these short turns, English-basis students were recorded encouraging Japanese students to expand their responses. In [4.1], both the Bangladeshi male (BM): "Could you say a bit more, could you say about it a bit more?" and the Korean female (KF): "Explain it a bit" encourage further development of Harry's responses. In a further example from [4.1], Michael is responding to "Where would you like to live in the future?" but gives a simple answer (line 171). BM attempts to implicitly encourage further extension (line 172). Then, KF explicitly demands greater extension (lines 173 and 175), as does BM in line 176. Finally, KF tries articulating something for Michael to use (line 181) to develop his idea, which he does not do.

```
        167  BM   yeah where would you like to live
        168  M    ...
        169  BM   like in the usa [australia
        170  M                   [eh
  →     171  M    ah japan
  →     172  BM   japan [ok so
  →     173  KF         [japan japan where
        174  M    where in tokyo
  →     175  KF   [tokyo why
  →     176  BM   [tokyo so why do you wanna go to tokyo
        177  M    ah i dunno but tokyo is my hometown [so i love tokyo
        178  BM                                       [ok
        179  KF                                       [((nods))
        180  BM   wow great
  →     181  KF   so, it's convenient for you to live in tokyo
```

The phenomena of short responses and a lack of details, which leave little for partners to respond to, are noted as common problems in Japanese EFL classrooms by Campbell-Larsen

(2019b). In [3.1], when faced with this problem and finding herself forced into the role of pivot, the English-basis student (Mary) can be heard remarking under hear breath "brutal"!

5.2.4. Conversation difficulties: Conclusion

The difficulties described contributed to the general subordinate position of the Japanese learners in most of the conversations. These difficulties not only impact on immediate participation but they also create negative feedback, which impacts a learner's WTC system by simultaneously draining motivation and confidence while increasing anxiety. Various other difficulties that also had an effect on learners' interactions included: problems in *taking* turns, having time to develop ideas, directly communicating opposing ideas or difficult topics, finding topics to talk about, and asking for help when facing difficulties. While the relevance and causes of these difficulties are further discussed in Chapters Seven and Eight, the final point in this list warrants further explication. By avoiding difficulties, learners either negate or fail to notice affordances for L2 development. As such, learners arguably render participation in any CLT activity less meaningful. I argue that the value of examining learners' WTC construct is to increase the effectiveness of their communicative activities in promoting language acquisition. Therefore, uncovering reasons for and then providing solutions to issues, such as learners avoiding asking for help or hiding their difficulties, are examples of key goals of WTC studies.

5.3. Taking advantage of affordances for learning?

This section gives additional examples of learners negating the benefits of CLT type practice because of negative emotional responses and examples of failures to take advantage of opportunities for linguistic development.

5.3.1. Negative emotions (and negative WTC feedback)

MacIntyre et al. (1998) posit that the development of learners who intend to use the TL should be considered part of the goal of language programs. It is, therefore, unfortunate that multiple participants reported high levels of stress, feelings of anxiety, and despondency during the exchange classes. For example, Natsumi [1.1] describes feelings of nervousness before the class and alludes to extra pressure caused by exchange classes. During the interview she explains: "***It's emotionally draining, so when we speak English it is tiring and emotionally draining, even if we don't speak much it is draining.***" Michelle [1.2] explains that, for her, such stress is not aroused in regular English classes but only in exchange classes. She also explains that it is often caused by the English-basis students speaking too quickly and by pressure to speak English to help her partners enjoy the session, both of which she indicates she cannot cope with. She also reports getting nervous and panicking during the session.

Michael [4.2] not only alludes to fears of embarrassment but also reports feeling "***gutted***" when his attempts to communicate do not go well. In addition to feeling stressed and nervous throughout conversations, Aki [6.1] also reports having to cope with increased negative feelings when it becomes her turn to speak. She also reveals that she worries about the personality of exchange partners before she meets them.

In addition to many students' lack of satisfaction with their participation, as reported in Table Seven [section 5.1.4]; Natsumi [1.1], Michelle [1.2], Annie [1.3], Harry [1.4], Michael [4.2], and Aki [6.1] all reported feelings of inferiority vis-à-vis the English-basis students.

The general effect of such difficulties may be reflected in some students' negative stances towards practicing English in the exchange classes. This stance was indicated by Kevin

[1.2] and Michael [4.2], who openly admitted that they would prefer to talk in Japanese with the international students; and by both Kevin [1.2] and Michelle [1.2], who stated that they would prefer not to do exchange classes. This negative preference can also be extended to Keo [3.2], Aki [6.1], and Kiki [6.2], who all intimated that they don't particularly like talking at all.

5.3.2. Taking advantage of affordances for learning

Given the conversational difficulties displayed and the emotional stress that students report, it is important to consider if these activities have any benefits. As Ortega notes, in addition to exposure, students need to be able to take advantage of the opportunities for L2 development provided:

> "What matters in the linguistic environment is not simply 'what's out there' physically or even socially surrounding learners, but rather what learners make of it, how they process (or not) the linguistic data and how they live and experience that environment." (Ortega, 2009, p. 78)

With regards to this issue, I examined video data to check if students (1) were actively engaged in generating the maximum talk possible and / or (2) noticed opportunities to develop L2 competencies. As students' floor-sharing' activities negate the development of floor-taking (strategic-, actional-, and discourse skills) and limit their ability to self-develop topics, point (2) simply refers to linguistic development.

5.3.2.1. Avoiding asking for help

As opposed to generating the maximum L2 input and output possible, learners had other priorities. First, students hid comprehension issues. Steve [1.4] describes his behavior thus:

> S: Oh oh. This time I cannot understand their talk, so I felt boring.
> R: Ah, OK. But you're smiling. The whole way through, you're smiling.
> S: Ahh. Yeah yeah. Smiling. But, I'm feeling like.. "oh dear".
> R: OK
> …
> R: OK, so you are saying, "yeah yeah yeah", but really you don't know?
> S: Yeah. Ha ha ha.

Michelle [1.2] also describes her difficulties in listening while apparently indicating some form of comprehension by "*saying 'ah' 'ah' 'ah', 'I see'*", but she admits that "*I have no idea (what she means).*"

In addition to hiding her lack of comprehension, Michelle [1.2] also admits to a reticence to ask teachers for help, which extends to regular classes too:

> R: *You didn't say like "Teacher Teacher can you help us"?*
> M: *Oh, no we didn't. I wonder why. Ah, we should have asked, shouldn't we?*
> R: *Well... I guess so.*
> M: *I don't have a habit to ask the teacher questions. I never do it.*
> …
> R: *So, what about in regular lessons, so what do other students do?*
> M: *Recently, I have come to be able to do it. When I don't understand (now) I am able to ask the teacher questions. But other students too. When it is like too much speaking (for us to understand), even just one-to-one, nobody really says it. We usually sort of ask our friends to help us out.*

Participants also rejected the help offered by the international students or the use of a dictionary. In [2.2A], Annie and Kerry try to understand the question "It should be illegal for bosses to check their employees' personal email." Between 18:08 and 19:49 in the video, Annie's WTC varies between 0 and –3 as she and Kerry struggle to develop a response. Arguably trying to resolve the issue is a learning process, but the time may have been better used by quickly moving on or getting outside help. Doing so would potentially lead to more output and further affordances for learning at a level closer to the students' actual ability. In this case, the international students eventually forced the abandonment of the difficult question and posed the question "It's not acceptable for a woman to ask a man out ... for like a date." This question elicited an immediate response from Annie, during which her WTC fluctuated from 0 to +6 then 0 to +7. The decision to move on clearly led to more talk and the positive reinforcement of Annie's WTC system, potentially through feelings of enjoyment, competence, and confidence.

5.3.2.2. Pre-emptively avoiding difficult situations

For some participants, rather than seeing potential difficulties as affordances, they try to avoid

them. In [6.2], KiKi's WTC score falls to −3 as she anticipates difficulties:

> K: *So, I was thinking, next I am going to have to explain this.*
> R: *ahh ohh*
> K: *But it's not like A-san's, I can't explain it, I won't be able to talk, I thought.*
> R: *Ah, it's too difficult?*
> K: *That's correct. If I explain about this, it's going to be too complicated, I thought.*

Michael [4.2] also anticipated difficulties; but, instead of facing those difficulties, he feels good

about developing a strategy to avoid them, as indicated by an increased WTC rating (0 to +2).

> R: And here your score goes up.
> M: It's cheating uh cheating, no not cheating, but he said my possession is my family
> here, and I can't I can't thinking think my possession, so I say family.
> R: *So like, you had to answer, but you are struggling to find a good answer, but you*
> *managed to come up with something.*
> M: *So, first he said "my family" so I also decided to say that.*
> R: ahhh
> M: *I kind of cheated*

He states that he does this because, otherwise, "I (would have been) embarrassed." It is normal

to want to save face (Ellis, 2004; Dewaele & MacIntyre, 2014); however, doing so should not

lead to learners passing up opportunities for linguistic development.

5.3.2.3. Noticing instances of corrections

When help was given, participants negated its benefits by failing to act on it. In [2.3B], Tad

fails to notice / acknowledge / act on any of the linguistic recasting done by KF (lines 238):

	236	KF	hobby hobby what's your hobby T-san
	237	T	uh taking a photo
→	238	KF	un hum taking pictures
	239	T	what is your hobby

This happens again in line 330:

	327	IM	why
	328	T	why because i don't know why [he or she la[te
	329	KF	[un hum
→	330	KF	[is late
	331	C	((*nodding*))
	332	T	so first i ask him or s her

In response to a similar occurrence in [2.1A], Michelle admits she did not notice the corrections provided until they were pointed out to her:

R: Did you notice that she was trying to fix your pronunciation?
M: ***She didn't? She did? Did she?***
<plays video clip again>
M: Ah

It could be argued that students' existing linguistic weaknesses are actually reinforced in the exchange classes. In addition to turn-sharing, rather than turn-taking, behaviours being promoted in the classes, instances of English-basis students working with Japanese students to correct or supply alternative linguistic options are far outnumbered by examples of errors going unfixed. In [2.2A], Annie's efforts such as "pay expensive" in line 407 and Kerrie's "grew up" in line 413 are accepted 'as is' by their English-basis counterparts.

```
         405  TF   you don't agree?
         406  A    here? but fast food is like cheap cheap [food right so nn children nn don't have to
→        407       pay expensive [n so like umm what do you think ha ha (points to K) [about it
         408  TF                                                [un
         409  TF              [n
         410  K                                                                      [i think so un
         411       but i think sometimes ok
         412  A    un yeah i think so
→        413  K    but children have to grew up so i children have to eat more vegetables and healthy
         414       food
```

The general assumption surrounding WTC is that if learners are speaking, they must be learning; however, a closer examination of the data indicates that the efficacy of CLT may be being undermined by learners' coping mechanisms. Helping students to regard conversational difficulties as affordances for development rather than as threats to their self-psyche may be an important goal for educators and materials writers.

5.4. Conclusion

As WTC is considered to be a direct antecedent of talk, it is necessary to examine learner talk to both validate the need to study WTC and to guide investigations into WTC. In this study, many of the Japanese-basis students were observed struggling to participate. This was reflected in: the control and dominance of the international students; various conversational strategies that the Japanese participants used, or failed to use; and the negative emotional responses that arose in response to ongoing difficulties. The resolution of such problems should be included as a goal of CLT syllabi. Before making firm recommendations, however, in the following chapters, I will examine the relationship between these issues and the cognitive—affective aspects of the WTC system.

A question that remains unresolved is the role of the facilitating / controlling actions that were exerted by the 'leaders' in most conversations. These actions may have been necessary to elicit any form of talk from weaker participants and to avoid negative emotions. On the other hand, they may have reduced individuals' self-responsibility to engage and proactively practice various conversational strategies, such as turn-taking. In [2.3A & 2.3B], Tad is dominated and controlled by international students; but in their absence, in [3.2], he 'rises to the occasion' and controls and dominates his Japanese partners. This raises questions about what stimulates his shift in behaviours and who constitutes the better practice partner.

CHAPTER SIX: THE WTC SYSTEM

A modular conceptualisation of individual learner differences posits that constructs, such as motivation, are stable, discrete, internalised entities or 'modules', which a learner carries with them from place-to-place (Dörnyei, 2010). Under this approach, WTC can be seen as a part of an individual's psychological make-up that, as a precursor to communication, influences their decision to engage in communication; therefore, higher ratings of WTC can be expected to reflect higher levels of talk. However, in Chapter Five, I reported that Harry [4.2] recorded higher levels of WTC than Michael, but Michael produced more talk; casting doubts that the 'WTC predicts speech' assumption can lead to actionable inferences. Rather, a deeper understanding of WTC is required. In this chapter, I use a triangulation of WTC ratings, learners' in-class actions, and interview comments to emphasise the complex, dynamic nature of the WTC system. In this chapter, the following conventions are added:

T   A capital 'T' refers to an individual's mean trait-like WTC score.

C   A capital 'C' refers to an individual's mean classroom WTC score.

I   A capital 'I' refers to an individual's mean idiodynamic rating.

>   Mathematical 'greater than'

<   Mathematical 'less than'

=   All numbers should be considered *indicative* rather than actual for two reasons: (1) Ratings are not quantifiable against a numerical standard but are subjective responses; and (2) T, C, and I are actually different aspects of WTC. Therefore, this symbol indicates 'roughly similar to', not *exactly.*

S.D.   Refers to the standard deviation of I-ratings. In this case, readers should simply bear in mind that a higher S.D. indicates a more volatile WTC rating.

→   Direction of change in WTC ratings

−5   WTC ratings under zero are reported with the marker '−' to denote negative. All other ratings should be considered to place above zero.

6.1. Overall (low) ratings

As revealed in Chapter Five, Terry's participation aside, conversations were dominated and controlled by the international students, and the Japanese-basis students passive linguistic performances left many of them feeling frustrated and despondent. Somewhat confusingly, given my assertions that WTC cannot predict talk, these low output levels are somewhat reflected in low WTC ratings during class activities. WTC ratings are reported in Appendix Thirteen; and the most commonly occurring I-WTC rating is zero (number = 28/40).

6.1.2. Context dependent variability across learners

The context dependent nature of WTC, as predicted by complex dynamic systems theory (CDST), is confirmed by participants' varying reactions to exchange classes and differences in the relationships of the three WTC aspects.

Learners reported a wide range of attitudes towards exchange classes. For example, in [2.3A] and [2.3B] Chi-Chi reports high levels of T-, C-, and I-WTC, but her partner (Tad) reports low levels; in conversations [5.1] and [5.2], both Terry and Kobe reported relatively elevated levels of all forms of WTC; but in [6.1] and [6.2], Kiki and Aki both reported low levels of T- and I-WTC, and modest C-WTC. For teachers, focusing on one factor to promote WTC, such as promoting intercultural contact through exchange classes, is an untenable and ineffective approach.

Further underlying learners' unpredictable reactions to exchange classes, the relationship between the relatively stable trait- and classroom-WTC ratings and the changeable I-WTC ratings is also variable and context dependent. In Table Eight, three WTC patterns are shown. Harry returns comparatively higher stable T- and C-ratings, but much lower scores for I-WTC ratings in a pattern described as [T / C > I]. Meanwhile, Kobe's stable WTC scores are similar to his average immediate ratings, a pattern characterised as [T / C = I]. Finally, Chi-Chi reports similar T- and C-scores but returns higher scores for her I-WTC, this pattern being described as [T / C < I].

WTC Pattern	Activity	Speaker	Trait WTC	Class WTC	I mean	I S.D.	I mode
T / C > I	4.1	Harry	6.41	5.66	0.52	1.18	0
	4.2	Harry			0.37	1.66	0
T / C = I	5.1	Kobe	6	4.6	6.09	0.44	6
	5.2	Kobe			7.37	1.6	7
T / C < I	2.3 A	Chi-Chi	6.42	5.9	7.57	1.76	9

Table 8. Variable WTC patterns across learners

The most commonly reported pattern was [T / C > I] (n=28/40); indicating that many participants' idealised versions of their communication, [T] and [C], do not reflect their confidence to engage in communication [I]. Together with analysis of actual participation, this phenomenon indicates a need for confidence building, and training in strategies, for engaging other English speakers.

6.1.2.1. Forced to talk in class?

Students who reported class-WTC levels exceeding trait-WTC also reported reticence to talk in general (Aki [6.1] and Kiki [6.2]) or in English (Michelle, Kevin [1.2], and Michael [4.1]). The WTC construct is somewhat predicated on the assumption that learners act of their own free will (MacIntyre, 2007), yet these learners seem to be compelled to communicate because they were in English class. Various pertinent factors, including the fact that English classes are mandatory, strengthen this compulsion, and further explication of these factors is included in Chapters Seven and Eight.

6.1.2.2. Variable volatility

Graphical representation of WTC ratings underlines the variable and unpredictable nature of the WTC construct. In Figure Seven, on page 121, varying patterns of ratings from [3.1] are displayed. While the three participants encountered the same conversational phenomena, differing reactions are clearly noticeable. Seo's rating is typically rated at zero with a few short

negative ratings. Kevin's ratings are mostly elevated above +3 with a range of plateaus in the visual data. Finally, Natsumi's rating shows a wide degree of change with variable size peaks; some which start and return to the zero rating, and some which dip but do not fall to zero, before rising again. Further examples of differing patterns are included in Appendix Fourteen.
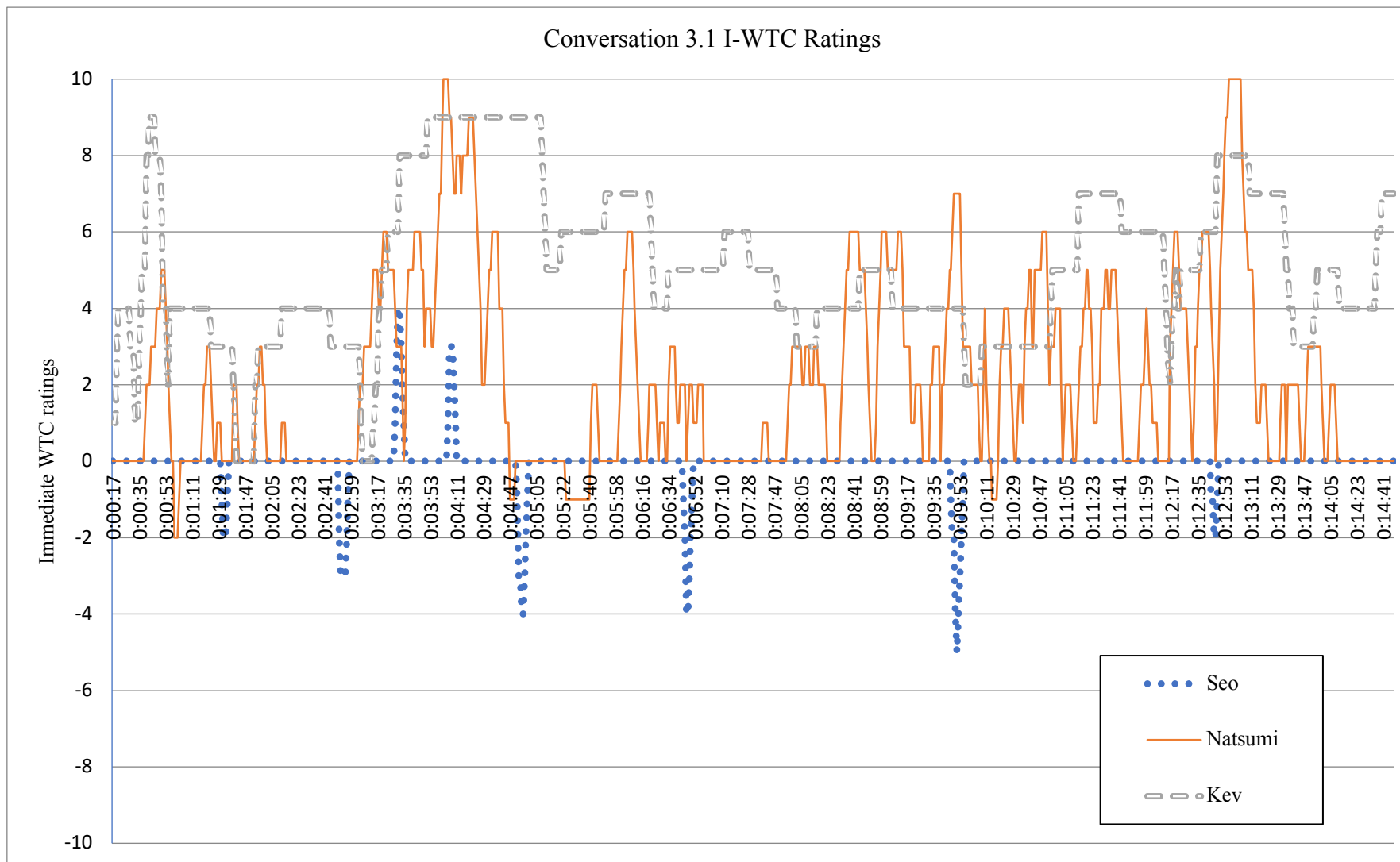
Figure 7. Idiodynamic ratings from [3.1]

6.1.2.3. Unpredictable emotional reactions to similar phenomena

Figure Seven highlights that each participant may react to each conversational phenomenon differently. A more detailed examination of the data shows a wide range of affective states and cognitive reactions being aroused; these reactions lead to changes in the WTC system, which are reflected in variations in the idiodynamic ratings.

Table Nine, next page, reports on the affective states and cognitive reactions that were aroused in [3.1]. The table reads from left to right with conversational phenomena and the time each occurs reported in the first two columns. Moving from left to right, cognitive and affective reactions to these phenomena, and subsequent changes in WTC, are reported for each learner. Reading down a column, the sequencing of the reactions reported are indicated row-by-row. Where blank cells are reported, no reaction was elicited at that stage of the interview. Shaded bands are added to differentiate between conversational phenomena.

Before the activity begins [00:30], Kevin reports impatience to begin the activity, Natsumi is content to sit and do nothing, and Seo reports boredom. Immediately afterwards [00:40], a crack in the desk's laminate is noticed, which provokes strong feelings of amusement in Kevin (WTC 1→9), some incongruity for Natsumi (WTC 0→3), and annoyance with his partners by Seo (WTC 0). As the conversation proceeds, a disagreement over the parameters of the activity arises, leading to Seo effectively removing himself from the conversation.

Each state leads into and has an effect on the subsequent states. For example, Seo's boredom and disinterest [00:40]—[03:55] lead to sulking later on [06:20]—[08:55] and, finally, regret and anger [12:47].

The co-dependency of each interlocutor's state should also be noted. Seo's reactions lead to a bad atmosphere. His lack of participation creates pressure on Natsumi [08:55] and Kevin to participate [06:20] and [07:49]. This later leads into both Natsumi and Kevin having feelings of relief as the activity finishes [13:13]. Had the conversation been carried out in a smooth, enjoyable, and successful manner, feelings of relief would not have occurred; rather greater feelings of competency or satisfaction may have arisen.

Initial Time	Phenomena	Kevin State	Kevin WTC	Natsumi State	Natsumi WTC	Seo State	Seo WTC
00:30	Waiting for activity to begin	impatience	1→4		0	boredom	0
00:40	Group find crack in desk	amusement	1→9	incongruous	0→3	offence	0
00:40	Teacher explains activity	concentration and mental preparation	9→4	anticipation	3→5	anticipated boredom	0
				restraint	5→–2		
01:50		boredom	4→0	readiness	0, 2, 0, 3, 0, 1		0→–3
03:10		impatience	0→4, 3				0
03:15	Talk pre-sequence	restraint	3→0	willingness	0→5	anticipated boredom	0→–3→ 0
03:25	Seo offers first idea	topic interest	0→6	disappointed	5→4	effort and anticipation	0→4→ 0
03:30		confusion	6→8	interest	4→6		
03:55	Kevin rebuts Seo's idea	disagreement and sadness	8→9	surprise	6→3→10	rejection disappointment boredom	0→3→ 0
				need to fix			0→–4→ 0
				tension abates	10→–1		
05:11	Kevin and Natsumi search for ideas	being at a loss	9→5		0→–1	boredom / disinterest	0
05:22	Teacher intervention	gratitude	5→6				0
05:50		topic interest	6→7	knowledgeable	0→6		0
06:20	Kevin and Natsumi search for ideas	expectancy	7→4, 5, 6	willingness vs uncertainty	0, 2, 1, 0, 3, 2, 0, 1	feels uncomfortable atmosphere	0→–4→0
		pressure and disappointment					
		embarrassment	6→4		0→3→0	sulking	0
07:49	Kevin writing	pressure	4	unnecessary activity	0→3→0	feels uncomfortable atmosphere	0→–5→0
				motivated to help K	0→6→0		
8:53	Natsumi offers an idea	positive thinking	5	success!!	0→6→0		
8:55	Kevin and Natsumi search for ideas. Kevin writes	positive thinking	4	pressure	0→7	sulking	0
		searching for topic	4→2				
10:06	N offers idea K disagrees		3	disagreement,	4→–1	regret	0
10:40	N offers 2 new ideas		3	have to	1→4	total withdrawal	0
11:30	Teacher sets time limit	wants to volunteer	6	panic	1→6		
12:00	Teacher sets new question	concentration	2→6	concentration	1→6		
12:47	Teacher joke	amusement	6→8	amusement	0→10	regret then anger	–2→0
13:13	Teacher closes out class	relief	8→4→7	relief	2→3→0		

Table 9. Range of reactions to the same conversational phenomena in [3.1]

Kang (2005) proposed WTC antecedents of excitement, security, and responsibility; and there is some crossover with the reactions described here. For example, relief may fall under the category of 'security', and 'need to fix' and 'have to' may fall under the category of 'responsibility'. However, this categorsing cannot account for Kevin's 'confusion' [03:30], nor can it explicate nuances, such as Kevin's difficulty in accepting that Seo's ideas match the task parameters and his feelings of sadness when disagreeing vocally with Seo [03:55].

Second, as MacIntyre and Serroul (2015) point out, L2 communication is emotionally and cognitively tiring; the effort of simultaneously maintaining motivation, coping with setbacks, and trying new language can only be maintained for short periods. The variance reflected in Figure Seven and Table Eight is representative of a massively tiring effort. It is, therefore, hardly surprising that many students reported exhaustion and tiredness towards the end of their conversations.

6.2. Unpredictable WTC—talk relationship

Undermining the modular approach to WTC, observable communication does not consistently reflect I-WTC ratings or patterns of ratings. In [2.3A], Chi-Chi's I-WTC rating (7.57) is much higher than Tad's (-0.44); yet he produces more turns (134), words (353), and topic initiations (2) than Chi-Chi (73, 262, 0). Similar inverse WTC—talk relationships are also reported in conversations [1.1], [2.3B], [4.2], [5.1], and [5.2].

Competency issues may account for some WTC—talk discrepancy by restricting a learner's ability to act on their intentions, yet this is not always the case. As shown in Table Ten, the higher number of turns, words, and topic initiations Terry produces reflect his competency:

[1.4]	Turns	Words	Topic initiations	[5.1]	Turns	Words	Topic initiations
Terry	119	652	13	Terry	124	882	10
Stuart	82	415	1	Kobe	101	414	2
Thai F 1	121	251	14	Thai F (A)	138	407	2
Thai F 2	65	300	3	Thai F (B)	112	323	2

Table 10. Comparing Terry's participation across activities.

However, despite the similarity between his participation in [1.4] and [5.1], Terry returns differing WTC patterns across both activities, as shown in Table Eleven. First, there is a slight difference in the trait- and class-WTC ratings. In [1.4], the relationship is [T > C], but in [5.1] the pattern is [T < C]. Moreover, when examining means and modes of I-WTC, a much larger discrepancy between I-WTC [1.4] and I-WTC [5.1] was recorded with the former reported as 1.78 (mean) and 0 (mode), while the latter was reported as 5.31 (mean) and 5 (mode).

WTC Pattern	Activity	Speaker	Trait WTC	Class WTC	I mean	I S.D.	I mode
T / C < I	1.4	Terry	4.92	3.4	1.78	2.61	0
T / C = I	5.1	Terry	5	4.2	5.31	1.43	5

Table 11. Comparing Terry's WTC ratings across multiple activities.

No reasons for this discrepancy were apparent; however, the example serves to highlight the context and time dependent nature of the system.

Educators may hope to use knowledge about WTC to promote learners' L2 production, but these results indicate a much more complex reality. First, one might assume that a higher level of stable, trait-like WTC would lead to higher classroom WTC and ultimately to increased levels of classroom participation. Unfortunately, some students value access to English-communication opportunities in general (trait WTC), while some students show more positive attitudes to English practice in the classroom (class WTC). Moreover, overall low idiodynamic-WTC ratings indicate that trait-like positive attitudes do not easily transfer to the classroom or translate in to talk.

Secondly, it is almost impossible to predict learner behaviors from WTC ratings. In some cases, students with greater WTC ratings were more proactive; at other times, it was the student with lower WTC that talked more. As CDST predicts, examining the multiple relationships between factors in the WTC system may produce more actionable findings than treating WTC as a psychological 'module' that predicates learner talk.

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6.3. Unpredictable feedback in the system

CDST states that the nature, extent, and timing of cause—effect relationships are highly unpredictable. In existing models of WTC, increasing WTC levels will lead to communication; however, this assumption does not hold true in this study.

Rather than increased WTC leading to communication, *successful communication* can lead to increased WTC ratings. In [4.2], Harry reveals a childhood experience of being lost in a ghost house. During the telling of the story, Harry reports WTC 0. As the story unfolds, the group become excited and laugh. Harry's WTC increases, 0 to +5, in reaction to this positive feedback. He explains the increase thus:

> This conversation is fun for me, because this is a really good memory of mine. So, when they show that they enjoyed it, I'm so glad that I told this story... … It's not that I could make them laugh, but they that they gave a positive response. If they had said, "oh no, that's awful" I would not have been happy, but they were, like, interested.

In addition to momentary enjoyment and deeper group affiliation, Kiki [6.2] explains that simply being able to talk in English boosts her confidence:

> R: *Like, it's kind of a simple story, not like a really strong opinion or anything, but your score goes all the way up to 10.*
> K: *So, don't forget, I'm speaking in English. I'm speaking in English so like, it's not like Japanese, so even if I can do it just a little bit, then I'm happy.*
> R: *I see.*
> K: *So, even if it's just a little bit in English, I am happy.*
> R: *Like, I can do it! Hooray!*
> K: *That's right. I mean, I could tell the story.*
> R: *So, your score doesn't mean, "I want to speak", it means, "I am speaking"?*
> K: *That's right, that's right.*

Unsuccessful communication also leads to increased WTC. In [1.2], neither Kevin or Michelle are able to join in with their English-basis partners. After a period of 8 seconds of silence, Kevin's WTC raises from 0 to +10. He explains this as follows:

> K: Ahu like if there is no one to talk, this stage will be like how do I say like stressful?
> R: Ah, you can say it in Japanese.
> K: *Ah no one is talking so the atmosphere is strange.*
> R: *Ah so, if the atmosphere is weird, then you...*
> K: Ah I like, I will think, I should talk more.
> R: … Is that a good feeling or a bad feeling? Do you think.
> K: Uh, it's a good feeling … … we need to practice our English so we should talk a lot.

In this case, a lack of talk arouses a high WTC rating, which is caused by a responsibility to avoid a bad atmosphere and carry out the learning activity as expected.

Conversely, successful talk may also reduce WTC. In [3.1], Natsumi feels a strong need to 'fix' an inappropriate (in her mind) idea that Seo proposes. A combination of this 'need' and linguistic difficulties leads to a rising tension that causes her WTC to rise up to 10. The third participant, Kevin, resolves the issue regarding Seo's ideas, and Natsumi points out that "***He said what I wanted to say, so I felt like I don't have to speak.***" This resolution reduced tensions, indicating how talk can reduce WTC.

A *lack* of talk also decreases WTC. In [2.1B], Michelle explains, "***I had an opinion here, and I needed to say it (but didn't) so my score went down.***" In such situations, it is often a difficulty in communicating that causes changes in the WTC rating rather than WTC influencing talk. For example, in [4.1] Harry encounters a new word, 'proud of'. Difficulty in negotiating this unknown word leads to a drop in his WTC rating from 0 to –5. As he hears his partners' explanation, ongoing doubts resurface, and his WTC rating drops again from 0 to –2. Harry attributes these falls in WTC respectively to 'panic' and 'confusion'.

Negative WTC ratings can also predicate speech. In [4.1], Harry is asked, "What's your ambition?". Prior to attempting a response, his WTC rating falls to –4. Fortunately, his response is received positively, and his WTC rating recovers from WTC –4 to +8. Cases of negative ratings coinciding with talk indicate a compulsion, rather than willingness, to communicate.

Finally, a zero WTC rating may coincide with talk. This phenomenon will be discussed towards the end of this chapter, in section [6.4.1.1.], but it is important to note that a range of communications, such as self-introductions, telling stories, negotiating, and interrupting others coincided with WTC 0.

The assumed current WTC→talk paradigm, whereby increased/increasing levels of WTC (influenced by a range of factors such as reduced anxiety and / or rising confidence) increase a learner's propensity to engage in communication and a depressed WTC state reduces the likelihood of a learner initiating communication, appears to be over simplified. A tentative,

alternative premise would be to state that (1) immediate-WTC and communication are interdependent parts of a system, and (2) changes in one trigger adjustments in the other.

6.4. Relationships between factors influencing WTC

Previous studies (Aubrey, 2010; Cao, 2011; Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005) have revealed a range of variables that influence WTC. Rather than revisiting these findings, following CDST parameters, I will describe the interdependent relationships between WTC factors; focusing on conflict between driving and restraining forces, 'normalcy', multicausality, and soft assembly.

6.4.1. Driving and restraining forces

MacIntyre (2007) explains that WTC is typically characterised by conflict between driving and restraining forces. In [4.2], Michael clearly describes this conflict when attempting to participate. His WTC rises from 0 to +5 as he struggles to develop his idea:

> R: *You seem to have gotten really excited / tense.*
> M: *that's right* I want to ask some questions … but *the words won't come out.*
> R: *How can we say, like excited, or disappointed?*
> M: *Interesting*
> R: *But, when you can't speak, how do you feel?*
> M: We Japanese say *moya moya* (*unclear or hazy*)
> R: *I've never heard that word, I'll look it up.*
> M: *moya moya* means ah I want to say but I don't want to say.
> …
> R: *Why moya moya why do you want to speak but not want to speak?*
> M: *I'm still not good enough at English. So, I want to say, but I can't easily say it.*

Conflict can lead to inaction. Natsumi describes this in [1.1]: "I didn't know what to do. I was thinking to ask my friends who were sitting nearby, but this is the exchange class so I was unsure about what to do, so I froze" (WTC 0, 1, 0, 2, 0). At other times, communication ensues; often with learners feeling compelled to speak. As Michael (WTC 0) explains:

> R: It's the same question "proud of" how did you feel?
> M: Come again. Ha ha but now I didn't understand proud of, so I'm confusing.
> R: Ahh OK, but this time you ask.
> M: Yes, so so last time proud of question is Harry's question, but now I have to yeah say this question so I ask.

> R: So, you need to ask?
> M: Yeah
> R: *Like,* I have to answer or I want to answer? ***You have to answer, or you want to answer?***
> M: ah I::: have to

In this case, the conflicted moment is resolved when the driving (motivating) forces to speak are perceived to outweigh the risks of communication.

MacIntyre (2007) notes that it is easier to encourage participation by reducing the restraining forces than by increasing the driving forces. This relates to earlier observations that speech often coincides with a zero WTC rating. In such cases, restraining forces are perceived to be low, and emotional stability is prevalent.

6.4.1.1. Normalcy

Situations where restraining forces are perceived to be low and emotional stability is prevalent are the most physically and psychologically sustainable; and are, therefore, desirable situations for WTC. Tentatively, I describe this as 'normalcy'. As a psychological state, 'normalcy' is differentiated from 'normality', which is an environmental situation that one is accustomed to. Normalcy has not yet been identified in the literature on WTC, therefore, some examples can help define it and underline its importance. First, Annie [2.2B] notes how her self-introduction at the beginning of the conversation, a period which is often characterised by anxiety or anticipation, coincides with the state of 'normalcy', 0 WTC ratings, and successful talk. She explains this is due to familiarity with the situation and content she wishes to use. This situation is reiterated by Tad in [2.3B]:

> R: There is all this self-introduction, but your score is not changing?
> T: I don't know why, but so maybe I feel *calm*

Normalcy can also coincide with difficult conversational actions and content as well. In [3.2], Tad is negotiating with his friend, Michael, about the layout and content of a poster they

are designing. He returns a WTC rating of zero, and, when questioned about it, notes that he is easily able to negotiate with his friend as he didn't really mind either way.

When the stakes are low and the speakers know each other, this state of normalcy may be expected; however, even in less familiar situations, normalcy also enables participation. In [4.2], Michael abruptly interrupts an English-basis student's question to ask their names. This interruption coincides with a zero WTC rating, and, when asked about this, Michael responds that his action is to be expected: "***Like normally you always ask each other's names, but we forgot to (ask), so we needed to ask, it's normal.***"

In some cases, this state of normalcy can last for long periods. Kiki [6.2] returns WTC 0 rating for over three minutes and describes normalcy as: "***I didn't notice anything. I had no problems, and the atmosphere was good. Like, I could talk smoothly.***"

A state of normalcy can benefit L2 acquisition in two ways. First, stress is tiring which can reduce learners' affective and cognitive capacity in the long run. In [1.1], for example, Natsumi explains the reason her WTC decreases at the end of her conversation is because "I became a little bit tired."

Second, stress can interfere with key processes in L2 acquisition. One kind of stress is anxiety, which can have both positive and negative manifestations (Ellis, 2004). In [5.1], despite enjoying the presence of English-basis students, Kota notes their presence means that "during this conversation I fell uh I have pressure. Ah, I'm so so now I can say something like ah again grammar, but uh this conversation maybe I have pressure, so I didn't say." This pressure stems from being "so nervous is I'm worried about my English is correct or so the is can understand my English." Kota juxtaposes this pressure with a lack of interference with cognitive process during his interview with me: "So now (during the interview), my brain is clean, so I can say vocabulary ah words and I make grammar, so but then I couldn't do."

'Normalcy' is a tentative description of a low-stress psychological state that can be beneficial to the realisation of L2 speech. Recognition that positive and negative emotions may both interfere with the WTC system indicates that teachers and students may wish to work towards developing contingencies that reduce emotional situations to 'normalcy'.

6.4.2. Multicausality

MacIntyre, Dörnyei, and Henry (2015) argue that no single element accounts for changes in CDST systems. In Macintyre et al.'s (1998) and Kang's (2005) model of WTC, multicausality is evident as a combination of trait, situational, and immediate factors. During interviews, participants tended to focus on the most prevalent factor and did not often articulate the effects of multiple factors at the same time. The following example indicates, nevertheless, how ever-present multicausality can be discerned: In [1.1], Seo attributes a spike in WTC (WTC $0\rightarrow3\rightarrow0$) to incongruity in the topic 'windmills' arousing his interest. As his partners describe the topic further, he notes a further spike (WTC $0\rightarrow3\rightarrow0$) deriving from his partners being "helpful" and "explaining in detail" which increases his understanding. He then adds that their friendliness further contributes to this WTC increase. In this case, a combination of incongruity, topic interest, explanation leading to better comprehension, and feelings of affinity combined to promote WTC.

6.4.3. Ambivalence deriving from soft assembly

MacIntyre, Burns, and Jessome (2011) and Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014) point out that there may not be clear differences between situations when students display positive intentions to communicate and situations in which they avoid communication. They describe this lack of distinction as 'communicative ambivalence'. In [2.1A], Seo's rating increases (WTC 0 to +2) twice in quick succession; yet, he gives contradictory explanations for identical WTC outcomes:

> R: You get the same answer (Seo and another Japanese partner). Is that a good thing?
> S: Un Yeah. Common sense (we have something in common). ***It's good to have something in common.***
> R: Ah, OK. Hum. ***Would it be interesting if you always agreed on everything?***
> S: Un yeah.
> \<plays video\>
> R: And again, your score goes up again?
> S: She's talking, different opinion, it was interesting to me.
> R: ***So, it's good to have something in common, but it's also good to have a different opinion?***
> S: Yeah.

Conversely, similar situations can have opposing outcomes. In [4.2], Harry develops great interest in his Indonesian male partner's Japan-related story of Godzilla (WTC 0→3), and strives to gain further information about the story being told. Their Bangladeshi female partner then relays her Japan-related story of Tokyo; but, in reaction to it, Harry complains of boredom.

WTC may also vary without any apparent cause. In [3.1], Natsumi's WTC rating fluctuates (0→2→0→1→0→3→1→2→0) over a period of 35 seconds as the conversation fails to develop. Natsumi describes that she is on the point of offering an idea but "***then I hesitate***" because "***I didn't know if it was good (idea) or not.***" Two minutes later, without any apparent changes in atmosphere, turn-taking conditions, or any new information arising, Natsumi offers a new opinion and her WTC rises (WTC 0→6). Natsumi is unable to explain why she could suddenly offer an idea at this stage. Then, following a further 40-second interval, without any further apparent changes in the conversational situation, Natsumi's WTC rating rises steeply (WTC 0→7); however, she does not offer any further ideas. These disparities indicate subtle internal adjustments take place regardless of a lack of changes in the conversational context.

One reason for this is proposed by MacIntyre, Dörnyei, and Henry (2015) who note that reactions to various factors and situations are not 'hardwired' but 'softly assemble', or interact in different ways depending on small adjustment to the context. Such minute differences may have magnified knock on effects, which explains why apparently similar situations may have vastly differing outcomes. An example of this is speech rate. Between [2.1A, partnered with Mary from the UK] and [2.1B, partnered with Gabrielle from the UK] Michelle notes that speech rate is the key factor contributing to greater enjoyment in her second conversation: "***Maybe, he didn't speak as quickly as Mary, right? Maybe their speeds weren't that different, but he wasn't as your face as Mary I think.***" This had several knock-on effects that made an important difference to Michelle. Initially, she reported increased comprehension: "***the whole of this (conversation) was easier to understand than the (conversation) with Mary***", which led to emotional stability: "***I wasn't stressed out.***" This led to less tiredness and better functioning of her internal learning processes: "***Speaking to Mary was much more tiring.***" This was reflected

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in an increase in her reported mean I-WTC from 2.145 to 3.63 while her mode WTC score

increases from 2 to 4. Finally, greater comprehension meant that she could search for

opportunities to communicate: [2.1A] lasts 24-mimutes but [2.1B] lasts 15-minutes; however,

Michelle is only able to ask 7 questions in the first conversation but 13 in the second

conversation.

6.5. Conclusion

Triangulation of WTC ratings, learners' in-class actions, and interview comments showed

participants' WTC exhibiting the behaviours of a CDST system rather than those of a more

stable 'learner difference module'. In general, participants returned relatively low trait-, class-,

and idiodynamic-WTC ratings. Within these ratings, however, a great deal of variability was

observed. Some learners reported greater levels of T-WTC, others higher C-WTC, yet for

others I-WTC was much higher. The same learner could even return different levels and

patterns of T-, C-, and I-WTC relationships across different activities. In addition to this,

examination of WTC charts, e.g., [3.1], further reveals that rates of change in WTC ratings were

also variable.

Attempts to better understand WTC to promote better learning are confounded by

multiple difficulties. First, the ephemeral, ambiguous, and equivocal nature of WTC is reflected

in the fact that, in the data I elicited with students, the term 'willingness to communicate' only

arose once. Second, the WTC—talk relationship is unpredictable, and talk is not necessarily

predicated on WTC-levels. Moreover, the feedback effect of successful or unsuccessful talk on

WTC ratings indicates a cyclical WTC—talk system rather than a linear relationship between

WTC factors and talk.

The multicausal and ambivalent nature of the relationship between WTC factors

indicates that an eclectic approach may be the most practical way to develop effective classes or

develop better learners' in CLT environments. In addition, learners themselves need to learn to

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overcome restraining barriers to talking, this includes the ability to adapt to situations so that the state of normalcy can be achieved. To do so a large number of factors will need to be managed delicately.

At this stage, recommendations are generalised and unactionable; however, in the next chapter, I will examine closely various interdependent factors that need to be managed to maximise learner's WTC potential. To do so, I will reconceptualise WTC as a part of a WTC—talk system with WTC being 'the moment when the necessary factors required for talk align or fail to align'. This proposition agrees somewhat with Dörnyei's assertion (2010) that learner differences are part of an integrated learner-self system and is in juxtaposition to other iterations of WTC, which have described it as a personality-trait (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987), a decision (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels; 1998), a state of readiness (Kang, 2005), a probability (Macintyre, 2007), and an intention (Matsuoka, 2009).

CHAPTER SEVEN: CROSSING THE RUBICON

Results from Chapter Six, section 6.2 and 6.3, indicated that arousal of WTC does not consistently predict or promote speech and, conversely, a lack of WTC does not preclude speech either. As a lack of evidence that WTC is as a clear predictor of observed speech is an important limitation in many WTC studies, this finding has important implications for the field of WTC. In this chapter, I further investigate the relationship between WTC and speech; the findings firmly establish that idiodynamic ratings do not predict learner talk. To explain this incongruent finding, I propose and explicate a model of WTC—talk realisation in which the successful convergence of factors, in a set order, enables talk.

7.1. The WTC—talk relationship

To further examine the WTC—talk relationship and establish correlation, or lack thereof, between communication and WTC ratings, I examined two sets of the data: statistical relationships between talk and idiodynamic ratings, and line charts representing talk and WTC ratings.

7.1.1. Statistical correlations of WTC—talk

Using the second-by-second transcriptions of classroom conversations, I converted moments of communication and moments of non-communication into numerical binary format: 1 for no-talk, 2 for utterances. This data was compiled in duplicate Excel charts in the adjacent column to idiodynamic WTC ratings. As per MacIntyre and Legatto (2011), I then analysed this data using a Pearson correlation coefficient in IBM SPSS version 21. Results from data collection round one and round two revealed extremely low correlation coefficients between second-by-second WTC ratings and second-by-second talk time, as shown in Table Ten. These results reflect findings from other situated studies (Cao & Philp, 2006; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2011), which also revealed weak WTC—talk correlations.

Data collection round one		Data collection round two	
Naomi	0.152	Michelle A	0.201
Seo	0.201	Seo A	0.118
Kevin	0.166	Michelle B	-0.077
Michelle	-0.0176	Seo B	0.004
Annie	0.128		
Steve	0.030		
Terry	0.045		

Table 12. Correlation coefficients for WTC—talk

The closer a correlation coefficient is to 1, the closer the relationship between the two variables being examined. Thus, if a WTC—talk coefficient was 1, then aroused WTC consistently coincides with talk. In reality, a score of 0.8 would indicate an extremely close relationship. In this case, the highest returned score is 0.201, by Michelle in round [2.1A]. In some cases, there is even a weakly negative relationship between WTC and talk. For example, Michelle's correlation coefficients are -0.0176 in round one and -0.077 in [2.1B]. These negative ratings suggest that she speaks when her WTC score reduces, perhaps indicating that her WTC ratings relate to anxiety arousal when speaking or that she is compelled to speak, as per [6.1.2.1]. In the future, a more detailed examination of highly anxious learners in-class talk may establish if such behaviours are common.

These results are for moment-to-moment WTC and talk time; however, future analyses of different conversational behaviors, such as asking topic related questions or initiating topics, may reveal different results.

7.1.2. Visual representation of the WTC—talk relationship

The lack of clear direct relationship between WTC and talk is reflected in the charts of WTC ratings. Figure Eight, next page, shows Harry's [4.1] WTC ratings and talk. His utterances are indicated by a diamond on the x-axis, and his idiodynamic-WTC rating is indicated by the variable 'in-situ WTC' line.
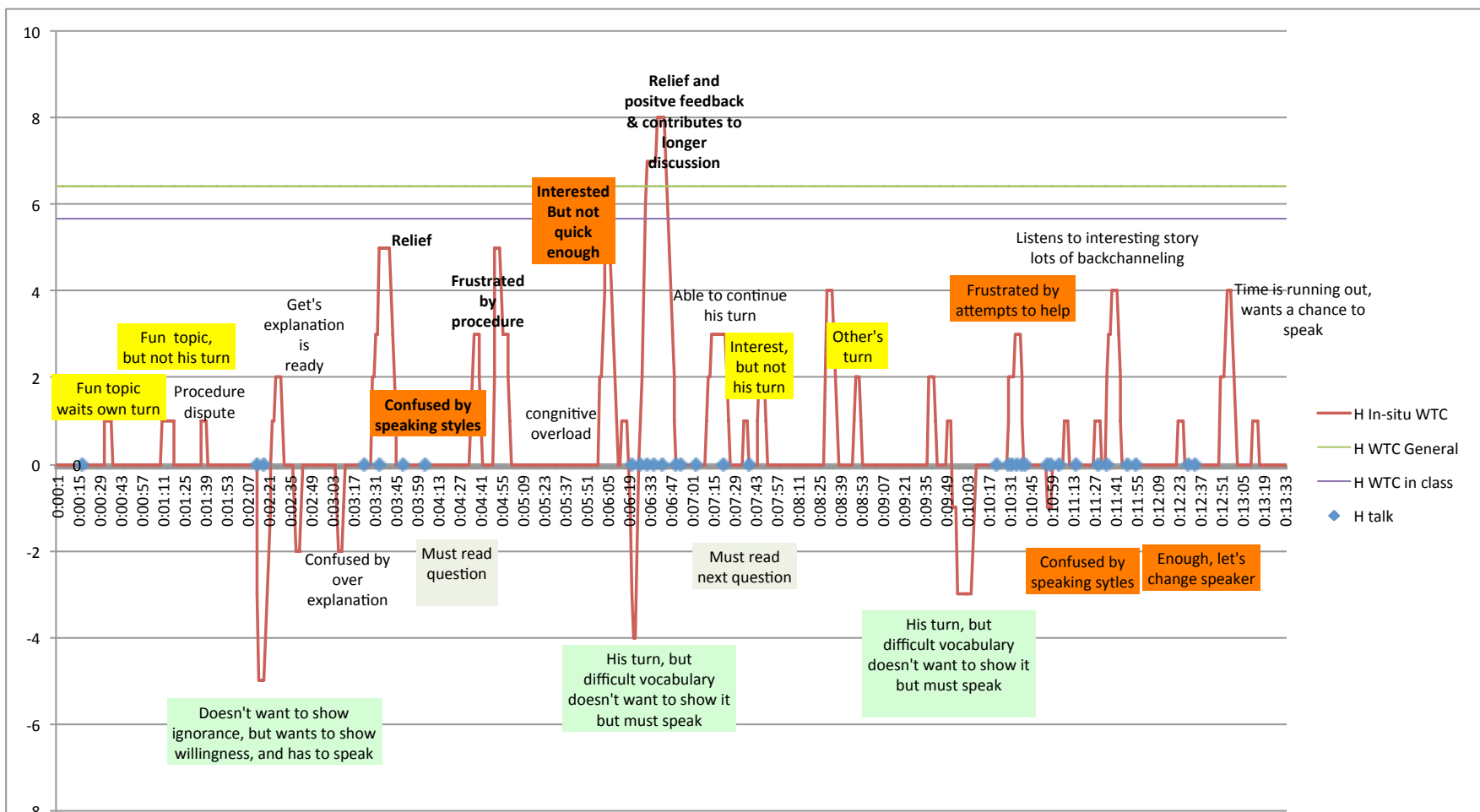
Figure 8. Harry's [4.1] WTC ratings and talk.

The chart shows that, in some instances, Harry failed to participate when registering positive WTC ratings [04:55] and [08:25], talked when registering zero WTC [00:15] and [11:55], and even communicated while registering negative WTC ratings [02:07] and [9:49]. The gap between WTC and speech is predicted by MacIntyre et al., (1998); however, as noted in the literature section of this thesis, to date empirical studies of WTC do not measure the gap and simply note it as a possible limiting factor in their findings. Therefore, I further investigated factors contributing to these discrepancies and developed an explanatory model of factors that could account for a failure of WTC to be realised into speech.

7.2. Crossing the Rubicon: A model of WTC—talk realisation

A lack of talk may increase or decrease WTC ratings, and occurrences of successful talk may increase or decrease WTC ratings. Thus, from a research perspective, it could be argued that the paradigm of 'WTC➜talk' is perhaps an incorrect assumption.

However, from a teacher's perspective, abandoning the 'WTC➜talk' assumption would remove teachers' agency in creating situations that facilitate talk. In short, there would be no need to try to arouse feelings or states of WTC as they do not lead to communication. Teachers still need an approach to facilitating talk in the classroom, and currently there is still no better paradigm than 'increased WTC = increase talk time'. Furthermore, by examining reasons why WTC does not lead to communication, it may be possible to work towards creating a higher number of situations in which increased WTC does lead to communication; in turn, this would improve learner satisfaction.

As such, this chapter provides a heuristic model for examining factors that influence learners' ability to create successful talk from moments of WTC. I noted changes in idiodynamic ratings in a separate Excel sheet from the raw data. I created columns for (1) time, (2) WTC score, (3) factors contributing to WTC, (4) kinds of talk realised, (5) talk facilitators /

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inhibitors sub-groups, and (6) talk facilitators / inhibitors. An example of this coding is included in Appendix Fifteen.

Then, I grouped codes of factors that regulated WTC and factors that promoted or limited speech, and I subsequently reorganized them into a new schema which I used for further coding. An example of this secondary coding is included in Appendix Sixteen.

Factors contributing to the WTC—talk gap included: a lack of time, lack of strategic and linguistic competencies, perceived interlocutor interest, having something to say, and listening comprehension. During coding, a hierarchy related to the interdependency of each factor was developed. For example, in order to have 'topic interest', sufficient 'comprehension' is necessary. Thus, 'comprehension' precedes 'topic interest' in the model. Similarly, 'language competencies' are not relevant if one does not 'have something to say'. The hierarchy of factors is displayed in Figure Nine, below.

i		Talk							
ii		Interventions							
iii		Emotional stability							
iv		Time and effort to produce							
v		Linguistic competence							
vi	Emotional response / feedback	Strategic competence							WTC moment
vii		Perceiving interlocutor value							
viii		Thinking of something to say							
ix		Having topic knowledge and interest							
x		Monitoring for and perceiving opportunities to speak							
xi		Comprehending the situation: L2 skill, listening, topic							
xii		Having a reason to engage (Task- or personal motivations)							desire to communicate
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
xiii		Having opportunities to engage with interlocutor (i.e. class / homestay)							
xiv		Having reasons for learning L2 – General Motivation and associated benefits							

Figure 9. A heuristic model of WTC—talk realisation

Beginning at the base of the model, layer xiv corresponds to trait-like motivational factors that predicate L2 studying. Layer xiii relates to L2 contact opportunities and recognition of the affordances for L2 and personal / social development that arise from this contact. Layer xii relates to the immediate attainable benefits or avoidance of risk that one seeks to obtain when interacting with an L2 other. Factors in layer xii correspond with 'desire to communicate with a specific person' in the heuristic model of WTC developed by MacIntyre, et al. (1998). The model I propose clearly delineates desire and WTC; indicating that one cannot detect WTC, rather one feels and reports 'desire'. It further offers a reconceptualisation of immediate-WTC as 'the moment when the necessary factors required for talk align or fail to align'. In the WTC—talk system, communication eventuates from the sequential alignment of factors in layers xi—ii.

Layers xiv—xii correspond to the driving forces of WTC. Layers xi—ii are potential restraining forces on WTC, and 'emotional response' exists as a feedback mechanism in the system. For example, while practicing communication in the exchange class, a learner may be motivated to share their idea to improve their English and to have fun with their partners (layers xiv—xii). Then, they must be able to fulfil all the WTC—talk prerequisites (layers xi—ii). Perhaps, the learner struggles to grammatically formulate an idea, too much time passes, and the opportunity disappears. Failure to participate leads to growing anxiety, this may motivate the learner to try harder or be demotivating (layers xiv—xii); concurrently *and* subsequently this anxiety may impair the cognitive functioning required to fulfil the prerequisites of WTC—talk (layers xi—ii).

The model can also help explain some of the unexpected aspects of WTC—talk relationships, whereby a lack of communication may either increase or decrease WTC ratings and / or successful talk may increase or decrease WTC ratings. In layer xii, multiple desires to talk or stay quiet may coincide and be in conflict. Thus, the desire to share an idea may be offset by the desire to avoid making a mistake. Additionally, feedback from unsuccessful

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communication may then either arouse or depress the WTC—talk system further: a desire to avoid further embarrassment may cause negative WTC ratings, but a desire to try again may cause positive WTC ratings. Conversely, successful talk may satisfy a need to communicate and lead to decreased WTC ratings, or it may promote positive feelings of competence and affiliation and lead to increased WTC ratings.

In this model, immediate-WTC is posited as a 'moment'. In the space of a millisecond, the potential for many functions to overlap and exist interdependently is strong. This can be confusing as, in addition to vastly differing outcomes arising from almost identical configurations (multi-causal, soft assembly), it can be very difficult for teachers, researchers, and the subjects themselves to discern why talk occurs or does not occur. In the following discussion of these factors, the most predominant factor in the minds of the participants was elicited; however, the relevance of other factors, although not clearly described, cannot be discounted.

I will now discus argumentation and evidence for the inclusion of each factor in the model. Beginning with layer xiv, fulfillment of the anteceding requirement is necessary before succeeding factors become relevant; i.e., in layer xiii an absence of opportunity to meet with an international student would negate the need to fulfil all the other requirements.

7.3. Motivational forces – Layers xiv, xiii, and xii

7.3.1. Reasons for learning L2 – Layer xiv

In Japan, English is considered to hold great utility; the need for credits for graduation; gaining qualifications for social, economic, and personal development; passing various entrance tests; and access to the world outside of Japan are all seen as benefits of studying the language. In this study, only two of the students had concrete intentions (English teacher and tour guide) to use English in their future careers with most participants reporting only vague interest in using

English for future jobs. Therefore, more likely sources of motivation are credits for graduation and international posture. The latter is proposed as all but two participants reported intentions to travel overseas and / or had taken recent trips overseas.

Despite close proximity to many opportunities to tap into this international posture, it seems many students actually had weak English motivation. Only three participants reported actively seeking out L2 encounters on the international campus, and all but one of the students admitted to not liking studying English and / or doing minimal work to get by in courses. Michelle also pointed out that part-time jobs take priority over English study. Furthermore, many of the students may have suffered from *eigo*-burnout; Natsumi went so far as to admit that she stopped studying once she entered university and that her TOEFL scores had dropped off as a result. Given this apparent amotivation, perhaps the motivational criteria of this model were mostly fulfilled by the need for credits to graduate.

7.3.2. Opportunity to engage with an interlocutor – Layer xiii

The apparent weak motivation of the participants seemed to be reflected in the quality of intercultural engagement on campus. For example, Seo [1.1] claimed to have many international friends; but, when asked to describe his relationship with them, he said, "I just met my (Japanese) friend's friends." Similarly, Natsumi [1.1] described her out-of-class English interactions thus: "***Daily conversations are easier than this kind of discussion… … conversation are kind of like 'hey' and so on.***" Overall, the evidence indicates that the preponderance of the students' engagement with non-Japanese users of English and access to affordances for L2 development depend on teachers' syllabi and scheduling of exchange classes.

The benefits the students believed they would derive from engaging in the exchange classes created a level of background motivation for the recorded activities that does not apply to the students' overall behaviours on campus. These benefits are: speaking with more proficient users of English (number=3), authenticity of interaction (n=3), general practice (n=5),

making international friends (n=5), compulsion to use English when they normally wouldn't (n=2), and benchmarking their abilities and progress (n=2).

7.3.3. Reason to engage (desire to communicate) - Layer xii

This study identifies seven momentary WTC—talk motivators: (1) 'have to' as an obligation to complete a task, (2) 'have to' as an obligation to complete turn-taking roles, (3) 'have to / want to' as a personal relationship issue, (4) 'want to' for accessing further information, (5) 'want to' due to sharing topical information, (6) 'want to' to avoid negative judgements, and (7) 'want to' as a personal challenge. Individuals' reactions to these motivators is complex and nuanced, as I will now explain.

7.3.3.1. 'Have to' as an obligation to complete the task

While striving to respond to task parameters promotes interaction, a continuing inability to fulfil the learning task criteria may lead to elevated levels of WTC through anxiety, frustration, and pressure to complete the task. In [3.1], following a period of 20 seconds when nobody offers any ideas, Natsumi's ratings rise from 0 to +7 as she tries to find a way to complete the task. She explains how silence creates an obligation to talk, "I thought nobody is talking their opinion, so I just have to speak or something like, ah have to say my opinion. But I couldn't come up (with) any ideas, so I want to speak but I can't."

Conversely, a lack of task-oriented obligation can lead to a lack of effort. In [3.1], Natsumi has an opportunity to correct Kevin's poor spelling, and her WTC rises to +3: "I thought I think his spelling is wrong." Then she realises that "this is just *it's just a memo* you don't have to submit or something so formal so I think it's OK (to do nothing)", which leads to her WTC depressing.

Similarly, time pressure and less *perceived* obligation combine to make Natsumi think she can stop using English. In [3.1], her group is tasked with thinking of the contents for an

English speech at an imaginary school. Realising they need to find a name for the imaginary school, Natsumi switches into Japanese which she explains is because "***I thought they were different activities***" and "***then we had to be quick, it was a kind of emergency so we unfortunately used Japanese.***" The time pressure and less *perceived* obligation to use English lead to the use of Japanese while her rating increases from 0 to +6.

In addition to compelling learners to speak, task-oriented obligation regulates the topics of communication. In [1.3], Annie is engaged in an enjoyable personal conversation, but she feels obliged to follow the teachers' prompt list. She explains, "I think we so maybe I was very interesting to talking about Nepal and Nepal yeah Nepal but uh ***uh like I dunno*** that I also think about 'oh, I have to do this'." This focus on the task obligation curtails her (ability to engage in) communication and depresses her WTC from +4 to 0.

Obligation can also regulate content. In [3.1], Natsumi feels obliged to maintain a narrow definition of the designated topic and correct Seo's 'unconventional' ideas:

> N: When he said the wrong thing, I thought I have to say I have to speak and I have to say something for him. But the before the before starting this talking I thought, 'I want to speak' ah what I want.
> R: So, sometimes it's 'I have to', and sometimes it's 'I want to'.
> N: ***Yes. So, when I was thinking (of ideas for the discussion), it was I want to speak, but when I needed to fix his mistake, I felt like 'I had to'.***

In this case, once the obligation to 'fix' Seo's unconventional ideas is fulfilled by Kevin, Natsumi's WTC rating falls from +10 to +2.

7.3.3.2. 'Have to' as an obligation to complete turn-taking roles

During conversations, an obligation for interlocutors to fulfil their role, or take their turn, sometimes arose. For example, in [6.2], Kiki notes some developing anxiety as she recognises her turn to describe the Chinese characters in her name is approaching: "***my parents chose this name, but it doesn't have a clear, and easy to understand meaning like A-san's name, so I was thinking, next I am going to have to explain this.***" In this case, Kiki's WTC score drops

from 0 to –3, but she is forced to talk. Kiki's partner, Aki, also notes the same turn-taking

obligation in [6.1]:

> R: From here and here your score went a little bit negative.
> Ak: Yeah, it starts.
> R: Ah, listening is a little bit difficult?
> Ak: No, she started to talk, after that, I have to speak.

Aki's negative stance towards contributing is reflected in negative ratings of WTC –1 and –3 at

the beginning of [6.1], and she carries this aversion to talking thought her activities in this study.

This means that every time she talks, there is some kind of compulsion to do so. For Aki, this

compulsion is because "I don't wanna waste their time."

7.3.3.3. 'Have to / want to' as a relationship issue with group members

Students also reported an affiliation or obligation to help their partners in their group. In some

cases, this is described as an obligation. Annie [1.3] explains when helping her partner that "she

also knows she can't speak English not very well, so I often help her, so then also 'oh I have to

help her'."

   In other cases, helping a partner is considered more of an affiliative feeling (want to). In

[1.4], Terry takes it upon himself to divulge further information about his friend, Steve;

correcting Steve's assertion that he has never been overseas, Terry points out he has been to the

Philippines. When asked why he felt this was necessary, Terry describes that otherwise Steve

will run out of topics and explains, "I just want them to talk, and them I like kind of just care

about them…".

   Underlying the complex and unpredictable nature of the WTC—talk system, feelings

towards partners do not always lead to talk. In [4.1], Michael feels sympathy towards his

partner Harry because "It's so uh I think his question is always a little difficult, ***so I feel sorry***

for him." This feeling is reflected in Michael's WTC score dropping from 0 to –3, but he does

not intervene or help Harry. While I did not elicit a reason for not helping, Michael repeatedly

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mentioned in this interview [4.1] that he hid his comprehension and topic difficulties with a range of silences and non-verbal behaviours. He also and admits that he did not understand a key word in this specific question, so it is probable that he also found the question difficult to answer.

7.3.3.4. 'Want to' for gaining further topical information

Topic interest is an often-cited factor in promoting WTC (e.g., Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005). Likewise, in this study, learning new information about other participants' backgrounds is considered to be a clear benefit of the exchange classes. Natsumi explains her enjoyment of [1.1] was based on: "I could know about the other country. They introduce their their country." Such interest may be enhanced if relevance in their partner's background is promoted by prior knowledge. Terry describes in [5.2] that his partner was from a country that he had just read about, so "there was a stuff about Sri Lanka (in the book) and I thought it was good chance to to talk to ask him about Sri Lanka. Then, I also know about Sri Lanka some stuff cricket or as I told you world heritage that's why it was more… fun." This connection with the travel book helped arouse his interest to WTC +7.

7.3.3.5. 'Want to' due to sharing topical information

Sharing information sometimes coincides with asking for information. This is shown by Taka in [6.4] who reveals a desire to *gain* further information (WTC +3). In turn, this information promotes his desire to *share* information (WTC +3):

> R: So, here your score goes up for a little while.
> T: Yeah, she said that she likes dancing, and I like dancing to so uh, when I was young, a child I went to the dance school, so I'm interested in what kind of dance she did. <plays video>
> R: And then your score went a little bit higher again.
> T: Yeah so, I explain the same thing ah same reason I'd like to explain I went to the dance school. Yeah.

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While shared topical knowledge enables interlocutors to deepen conversations and develop affinity with one another, having shared knowledge can reduce the need to talk for anxious or reticent participants. This occurs in [6.1] with Aki, who had already revealed she does not like talking about herself and feels anxious during the exchange classes. Her WTC drops from 0 to –6 while she anticipates conversational difficulties: "I have to explain the my hometown and it it has has have to detail, so I have to use much English…", but her rating rebounds to WTC +6 when "she said knew uh to know the my hometown so I don't much need speak uh the details so I am little bit relief."

Giving topical information can, if it receives positive feedback, help boost one's self esteem. This is noted by Hide [6.4] as his WTC score rapidly rises from 0 to +7 and remains at +7 for over one minute. He points out that this was "because I wanted to tell ah uh boast… boast *to boast*", which meant that "*Everyone is like – wow!*"

7.3.3.6. 'Want to' to avoid negative judgements

While trying to gain positive judgements, learners also wish to avoid negative judgements. This may account for some of the hiding of comprehension and linguistic difficulties mentioned in Chapter Five. For example, Tad describes hiding his difficulties to protect his pride in [3.2]. He is unable to answer a question, his WTC score drops to –2, and he tries to guess how to answer the question:

> T: *I failed*
> R: you failed?
> T: So, I can't understand the question *so I guessed.*
> R: But I mean why do you guess instead of saying "tell me one more time"?
> T: So ... I have pride so yeah.

Immediately after, another difficult question arises. Tad again fails to clearly understand, and his WTC score falls to –5, but he feels pressure to say something due to his pride:

> T: *So here, the three of them are talking,* I can't guess, I couldn't guess so yeah but I have but maybe I had pride my pride can't asking maybe. So, but *So, I am wondering*

if I did understand properly but after she says teach me in Japanese *I realised I didn't understand.*
R: So, actually you start speaking quite a lot, from about here, on you are talking, but your score is going down…
T: I can't understand, I couldn't.

In these cases, a combination of turn- and task-completion obligations are relevant, and they seemingly combine with a concern to avoid negative face.

7.3.3.7. *'Want to' as a personal / linguistic challenge*

Participants evaluate their own abilities in comparison with other learners. In [4.1], Michael fails to understand a word twice in quick succession, but he notices that "she understand, but I can't understand", leading to him feeling "***gutted***". The first time this happens, Michael's WTC rating falls to –4. Soon after, the same thing happens, and his WTC rating drops from 0 to –2. Again, he feels "***totally gutted, I totally don't understand, but it's only me, that doesn't understand.***"

Occasionally, learners were motivated to take a risk to test out their abilities. In [4.2], when the question "What are you proud of?" arises, Harry is happy to answer as he had struggled with this item in his previous activity. In his prior conversation, that struggle led to WTC –5; but when the question arose again in the second conversation, his WTC increased from 0 to +6. Harry explains that, "***I wanted this question (to be chosen) again, so I can try (better) in English to answer it.***" This phenomenon then repeats with the questions "Where do you want to live in the future?" (WTC + 3) and "What's your earliest memory?" (WTC +5).

7.3.3.8. *Desires to communicate conclusion*

Desires to communicate can soon be depressed if the needs or opportunities that the conversational situation has afforded are not acted on. In [4.1], Harry notes how difficult it is to quickly ask follow-up questions when another speaker is in mid-flow. Twice in quick

succession, during another speaker's turn, Harry's score rises from 0 to +5; but both times he does not ask any follow-up questions and the opportunity disappears because "they are so fast they are fast, so before I can ask, those two (international students) have already said it so I'm like 'ah err...'." This depresses his WTC system back to WTC 0.

In addition to opportunities to talk disappearing as the conversation moves on, other learners can respond to and fulfil the need / opportunity to talk. In [3.1], Natsumi feels as strong urge to correct Seo's unorthodox ideas: "he just keep saying that, so I just thought this is wrong", and her WTC score increases to +10. She is unable, however, to find the correct words to do so, and the third member of the group, Kevin, resolves the issue. Natsumi agrees with Kevin's actions: "This time I agree with him (Kevin), and then he said what I want to say…" This coincides with her WTC rating dropping from +10 to –1 before remaining at 0 for another 30 seconds as the need to communicate disappears and she "***calmed down.***"

During classroom interactions, interlocutors continually evaluate the situation in order to respond to one of the seven iterations of 'desire to communicate'. While the factors above are described separately, they are <u>not</u> discrete items. Multiple factors must co-occur for a new state of WTC to arise. The coalescence of affective and cognitive resources that learners employ to respond to these opportunities to talk is not hardwired, and slight adjustments to contributing factors can lead to widely varying outcomes. In terms of 'desires', while one iteration may create arousal of the WTC—talk system, such as 'sharing personal topical information' or 'avoiding negative judgement', the other iterations (such as 'turn-taking obligation') may concurrently depress the system. Thus, in some cases, a negative feeling (such as a desire to avoid embarrassment) may coincide with forced output caused by turn-taking obligation. Conversely, a positive feeling (such as a topical interest) may be negated by a conflict with the obligations of the task parameters, leading to an absence of talk. In addition to a talk-promoting convergence of motivations, an alignment of factors in the WTC moment (layers xi—ii) is also necessary for talk to occur. I will now describe these factors and their alignment.

7.4. Listening issues

'Listening' refers to issues concerning comprehension in general and the act of listening in conversations.

7.4.1. Comprehension - Layer xi

A lack of comprehension can have a restricting effect on the WTC—talk system. In sections [7.3.3.6.] and [5.3.2.] it was noted that to avoid negative evaluations, participants avoided signaling for help or revealing a lack of comprehension. Overall, comprehension problems impacted learners' WTC—talk system by (1) limiting how much cognitive attention can be directed to developing talk; (2) negatively impacting emotional stability, which has a further detrimental effect on cognition and energy levels; and finally (3) rendering the development of topical information to discuss difficult or impossible. I will now discuss these three factors.

7.4.1.1. Comprehension's effects on cognition

Kiki [6.1] explains the difficulty of listening in conversation:

> *You can't take it easy. Normally, when your partner is speaking you have to understand what they are saying, and when you have understood them, then you might have to answer. This one I had to also answer, but it's just normal to be zero (when listening).*

She then further elucidates the listening process of picking clues from one or two words when she has to focus on comprehending a situation; at the same time, her ratings fall from + 9 to 0.

> *At this time like, they said something right. Ah they said something in English, but I couldn't understand, but I could guess from just a few words. So, from a few words I could pick up that like, well university is four years, right? But I will be studying abroad in China for a year, so I have to take one year off. So, like I will graduate in five years not four years, they wanted to say, but at that time, I couldn't understand, but I heard five years, not four years, and I could understand. But at the beginning, I couldn't understand what she was saying.*

As such, while concentrating on listening in English, it can be difficult to devote any cognitive attention towards actually joining in conversations. Harry explains this problem in

[4.2]: "*when I was at zero score. I thought I would like to think of something to say, but "no" just I was trying so hard to understand T-san's story. So, I was focusing so I couldn't think.*"

On the other hand, if something is easy to comprehend, it is easy to ask a question; Michael [4.1] points out that "…I can I could understand her speaking, so I can ask easily." In this case, a state of 'normalcy' has apparently been achieved, and he returns a score of WTC 0 while asking his question.

7.4.1.2. Comprehension's effects on emotions

A lack of comprehension is a serious issue for many learners and can induce a negative emotional response, such as anxiety. Dewaele and Macintyre note that its cognitive and emotional effects can be 'insidious' (2014, p. 238). Iterations of this negative affective state, induced by a lack of comprehension, are shown in the table below:

Participant	Conversation	Feeling	Changes in WTC
Natsumi	1.1	I froze	+2 to 0
Michelle	1.2	I panicked	variable +1 to –1
Annie	1.3	oh my God & confusing	0 to –1 & +4 to 0
Steve	1.4	oh dear	0
Michelle	2.1	I was anxious	constant +2
Tad	2.3	danger & trouble	0 to –1 & 0 to –4
Harry	4.1	panic	0 to –5

Table 13. Negative emotions aroused by a lack of comprehension

Small details can have large effects on learners' emotional state. In [4.1], both Harry and Michael register multiple negative WTC scores. These coincide with comprehension difficulties stemming from a single word. The word 'proud of' instigates drops to Harry's WTC: –5 at 02:16, –2 at both 02:40 and 03:07; and 'ambition' causes his WTC to drop to –4 at 06:22. For Michael, 'proud of' causes his WTC rating to fall to –2 and –3 at 02:26 and 02:53 respectively; and 'possession' causes a similar occurrence of WTC –3 at 07:51.

7.4.1.3. Comprehension's effects on topic or response development.

It goes without saying that you cannot talk about a subject or topic if you cannot understand what is being said; however, even partial comprehension many inhibit the development of a response. In [2.3], the word 'extremely' makes it impossible for Tad to develop an appropriate response, and his WTC score drops from 0 to –3 and then from 0 to –2 as he is forced to respond:

> ***So here, there was a word I didn't know, so I could understand what the question meant, but this word I didn't know. So, this word was a verb (sic adverb) right, and I didn't know if this (ad)verb had a positive meaning or negative meaning, so I didn't know how to answer.***

Even when all the words in a statement are understood, the speaker's intentions may not be clear, leading to slowed responses or unanswered questions. In [1.1], Natsumi almost understands a question about grapefruits, and she reports her WTC falling from +4 to 0 and then recovering from 0 to +2, but she becomes confused as "***I couldn't really see the point, like I couldn't understand why she was asking this question so I couldn't really explain. I didn't get why she asked 'can you eat grapefruits'?***" In line with this confusion, her WTC score jumps from WTC +2 to +9; however, she does not speak as "***He (Seo) answered for us instead, so I just wasn't able (to ask more). So, I was just 'pfuh' and then I let it go.***"

An initial lack of comprehension can generate both positive and negative feedback in the WTC system. For example, clarification concerning a difficulty may led to relief and positive WTC arousal. In [4.1], Harry encounters difficulty with 'proud of', but he is obliged to complete his turn. As he struggles to comprehend the word, his rating falls to –5. Once he understands and overcomes this difficulty, his rating immediately increases to +5.

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7.4.2. Perceived opportunities to speak – Layer x

Assuming learners are able to follow the flow of a conversation and understand topical information, they also have to negotiate turn-taking. Aki [6.1] describes why her WTC increases to +1 as she judges when to add her ideas to the conversation: "***K-sans turn seems to be finishing, so while she is talking, it is OK for me to talk, or to listen (as I want) so my score is going up.***"

Unnatural turn-taking, from a native-English speaker's perspective, was described in Chapter Five as a feature of many Japanese learners' classroom talk. In this section, I will explicate the role of listening-directed behaviours in contributing to those turn-taking behaviours. The issues are: (1) listening as a distinct turn-taking behavior, (2) a policy of non-interruption, (3) strict observation of allocated turns, and (4) listening as a stance or approach to the activity.

7.4.2.1. Listening as a distinct turn.

While participants were monitoring for opportunities to participate, one noticeable behaviour was a lack of proactive question asking or other maneuvers to *take* the floor. Similarly, many students did not generate much WTC during others' turns, indicating that they had no intention to ask questions or *take* the floor from other learners. When questioned about this, the participants indicated that they perceived a clear distinction between time for listening and time for speaking rather than seeing them as fluid, interchangeable parts of the same interaction in which the floor is 'up for grabs' (Nunan, 1987, p. 137).

Natsumi's [3.1] assertion that teacher explanation time is distinctly different from student talk time, "I cannot speak at here because I have to listen his talk first and then thought I mustn't talk about this time", may seem normal; and this coincides with a drop from WTC 0 to –2 at the beginning of the class. Taka [6.4] explains that this distinction also applies to student—student interactions: "In my policy, when I have to talk, I talk; but when I have to

listen, I listen." This juxtaposes with him explaining why he speaks: "Here is my talking time, so I speak." This is a common sentiment, clearly repeated by Hide [6.4]: ***When someone else is speaking, I have to listen***" and Kiki: "***When I was listening, I don't need to talk.***"

The inverse phenomenon to 'having to listen' is 'having to speak'. This is described in this chapter as an 'obligation to complete turn-taking roles' [7.3.3.2.]. This may be recognised as 'compulsion' (when negative WTC coincides with speech), and it is a common phenomenon in the data I elicited; for example, when both Harry and Michael encountered the difficult vocabulary 'proud of' and 'ambition' in [4.1]. A differing phenomenon, however, is remarked upon by Tad [3.2] as he explains that his WTC rises to +5 in line with the obligation to talk: "Because it's my time, it's my talking time." In this case, an obligation to complete turns coincides with other talk-promoting desires such as a desire to share or ask for topical information.

7.4.2.2. Non-interruption while listening

Sometimes, students *did* indicate a desire to proactively take the floor; however, they tended to avoid interrupting while another student has the floor. Kota [5.2] recognised that floor-taking was a legitimate behavior in English conversations, but that it is inappropriate in Japanese:

> R: Suddenly he switches and interrupts. It's OK?
> Ko: Yeah, he's he's … can I say Japanese ***he can split his concentration really well*** and he can listen to this and this at the same time.
> R: ***But like they are talking together, and then suddenly he joins your conversation, is that not a problem?***
> K: Yes, (it's not a problem) because I think it is English style. Maybe I think ah if we are talking in Japanese then he asking maybe (it's a problem). If I study Japanese only I thought that, but I study English so it doesn't matter.

In juxtaposition to Kota's appreciation of the skill of interrupting / floor-taking, Tad explains that it can be detrimental to the group's conversation to raise points or issues that are out-of-turn. In [2.3A], even though his comprehension difficulties are causing his WTC to fall from 0 to –2, he refrains from interrupting to ask for help as it might spoilt the flow of the

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conversation: "***if I ask*** this conversation is stop. I ask them so this conversation so stop and so I don't want to stop." Kiki further exemplifies an unwillingness to disrupt the conversation with a point that is not valuable to her partners despite returning a WTC +7 score. When asked why, she notes that "*I think that would be strange, that would be strange, that would be strange, that would be strange.*" When asked for further elucidation, she says that "*it's not that important. Even if I wanted to go back, it's not that important, so it's not worth going back for. It was just my (lack of grammar) that made me (want to do it).*"

      I draw a distinction between 'listening as a distinct turn' [7.4.2.1.] and 'non-interruption' as the former led to suppression of the arousal of WTC (reduced or zero WTC ratings), while 'not interrupting' acts as a filter / brake that inhibits speech when WTC was aroused.

7.4.2.3. Strict observation of allocated turns

A third listening behaviour was identified as learners not taking up the floor despite aroused WTC because a turn-taking order had been established, explicitly or tacitly, by the group. This is distinguished from 'listening as a distinct turn' whereby 'listening' meant the WTC system did not become aroused because the individual did not perceive an opportunity to talk. It is also distinguished from 'non-interruption'. Non-interruption relates to a learner either failing to act at turn-relevant junctures or avoiding topic redirection, while the 'observation of allocation of turns' refers to deferring the floor to a (pre-)designated speaker. This is observed in [2.3A]; Chi-Chi refrains from taking a turn despite being really interested in the discussion taking place (WTC +8) because "it is difficult (to speak) I think his turn his turn he talking turn."

      Observing the allocation of turns can lead to long periods of inaction. In [4.1], Michael's intent to participate and his WTC rating remain at 0 for nearly two minutes as he waits for his turn. Initially, he doesn't mind waiting because "***it's one question for one person.***"

After three more minutes of this, he notes that he is "***Just bored***" because "***it's too long to wait***

for my turn." Boredom causes his WTC score to drops to –3; however, he continues going

along with the set order until the end of the activity.

Strong motivation may influence a learner to re-negotiate the turn-order. In [2.3A], Chi-

Chi was interested in a topic and returned a WTC +10 score. Accordingly, she offered to speak

first, but this caused her distress and her rating dropped from +10 to +4. She explained that

"I'm afraid that to first I want to talk whether I talk with talk first." Observing allocated turns

may repress arousal of WTC, as reflected by WTC 0 and 'listening as a distinct turn'; but if

interest is high, allocating turns may restrict aroused WTC from developing into talk.

7.4.2.4. Listening as a stance or activity.

A final observed listening behaviour was listening in order to learn about others, *as opposed to*

taking part in conversations. This was noted as a goal and a proactive behaviour for some, as

Harry [4.2] describes: "***I want(ed) to listen and (focus on) understanding. In the first group, I***

had to try really hard to answer the questions, so this time I want(ed) to relax, listen carefully,

and that felt good." This behaviour was described by Seo [2.1B] as a momentary goal but by

Chi-Chi [2.3] and Aki [6.1] as their preferred stance in exchange classes.

7.4.2.5. Listening conclusion

General comprehension (layer xi) antecedes 'recognising opportunities to speak' (layer x) in the

model because understanding when it is appropriate to talk depends on an ability to understand

the situation. These two listening factors are closely related to the seven iterations of 'desire to

communicate' (layer xii) because learners must use listening skills to evaluate the situation for

opportunities to respond to the potential opportunities or needs. If a learner recognises an

opportunity to speak, their ability to talk will then be contingent on their interest and knowledge

of the topic under discussion, as I discuss next.

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7.5. Topic issues

7.5.1. Topic knowledge and <u>interest</u> – Layer ix

Topic knowledge has been identified by Cao and Philp (2006), and Kang (2005) as an important factor in the development of WTC. As a teacher, picking relevant and interesting topics is an important part of activity design. In Table Fourteen, below, I identify 5 previously unidentified aspects of topic interest which may help teachers develop relevant tasks:

Facet of topic interest	Item	Participant	Change in WTC
Incongruity	Windmill	Seo [1.1]	0 to +5
Curiosity / surprise	High pay in Roppongi	Terry [1.4]	0 to +10
Patriotism	Godzilla	Michael [4.2]	0 to +4
Something in common	Rugby	Kota [5.2]	5 to +9
Pride in hometown	Hiroshima	Takahiro [6.3]	0 to +6

Table 14: Newly identified facets of topic interest

During conversations, interlocutors need to be able to offer and respond to an almost infinite variety of topics with zero preparation time. In [4.2], the topic *Godzilla*, a famous Japanese cultural item, was raised by Harry and Michael's Indonesian male partner (Bieber). Harry's (+3) and Michael's (+4) increased WTC is attributable to a feeling of cultural patriotism, as described by Michael: "He said 'movie name Godzilla' so I said 'Godzilla', Godzilla is Japanese movie so ***I was happy.***"

During Bieber's story, Michael and Harry searched for opportunities to respond; however, Bieber's story is detailed, so Harry was unable to find any kind of question to further the topic:

> ***He says "Godzilla" and I'm like 'great' and I wanted to ask him where he had seen it. But then he tells us it was at his grandparents' house so "er um er um". I tried to find a question to ask, but I couldn't come up with one, and then M-san says, "This summer there is a new Godzilla movie" and I thought, "Oh that was it!", but I lost my chance.***

All the participants in the conversation were aware of the upcoming movie, but only Michael was able to find a relevant connection between Godzilla and his partners' knowledge of the topic and could

formulate a response. Harry, on the other hand, struggled to find a way to use the topic. In this way, topics provide both a motivating interest and a psychological connection between interlocutors.

A negative WTC reaction can also be expected when a topic is not interesting or becomes boring. In [3.1], Seo describes his attitude towards the teacher-designated-topic as "***This is definitely not gonna be interesting.***" Combined with his poor relationship with his partners, this leads to a drop in WTC (0 to –2 and 0 to –3) and his withdrawal from participating in the activity.

Lack of interest in a topic may sometimes only be momentary, but even then it can also stop learners from participating. Harry [4.2] reports a lack of interest and boredom (WTC 0) when listening to his Bangladeshi partner's appreciation of Tokyo. He notes a lack of interest in items related to the economy, and he then complains about the ongoing situation as his score drops to WTC –3 and later to –2: "***… it's just "still Tokyo?" I was getting more and more bored.***" Given the limited time available in exchange classes, it seems appropriate for Harry to interject and participate with his own experiences of Tokyo or steer the conversation towards a more personally rewarding issue; however, his strict observation of his partners' turn-taking / speaking rights means his only available course of action was to 'put up with the situation' for two minutes until the whole activity ended.

7.5.2. Topic <u>knowledge</u> and interest – Layer ix

Topic knowledge acts as a link between *interest (layer ix)* and *having something to say* (layer viii). The more knowledge a participant has about a topic, the easier it will be to think of things to talk about when that topic arises. A lack of detailed knowledge or experience, on the other hand, can curtail WTC arousal and / or participation. In [5.1], Kota is discussing the well-known intercultural dormitories on campus, and his score rises from +6 to +10. However, his score quickly drops back to +6 because "I never lived in the dormitory so I couldn't talking."

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Chi-Chi describes the process she goes through as she comes to understand a complex topic about the utility of toll roads. She points out that "I can't (talk), I have never been, never driven, so I haven't tsuu much knowledge so I didn't (talk)", and her WTC decreases from +8 to +5. Soon after, she begins to develop a mental picture based on similar experiences: "Little-by-little I know, un so I didn't. Little-by-little I remembered that my father or my mother ***I mean my father and my mother*** drive in car then driving situation like but but but my mother or my father doing the driving." Thanks to this mental picture, she becomes willing to talk more about the topic, and her WTC rating recovers to +7.

Sometimes, learners simply do not know anything about a topic, and this directly curtails the possibility of participating. In [2.1], despite understanding that the topic is manga, Michelle is "***More than I am not interested, I have no idea (about this topic)***", which means she was forced into a listening stance by a lack of knowledge: "***I was thinking I should be listening.***"

Initially, she shows resilience and her WTC rating stays at +2. When a second topic she lacks knowledge about (school clubs) arises, she maintains her resilience (WTC +3). However, when a third unknown topic arises (horror movies), she realises that this is limiting her participation, her resolve wavers, and her WTC drops to +1 as she feels "***Oh no…They are talking about a lot of stuff I don't know. The topics are not great. It's like I have to speak even though I don't know the topics.***" Clearly, lack of topical knowledge renders participation extremely difficult. In the next section, I show that, even while knowing a topic, finding shared relevance can still be challenging.

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7.6. Content relevance – Layers viii & vii

7.6.1. Thinking of something to say – Layer viii

Even with exciting topics about which one has an intimate knowledge, interlocutors may be challenged to come up with relevant ideas to relate to their partners. In [6.1], Kiki has a chance to discuss a place she knows well, but she cannot think of anything to actually add to the conversation, which limits her WTC from developing into talk (+1): "***This person said she was from Nagano prefecture, right. And my mother is from Nagano, so I thought I would have something to talk about, but – nothing – I realised I couldn't think of anything.***" Conversely, when she has something relevant to say in [6.2], her score increases strongly (from 0 to + 10). This equivalates to the 'desire to share information' [7.3.3.5]: "So, we are still talking about hobbies, and as a hobby I like to eat bananas, because I like to go running in the mornings. So, I have something to talk about, so my score went up." In this case, perhaps WTC is strongly aroused and talk facilitated by the ease at which she can access the ideas and the importance of these ideas to her own personal identity.

Being unable to think of things to say may inhibit WTC from being developed fully into speech, or it can limit WTC arousal. As an example of the latter, Aki's rating falls (+2 to 0) and she explains that having something to say is a big factor in changes to her rating in [6.2]: "(It) went down a little because uhh the nothing to talk topic the score is down and something to talk maybe a little (up)."

In some cases, thinking of something to say may just be a matter of time. Michael explains that at the beginning of [3.2] his negative WTC score (–2) is because "***I hadn't thought about it*** (the topic at hand) ***yet.***" This forces him to quickly pass the discussion's opening question on to his partner, Tad, by repeating it.

The issue of finding things to say may also occur *during* one's own turn, as Harry [4.2] notes when he is explaining his earliest memory to his group. He completes his turn and finds that he is unable to expand on his idea as his ratings fall from +3 to 0: "This time I want to say

more something, but I ***nothing came to mind.*** I want to tell more information but I have no idea." He notices that his group members also seem to be waiting for an expansion of his ideas: "***So those two (international students) were looking at me like 'is that it?' So, I could feel this atmosphere of 'is that all?' So, I tried to think of something, but I couldn't come up with anything quickly, so I felt a bit sad.***"

Interlocutor familiarity may help students find experiences or points-in-common to share concerning topics. Terry [5.1] describes that he can "also ask a lot of topics like if we if we don't have any topics to talk, then I can ask her like 'we had' 'do you remember like we had some fun' or like we can share." For Terry, this means that conversations with familiar people are "smooth".

7.6.2. Perceived interlocutor value – Layer vii

Positive feedback from interlocutors can positively reinforce various aspects of the WTC—talk system, such as confidence and motivation. At the same time, avoiding negative feedback is also a motivational force in the system. As such, individuals need to evaluate their contributions for other participants. Tad [3.2] notes that he wants to talk when he perceives his idea to be highly relevant. He notes that his friend "ate always instant food, I think not good", so when the teacher proposes a health focused topic, it boosts his WTC score from −3 to +3. This is because "***these three (posters) are about how to stay healthy, I think this is a very good (useful) topic. So, I decided to talk (about this) to them.***"

In addition to the practical value of information that interlocutors exchange, Taka [6.3] describes how his positive WTC feelings are frequently spiked by his partner's explicit interest in him; his WTC rising from 0 to +4 and then +4 to +7 when it happens because "she tried to know about me, so I'd like to say that and introduce myself and I want them to know about me."

Conversely, negative evaluations are also possible and may restrict participation. Natsumi [3.1] describes how a worry about the perceived value of her comments affects her

WTC, which fluctuates from +1 to +3 to +2, and stymies her contributions: "I just wanted *so this is about the good points of our university, so I was about to say the same thing again, but then I hesitated as I realised that I was about to repeat myself.*" When asked to qualify this, she explains that **"I don't have confidence**" and that she is unsure whether "*it was good* (idea) *or not.*"

When a comment is not well received, negative feedback impacts WTC. In [2.3B], Seo's comments causes his partner difficulty, Seo perceives this as being his mistake, and consequently he reports his WTC falling to –2. He explains that "*I feel sorry towards him, sorry for putting him out.* Like I should have better question."

The need to maintain the relationship with others also contributes to nonverbal behaviours which keep the atmosphere positive. Due to ongoing difficulties, which mean she cannot join in, Kiki [6.1] feels "*I just felt really disappointed.*" Despite this negative feeling, she returns an ongoing WTC +1 score but cannot ask for help to join in the conversation. She hides her feelings by "*smiling to hide it. Like, if I do this face (miserable) the atmosphere will become bad, so I'm using this face (happy) to avoid that situation, to avoid it.*" While asking for help is suppressed, a different kind of communication that hides difficulties is appropriate. In terms of L2 acquisition, the suppression of the former can be considered a 'failure to communicate' as it arguably restricts Kiki's access to the conversational floor and subsequent affordances for L2 development.

7.7. Production issues – Layers vi, v, iv

7.7.1. Strategic competence – Layer vi

The issue of developing communication skills is at the heart of CLT pedagogy. Somewhat paradoxically, however, the development of certain skills may be a prerequisite before learners are able to begin to communicate for learning. For Japanese learners, some English

conversation skills, such as overlapping and taking the floor, may be different from those regularly used in their L1 or in their classrooms. This poses a problem for Japanese learners trying to adapt to English conversations. In [5.1], Kota returns an ongoing WTC score of +5 but defers to his partner, Terry. This happens because "maybe his asking timing was good".

Kota [5.1] further elucidates this point in the same interview and specifies two skills (louder backchannels and overlapping talk) he needs to develop further:

> R: He's talking for a long time, only him. Is that OK?
> Ko: Nnn yeah but I wanted to ask him, nn I nn I should do more reaction because my reaction is too small and not big. *(Backchannels)*
> R: Ah so like you wanted to ask him?
> Ko: Yeah
> R: But you didn't?
> Ko: Yeah
> R: ***What did you want to ask?***
> Ko: What is the famous food or something?
> R: OK, ***why didn't you ask?*** Why didn't you ask?
> Ko: Because they they because he is talking and I didn't know when I asked him, Japanese style and English style is different so I didn't say I didn't ask him.
> R: Can you explain a bit more "Japanese style and English style is different", can you explain that?
> Ko: Ah so Japanese style is is ah person is talking, then just listen and after that, after he finished so ask but English style is when he's talking, some ah someone say someone ask him during he's talking. (*Overlapping talk*)

The importance of developing strategies to join in a conversation cannot be overstated. In [4.1 & 4.2], Harry fails to ask follow-up questions he had prepared. He explained why this happens: "I want to say some question, 'where are you going to?' Or, like something, so I want to ah um I think after the her ***I thought I would ask some questions, after she finishes speaking. So, I was thinking, but then, after this (part of the video), she says everything***" (WTC +4). To gain more floor-time and affordances for L2 development, Harry's focus on asking questions "after she finishes" indicates a need to practice developing a range of questions quickly and a need to find ways to express his ideas at turn relevant junctures rather than after the topic draws to a close.

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7.7.2. Linguistic competence – Layer v

In addition to strategic issues, it is naturally a very common problem that learners cannot find the right words or grammatical structures for the ideas they wish to express. In addition to the strategic issues above, Kota [5.1] also describes having vocabulary issues. Despite recording a relatively high WTC score of +6 throughout his conversation and being interested in the topic of 'Bangkok', his participation ends prematurely because "I wanted to say but I couldn't say a word, and I couldn't say word because I don't have vocabulary."

These difficulties in English can easily be juxtaposed with learners' conversational abilities in their L1. In [3.1], Natsumi (WTC +3) explains her difficulties in detail:

> N: *If I am speaking Japanese, I wouldn't say I have to think, words come out and I can smoothly say my opinions.*
> R: *But of course, in English…*
> N: *I start to speak, but if I haven't thought carefully, I can't really speak.*
> R: *So like, if you prepare in your head and rehearse you'd be able to speak for longer (in more detail)*
> N: *Ye::s::*
> R: OK. How did you feel at this stage?
> N: Ah::: maybe I at this time I'm thinking I want to say but *kind of like "umm err"*
> R: *You don't know what you should say?*
> N: *I know what I want to say, but I don't know how to say it in English.*

Linguistic difficulties sometimes feedback into WTC scores. Michael [3.2] notes the effect of language problems, which cause a swing from WTC +4 to –4, as he encounters vocabulary difficulties which curtail his turn:

> R: He talks, then he says how about you and you say, "I never joined"
> M: Ah it's high (score) so I think I talk it's my turn so… I'm happy
> R: *How can we say…* ma umm OK.
> <plays video>
> R: And then your score goes down?
> M: Ah I want to talk more… but I have no vocabulary, so I I can't describe my opinion so *disappointed*.
> R: Uh huh, OK.

Linguistic issues can be overcome through the facilitating efforts of other interlocutors. In [2.3], Chi-Chi (WTC +10) describes how she had been having trouble getting all her words

together to express herself: "I already know that (topic content) but I can't speak English very well so it is very confused to in the brain"; however, the question is asked directly to Chi-Chi allowing her time and space to formulate a linguistically correct response. This leads to positive feelings: "I'm glad to talk with to ask me to first question so then I'm feeling I'm feeling is better." Clearly, a balance has to be struck between interventions or avoiding difficult topics (see next section, [7.7.3]) and allowing learners time to develop responses.

7.7.3. Time and effort to produce – Layer iv

In some cases, the time taken to find the right ideas, words, and grammar becomes too much. Potentially, even pauses lasting a single second may be perceived as too long, leading to opportunities to speak being passed up. In [1.1], Natsumi refrains from returning to a previous point and explaining her intentions better. She feels regret over her initial response to the question "Do you like fishing?", which causes her WTC to rise from 0 to +3. She explains that "*Like, when I thought some more, I realised that I don't like it*." However, she notes it is too much effort to fix the issue: "*Maybe, I intended to* (fix it)*, and then I was like 'just let it go'.*" This 'letting it go' is probably somewhat related to effort to develop the correct linguistic utterances because "*If it was in Japanese, yeah, I think I could have said something.*"

Later in the same conversation, the topic of tattooing arouses a WTC score of +4; however, Natsumi elected to use Japanese because "*I took the easy way.*" While use of the L1 may facilitate ongoing participation, it is important that it does not happen at the expense of L2 practice.

Sometimes, response development takes longer periods of time, and difficulties are resolved by another speaker explicitly recommending abandonment of difficult items. In [1.3], as Annie struggles to resolve an issue, her Nepalese partner becomes impatient and moves the conversation along by forcefully abandoning the difficult item. This goes against Annie's wishes, and her WTC rating of +4 drops to 0 because she felt "A little shock, because I can't

understand her opinion. So yeah, but but maybe un I think un I think we we have to we have to talk about it more time…"

The issue of time and effort is intrinsically bound up with various aspects of comprehension, topic development, and linguistic and strategic competence. Potentially, the less cognitively demanding those WTC—talk pre-requisites are, the easier it is to take part in conversations. However, the question of effort to produce is complex; and the issue of 'will power', which may be related to perceived risk as well as motivational intensity, should be examined further.

7.7.4. Emotional stability – Layer iii

The impact of a lack emotional stability compared to 'normalcy' was discussed in Chapter Six; however, it is worth revisiting Kota's [5.1] comments about emotions and language production. He notes that the conversational situation in the exchange classes stimulates negative emotions. In Kota's case, he feels 'pressure' stemming from being "so nervous is I'm worried about my English is correct or so the is can understand my English." At that time, this worry impacted his cognitive functions which he juxtaposes with the relaxed situation during his interview: "So, now my brain is clean so I can say vocabulary ah words and I make grammar so but then I couldn't do."

As noted in Chapter Six and in section [7.4.1.2.] (Table Eleven), a wide range of negative emotions afflict the learners in this study. These negative emotions may be aroused as a result of comprehension issues; linguistic difficulties; or reactions to events, such as disagreements. Furthermore, as reported in section [5.3.1.], the presence of English-basis students raises the Japanese learners' anxiety causing negative feedback in the WTC—talk system. Further examples of how group composition, concerning gender and age differences, may affect WTC and participation will be given in Chapter Eight.

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The positing of 'emotional stability' in this model is perhaps the most contentious as negative or positive feedback may impact learners' at any stage in their attempts to overcome the challenges required for talk production. It is my belief, however, that 'emotional stability' precedes the final antecedent to talk, a lack of intervention, as interventions are not subject to a learner's internal cognitive—emotional processes.

7.7.5. Interventions – Layer ii

Intervention refers to the actions of another speaker or external source (e.g., a fire alarm or the end of class chime) that prevent an individual from developing talk from an intention to communicate. In section [7.7.3.], it was posited that learners may sometimes not have enough time to complete turns; 'interventions' are delineated from that time issue by two points. First, the external action interrupts the natural flow of the learner's WTC—talk processing. Second, the individual does not relinquish the opportunity to speak (due to the time and effort required to produce language), rather the opportunity to speak is forcefully removed by the actions of another interlocutor or external source.

In some cases, interventions may simply correspond with another interlocutor taking the floor too quickly for a Japanese learner to speak. In [3.1], Natsumi notes how she has an idea prepared and is ready to speak (WTC +3), but "he speak talks fast so nn I just listened and then tried to talk next or like."

Interventions can also arise mid-turn. In [4.1], Harry is struggling to complete his answer, so his international partner tries to help him; however, Harry notes that "I I want to say something, but *halfway through* he say some question or more information. *I'm like 'what', 'what was I gonna say then'?*" This break in Harry's concentration leads to his WTC rating falling from +3 to –1.

Interventions can also come from an outside source. One issues that arose for some students was that, just as they were beginning to develop a rapport with their partners, the

teacher would change the groups too quickly for their liking. In [1.1], Seo runs out of time to exchange contact details with his partners and is forced to change groups while his WTC rating is increasing from 0 to +6. He explains that his WTC rose because "I wanted to have a time to exchange the Facebook or the Line, or like that"; however, "we didn't have time."

The issue of interventions can clearly be juxtaposed to other production level issues, for example: the amount of time that it takes for a student to prepare the required vocabulary or grammar, whether the participant is able to time their follow-up questions, and whether they actually perceive a relevant time to intervene. In this case, interventions can be differentiated by the fact that the student has something they wish to say or do and believes they know when and how to do it, but the opportunity is taken away by external factors rather than internal factors.

7.8. Feedback in the system

Prior to this study, WTC➜talk was considered to be the normal relationship between WTC and speech; however, it was noted in section [6.3] that aroused WTC can arise from communicative acts (e.g., when speech is accompanied by positive reactions from partners). Conversely, a failure to communicate can promote WTC (particularly when a lack of communication means a task needs to be completed, or a poor atmosphere needs to be resolved). Moreover, successful communication can reduce a learner's feelings of WTC (especially if pressure to complete a task or to fulfil an obligatory turn has been lifted). Thus, the role of feedback in the WTC–communication system cannot be overlooked.

Of particular interest is the role of positive emotions and negative emotions. As noted earlier, negative emotions frequently occurred during conversations. Efforts to avoid negative emotions or evaluations could arouse feelings of WTC and efforts to speak, and this may lead to further arousal of negative or positive emotions when a learner is compelled to speak. At the same time, negative emotions also interfered with learners' cognitive processes creating further

negative feedback in the system. This final issue will be studied in much greater detail in the next chapter, in which students' highly complex cognitive and emotional judgements concerning appropriate communicative behaviours will be discussed.

7.9. Conclusion

Research Question Two of this study asks, "What, if any, are the differences between immediate-WTC and classroom talk?" However, based on the results reported in Chapter Six, I have had to reconceptualise WTC as a WTC—talk complex dynamic system. As such, the question could be reconceived to be: "To what extent do factors in the WTC—system align to successfully predicate speech?" Evidence in the form of correlations and examinations of WTC charts indicate that, in the current study, successful alignment of factors in the WTC—talk system does not occur as frequently as could be wished for.

Based on these results, Research Question Three should be slightly adjusted to ask "What facilitates or impedes successful alignment of factors in the WTC—talk system?" A response to this question is not simple as a myriad of factors contribute to the (un)successful alignment of the WTC—talk system. The model provided in this chapter is a first tentative step towards explaining reasons why factors in the system do not align to generate successful talk. The three main points derived from the model are: (1) multiple motivational factors concurrently impact arousal of the WTC system; (2) in the WTC moment, factors must sequentially align before talk can be generated, and (3) successful and unsuccessful occurrence of WTC—talk alignment have unpredictable feedback effects on future iterations of the system.

Concerning talk motivators, or driving forces, seven opportunities or obligations have been identified: two relate strongly to obligations, one has a dual obligation and volitional aspect, while four reasons may fulfil personal desires. At any moment, multiple iterations of these motivators may co-affect the system. They may converge and mutually reinforce an

individual's intentions to seek out or avoid communication; on the other hand, these motivators may conflict, leading to ambivalence in the WTC system and WTC ratings that do not coincide with actual communication.

In layers xi—ii of the model, various prerequisites of talk that can be addressed through practice and pedagogy are described. These prerequisites may manifest as restraining forces on the WTC—talk system in two ways. First, difficulty in 'fulfilling the requirement' may stop the generation of talk. Second, said difficulties may lead to negative feedback in the system, which could create further linguistic processing problems and / or increase the likelihood of an individual subsequently avoiding communication.

Macintyre (2007) posits that it should be easier to reduce these restraining forces rather than increase driving forces in the classroom. Therefore, educators and learners may find it beneficial to use this model to remove barriers to speech (focusing on aligning factors in the moment of WTC) instead of working on increasing levels of the motivations that feature in layers xiv—xii. For example, increasing time given to formulate speech may be more fruitful than drip feeding in multiple linguistic prompts; or, providing interesting and easy to comprehend topics could produce more noticeable effects than trying to motivate with grade pressure.

The proposed model and the checking list for coding (Appendix Sixteen) may hold value for educators as it can be used to evaluate which problems a particular learner or class may need to address when learning to communicate. For example, if learners often struggle at layer xi (comprehension); then teachers may wish to teach strategies for asking for help or directing the conversation to simpler topics, or they may wish to provide easier classroom topics. Similarly, if learners struggle in layer vi (strategic issues), then awareness raising and learner training for (1) making space in conversations, (2) forcefully asking follow-up questions, or (3) taking and maintaining the floor might be considered necessary.

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While this WTC—talk model is based on the fulfilment of each prerequisite, a caveat is that the *quality* of action that completes each prerequisite is not evaluated. For example, broken or poorly constructed speech does not preclude fulfilment of the linguistic and strategic competence requirement (layer vi, v); rather, the learner's perception of what is adequate for each situation is what actually inhibits or facilitates talk. Thus, one learner may be content to produce poorly constructed utterances and talk a lot, while another learner may focus on producing highly accurate utterances and consequently not talk a lot. In Chapter Eight, cultural variations concerning the evaluation of 'appropriate' talk and tolerance for poorly constructed utterances is discussed.

CHAPTER EIGHT: '*OTHER-DIRECTEDNESS*' AS A KEY DETERMINER OF LEARNER BEHAVIOURS

As reported in Chapter Three, cultural factors are often considered to account for Japanese and other Asian learners' apparent shyness or reticence in CLT classrooms. Accordingly, some cross-cultural differences in trait-like aspects of WTC have been found. For example, Yashima (2002; 2009) describes how international posture in Japan provides a better description of learners' motivational predispositions than the integrative motivation model that is often applied in Canada's bilingual immersion situations (Gardner, 1988). Personality types are also considered to be a factor in cross-cultural WTC differences. For instance, Aida (1994) points out that Japanese learners are typically introverted and risk-avoidant, which MacIntyre et al. (1998) claim would lead to them having lower levels of WTC compared to learners from other contexts.

Currently, there is little or no empirical evidence concerning cross-cultural comparisons of moment-to-moment WTC ratings and their relationship with actual behaviours in the classroom. However, learners in this study pointed out that the appropriate timing of conversational techniques used to realise moments of WTC into talk was different in their L1 and L2, which may account for some of the conversational difficulties reported in Chapter Five. As such, I use Dörnyei and Tseng's (2009) model of Motivational Task Processing System to investigate both the motivational aspect of the WTC construct ('have to' situations and feelings of 'want to') and the alignment of factors in the 'WTC moment'. By doing so, I respond to Wen and Clément's (2003) claim that learners from Confucian backgrounds are likely to be restrained by a cultural filter that derives from these learners' *other-directed self* (2003, p. 19).

8.1. The Motivational Task Processing System

Dörnyei and Tseng (2009) proposed a model of motivational task-processing system (MTPS), Figure Ten, which combines learner behaviours (task execution), appraisal of the situation (task-appraisal), and ongoing response or decision-making mechanisms (action control). These processes combine to help learners pursue effective learning behaviours.
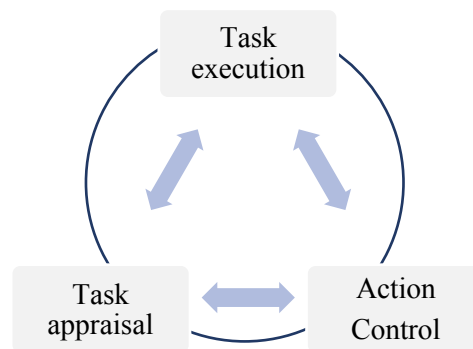
Figure 10. Dörnyei and Tseng's (2009, p. 119) Motivational Task Processing System
Reproduced with permission from Dörnyei and Tseng, 2009 © Taylor and Francis Group

Task execution refers to the carrying out of learning activities. In the case of a spoken classroom task, a student needs to discern the task requirements and apply various skills to complete the activity. These skills include: understanding and fulfilling the task parameters and rules, understanding appropriate turn-taking strategies and turn-taking orders, applying linguistic control such as grammar and vocabulary, applying paralinguistic control such as pronunciation and intonation, and developing appropriate topic content with an appropriate quantity of output.

Task appraisal refers to the continuous monitoring of feedback. As learners engage in an activity, they need to judge the appropriateness of their efforts and the success of their attempts at task execution by monitoring a range of stimuli, such as: noise level compared to other groups, facial expressions and gestures of partners, backchannels (including laughter) and further questions, and praise from peers and teachers. Learners also evaluate their own

production compared to an internal schema of their hoped for or predicted performance. The more experience a leaner has had of the situation at hand, the more clearly defined the learner's parameters for evaluating their success will be. Consequently, experience potentially leads to more confidence in the execution and appraisal processes.

Action control refers to students' actions to enhance, scaffold, or protect the learning specific task execution when task appraisal indicates that the task execution is not being carried out appropriately. Action control includes cognitive and affective efforts to: move on to the next task/action, control panic and other emotions, repeat an action, or seek advice or feedback on their output. Action control may also refer to taking appropriate action when the learner has successfully completed an activity/task and must decide what to do (or not do) next.

The MTPS model allows for an ongoing examination of learners' agency. The model of WTC—talk realisation proposed in Chapter Seven is somewhat static in that it describes the phenomena a learner perceived from a reactive standpoint; the learner notices a phenomenon and describes their reaction to it. MTPS allows a more fluid examination of the situation, providing insight on: (1) the situation the learner perceived, (2) their emotional and cognitive reactions to the situation, and (3) behaviours that the learner undertook in response to (1) and (2).

Greater fluidity stems not only from the assumption that this process is cyclical in nature but, moreover, because action control responses, task execution, and appraisal activities are interdependent and simultaneously exist. For example, if an original utterance is not understood, revised efforts to communicate require internal action control strategies to maintain motivation and select an alternative course of action. These strategies are employed as new utterances are being voiced. At the same time, the MTPS is continually in a state of feedback with reactions to this revised output also being evaluated for appropriacy. The interdependent and simultaneous nature of these processes accounts for the two-way nature of the arrows in the model shown in Figure Ten.

The MTPS is also compatible with Complex Dynamic Systems Theory. Dörnyei (2003) points out that modular studies in to ILDs fail to take into account that motivated action varies across timescales and contexts. For example, the pleasure derived from successfully integrating in a second language community (intrinsic motivation) might only receive affirmation when a student successfully participates in a once-in-a-lifetime study abroad program, yet this highly-motivated learner, who continually scores highly in English tests, may not be fully engaged in day-to-day speaking activities. In this study, however, the multifaceted nature of motivation is an important part of the findings as motivational decisions vary depending on a learner perceiving their ongoing actions to be successful or unsuccessful. In this respect, the MTPS framework is an ideal tool to examine moment-to-moment changes in motivation.

Additionally, as Ellis (2004) describes, motivation has long been considered to be an affective rather than a cognitive factor. However, the MTPS combines both aspects; learners react both emotionally and cognitively to a situation. To avoid feedback that arouses negative emotions and instead arouse positive emotions, learners have to pursue actions that may be predominantly cognition-based. From this perspective, MTPS acknowledges learners' agency in protecting and developing their motivation through cognitive management of their affective reactions to setbacks and successes.

8.1.1. Re-evaluating classroom talk: From 'conversation' to 'task completion'

I initially treated the activities recorded during data collection as conversations. However, as the participants started to describe one of their key reasons to engage as 'have to…' it became apparent that participants approached these conversations as classroom tasks. This is confirmed by Annie [1.3], who described her conversation as a "project." Similarly, Natsumi [1.1] drew a clear distinction between her classroom talk as a "discussion" and her out-side-of-class English use as "daily conversation." Indeed, in the classroom, Harry [4.2] explains that he only needs to use English during the actual activity time. At other times, he is content to use Japanese as he is

not attempting to complete an activity even though he is wasting opportunities to practice English:

> R: They start saying *"konnichwa hajimemashite"* **"hello, nice to meet you"** and so on… is that OK? Does it bother you? It's English speaking time, but they are speaking Japanese?
> H: ***Not really, so it's the beginning and we have just changed partners, so once we begin (the activity) it will be in English so it's kind of OK.***

This behavior is derived from an appraisal of the situation as 'not necessary' rather than as evidence of poor English skills or lack of initiative. The students seem to be indicating that only once the teacher specifically and directly indicates "you must use English for this" is it necessary to use English with the international students. In short, the Japanese participants in this study clearly draw a dividing line between small talk and task-orientated activity.

Dörnyei (2002) argues that each specific context exerts a certain amount of motivational influence that will be unique to that situation. Thus, this 'not necessary' appraisal may limit classroom practice time, but it might not be repeated in real-life L2 contact situations as 'have to complete the task' would no longer exert an influence on the immediate situation. That said, Aki [6.1], Kiki [6.2], Michelle and Kevin [1.2], and Michael [4.1] all reported reticence to talk outside of class, and Seo and Natsumi [1.1] evidenced limited out-of-class English contact. In short, learners might not use English outside if class as it is not deemed necessary. Therefore, some reappraisal of the effectiveness of intercultural campuses in Japan for language exchange may be expedient.

8.2. Other-directedness in WTC

Using Dörnyei and Tseng's (2009) MTPS, the influence of culture on WTC can be understood by investigating how learners evaluate a situation; for example, participants saw classroom activities in this study as tasks rather than as opportunities to have a conversation. Evaluations such as this depend on a learner's culturally derived mental schema, which provides a

framework that learners can use to evaluate and select appropriate (classroom) behaviours. Wen & Clément (2003) argued that learners from Confucian background contexts, such as Japan, China, Taiwan, Korea, and Thailand, would be influenced by a collectivistic, or *other-directed*, model of appropriate behaviours. This model is shown in Figure Eleven on the next page.

Wen & Clément (2003) posit that an individual's desire to communicate may be mediated by the need to conform to group-focused socially appropriate behavior, or *other-directedness*; while, in Western contexts, interpersonal and intergroup motivations may be seen as personal or ego-orientated choices. They propose other-directedness as a filter that restricts personal decisions at the expense of group-focused decisions. As shown in Figure Eleven, these group-focused decisions develop from: other-directed (1) motivational orientation (the need to belong to groups, the need to fit into group hierarchy, and focusing on the task to help the group), (2) other-directed responses to the immediate classroom context (fitting into class rules and not standing out from peers), (3) other-directed affective perceptions (fear of not fitting in, not wishing to make mistakes, and sensitivity to others' opinions), and (4) other-directed personality (high risk-avoidance, ambiguity adverse, and modest). As a 'filter' which impacts talk by restricting desires to communicate from becoming WTC, its influence is posited to fall between layers III (desire) and II (WTC) on MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) heuristic model of WTC.
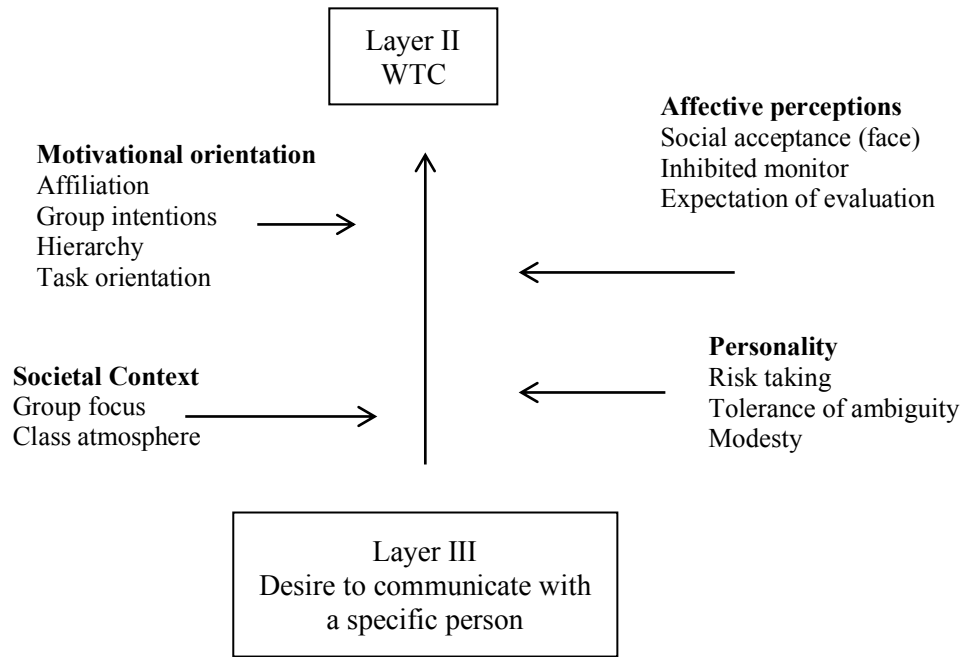
Figure 11. Wen and Clément's (2003, p. 25) other-directed filter
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To date, empirical evidence of the existence other-directed behaviours has not been reported. To examine other-directedness, I carried out deductive coding of factors that regulated WTC and factors that restricted or promoted the production speech.

 As with all studies in cross-cultural communication, the categories described in this section should be considered to refer to points of a continuum rather than absolutes. Individuals from similar cultural backgrounds are *likely* to fall in similar ranges on a continuum of thoughts and behaviours in comparison to individuals from a differing cultural background. Thus, compared to learners from other contexts, Japanese learners may be likely to show more behaviours that indicate other-directed intentions; however, this does not negate the existence of some self-orientated behaviours that are similar to those potentially exhibited by learners from other contexts.

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8.2.1. Motivational orientation

In this section, I will discuss the two main issues pertaining to motivation and other-directedness. The first issue is the role of task-focused motivation; enabling the group to compete classroom tasks seems to be the most important moment-to-moment motivational factor for the Japanese participants in this study. Second, striving to develop affiliation with other group members may be the second most important motivational factor. These orientations seemed to exert more frequent, or greater, influence than other personal motivations such as practicing English or gaining recognition of personal attributes (e.g., excellent English skills, sporting achievements, or travel experiences).

8.2.1.1. Task involvement as a key motivational orientation

In Wen & Clément's (2003) model of WTC, it is posited that Confucian background students would focus on completing a classroom task for the overall benefit of the group and the subsequent public recognition of their contribution to the task-completion. This task-orientation is considered to be more important than focusing efforts on enjoyment or developing linguistic skills for their own self-benefit (ego-orientation). A focus on task completion was clearly exhibited by all the participants in the study when they described their participation in terms of 'we have to do this'. For example, in [1.1] Natsumi describes her experience in general through the obligation to complete the list of question prompts provided by the teacher: "They are talking about this one (items on the paper), and also we have to talk about (it)."

Michelle points out that this obligation sometimes outweighed a lack of interest in the topic at hand:

> M … ***on this card it was written to be the opposite opinion of absolutely everyone.***
> ***Like you have to have funny or strange opinions.***
> R: ***So, you couldn't say your own real opinion…?***
> M: ***Yeah. How can I say. There were these roles, vegetarian he was vegetarian and***
> ***uh maybe not.***
> R: ***OK, but I mean on this paper, were there any topics that you were deeply***
> ***interested in, or not really?***
> M: ***I didn't think so. …***

Despite these prompts not generating much interest, and a subsequent lack of talk prompting one of the English-basis students to ask "so anything… say something", the students perservered with this unenjoyable task until the end when Michelle notes that "*I was really exhausted at the end.*" It is controversial to suggest that the learners in this conversation should ignore the teacher-directed activitiy; but, conversly, I would also argue that the learners' strong task-orientation, as exhibited by adhereing closely to the teacher-handout, led to a wasted opportunity to practice with the English-basis students in the exchange class.

Obligation may also refer to the medium (language) used to communicate. Michelle [1.2] notes that her WTC score falls because she accidentally uses Japanese to complete her turn: "*Yeah, it went down a bit, but more so I felt like 'oh no' we should have been speaking English.*"

An absence of this task-obligation can lead to a lack of talk. As I reported in Chapter Five, many of the Japanese participants did not engage English-basis students in any form of comunication until the teacher specifically told the students to "start talking." This is explained by Chi-Chi [2.3A], who recorded an extremely high ongoing mean immediate-WTC of 7.6 and mode of 9 throughout her conversation; yet, with no-task to complete, she did not proactively engage her international partners because "I don't feel I have to speak … because it's just waiting for the paper."

During an activity, task-oriented obligation may not be aroused if the requirements of the task are perceived to have been met. In [6.1], once she has spoken, Aki feels her obligation to contribute has been fulfilled, leading to a drop in her WTC ratings: "I finished the main topic, my main topic finished so I don't have (to)…". Similarly, Keo [3.2] notes that if others do the work, he has no need to talk even though he has not had a turn: "*(everything) has been decided, so it's finished. I don't need to bother.*"

On the other hand, a failure to complete task-oriented obligations may arouse negative emotions. In [2.3A], Tad struggles to understand a topic and breaks the flow of the activity, this

has a negative impact on his WTC score, which drops to –5 because, "I stopped the conversation… so smoothly not not smoothly ah so I'm sorry, I think I'm sorry."

In Chapter Five, I described participants' lack of initiation of turns as problematic; however, this needs to be re-appraised as an other-directed motivational decision. These learners are fulfilling the motivational processes of task appraisal, action control, and execution in an other-directed manner. In the appraisal stage, the learners evaluated if a task-focused need, such a topical question or task-related turn completion opportunity, arose. If it did not, they decided to wait for the opportunity to arise. If an opportunity or need arose, the learners focused on responding to that task-focused need (action control) and executed fulfillment of the need by speaking in English and adding topical, task-focused ideas.

In this study, students rarely engaged their exchange partners when they transitioned between groups or at the beginning of exchange classes. Similarly, Japanese students that I have taught in other institutions frequently respond to teachers' questions and prompts (e.g., tell your partner about your weekend) with a one-sentence-long response before sitting and waiting in silence. When I question students in my university classes about this, the standard response is "we finished." Rather than continue to talk for enjoyment or for language development, these students may be responding to a lack of task-focused need by waiting in silence.

8.2.1.2. Task-orientation vs ego-orientation

The usual approach to exchange classes at APU is to *only* use English; however, in some cases learners had to decide between fulfilling the task needs in Japanese at the expense of continued English practice and self-development. Such a decision indicates the priority of task-orientation over ego-orientation. In [3.1], this is noted by Natsumi when she switches into Japanese to discuss the parameters of her team's upcoming presentation. She explains that "*I thought they were different activities. So, I thought it was OK to use Japanese and then we had to be quick. It was a kind of emergency, so we (unfortunately) used Japanese.*" In a similar way, Tad [3.2]

reverts to "I just speak Japanese" when he deems his contribution to be focused on what to do, "so if you want write small letters, it's OK", rather than topical content. He thinks this it is better to get this out of the way quickly rather than struggle for an English explanation: "so if I stop this time, so not good."

When code-switching was discussed in the post-task interviews, students remarked that "We have to speak English" as opposed to "I really wanted to speak English." This adds weight to the idea that task-orientation is the prevalent motivator.

The participants' code switching is a choice to enable the smooth completion of the task-at-hand, but also indicates that task-orientation holds primacy over ego-orientation. This claim becomes much clearer when it comes to topical decisions. In [3.2], Tad reveals that he self-regulates away from discussing a preferred topic relating to his own personal experiences in order to strictly remain on topic: "***So, I wanted to recommend that they join a university cultural festival, but that is not the topic so I shouldn't say about that.***" He recognises that, outside of the classroom, he would have other options: "So, if ***happening in real life*** if it's in daily life I will maybe I will talk my image, but so this is class so I didn't talk about week recommending week." This is also a very clear indication that learners' motivational orientation inside and outside of the classroom are different.

Task-orientation develops not only from a recognition of teacher authority but also has a strong group-influenced component. In [3.1] Seo wishes to enliven his discussion, but his partners, Natsumi and Kevin, try to guide him away from what they deem to be an inappropriate focus on the topic-at-hand. When asked why he didn't ask the teacher to evaluate if his ideas were appropriate, he explains that it would be a group-made-decision:

> R: You didn't think to say to the teacher, "Is it OK to say negative things too? Is it OK to say crazy things too?"
> S: Hu hu no cuz ah if it's only me, I will tell, I will write negative point but I don't tell I didn't tell teacher cuz it has group so if it depends on the group then…
> R: So, you cannot kind of like tell ***teacher*** unless they say it is OK?
> S: ((*nods*))

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The examples given illustrate that, in the decision-making process, this study's participants are likely to give primacy to task-orientations over their own linguistic development or enjoyment of personal topics. Behaviours stemming from this task-orientation should be considered as other-directed motivational decisions. In the appraisal stage, individuals evaluated the situation and their own current actions concerning topic and medium: '*Is my content appropriate?*' '*Does using Japanese speed-up task-completion?*' For some participants, if their appraisal indicated non-task completion, the learner would focus on the topic; but in the action control phase, the learner could decide to switch to Japanese to complete the task smoothly rather than focus on personal linguistic development.

8.2.1.3. Affiliation vs Control

Affiliation and control are identified as the two main drivers of desire to communicate in MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) model of WTC. Wen and Clément (2003) agree that affiliation is a universal desire in all cultures; however, manifestations of this affiliation may differ across cultures. This is clearly explained by Hofstede et al. (2010) who point out that, in some cultures, individuals may have a strong desire to align their behaviours and goals with the people surrounding them. Such cultures are described as being *collectivistic*, and many East-Asian cultures, including Japan, China, and South Korea, are typically identified as being so. On the other hand, countries that provide many of the Native-English speaker models of English that Japanese learners strive to acquire are often described as *individualistic*. Tsai (2015) argues that, in individualistic cultures, individuals strive for control of groups by pushing their own desires and goals onto members of their social groups.

I proposed in Chapter Seven that students in this study feel obligations and desires to help *other* group members participate and achieve the *other* members' learning goals. In [2.2A], Annie describes helping her Japanese partner to talk:

> R: You know that she (Kerry) is not gonna speak much in English. You could have asked anybody "how about you?", but you asked her?

A: So, because I think I want her to speak English more, yeah so and uh so I want her to be relaxed so then yeah. So, our test our speaking test is coming soon, maybe next week, so I think we have to practice for speaking, speaking in English so "how about you?"

Annie [ibid] also discusses inducing positive feelings in her English-basis partners: "I also think about this situation looks like not interesting because maybe we are all very nervous, camera and mic, so I want I want them to be relaxed, so I said the example like 'American friends' like that. So, if I said that, they will be relaxed and interesting, so I said the example, and after their looks like laughing and smile so 'oh good'."

Conversely, Michelle [1.2] describes how her lack of input stops the other group members enjoying the activity: "***these guys are definitely not enjoying (the activity).***" To avoid a bad atmosphere, Terry [5.1] prompts his partners to ask each other questions because "if he (Kota) doesn't ask somebody, then like then like it's gonna be quiet. That's why I ask them like make them make the conversation like more smoothly." This is part of his effort to ensure that the conversation is fun: "I really like think talking has to be enjoyable and fun. So, I don't want them to be like awkward."

To improve group relations, Terry encourages his partners to talk lots. On the other hand, sometimes it is necessary to be quiet to achieve the same aims. In [4.2], Harry is becoming frustrated at the length of turn that his two partners are taking on a topic that he is not interested in. He wants to interject and redirect the conversation, but he refrains from interrupting due to concern for his partner's well-being and enjoyment because, "***I could see they were having a great time, so I thought it was better to let (everyone) have fun.***"

Affiliation can be seen in these examples as another motivational-orientation. Sometimes, this prompted the learners to make jokes [Annie 2.2A, ibid] or help others to participate [Terry 5.1, ibid], while electing to be silent to allow others to participate is [Harry 4.2, ibid] another contribution that the students made. The participants may appraise the situation and evaluate if an affiliation-orientated situation arises and does not conflict with task-orientation motivation. If necessary, the learners may respond to such needs accordingly.

During the appraisal phase, however, the learners may notice that the task-need is being completed and that their participation could have a negative impact on task completion and / or or others' enjoyment. In such cases, in the action control phase, learners oriented towards silent or listening-focused behaviours.

As described, silence is not an absence of participation; rather, it acts as an affiliative action stemming from an individual prioritising other members' enjoyment or linguistic development over their own. This stance reflects a growing realization that various manifestations of silence should be recognised by teachers, learners, and researchers as meaningful contributions to the immediate interactional context (see Ducker, in press). Furthermore, it reflects the long-held recognition that silence is positively appreciated in Japanese culture (Nakane, 2007) and is considered to carry many forms and functions (Saville-Troike, 1982).

Given that, in the data collected, task-orientation needs have been shown to supersede ego-orientation needs [8.2.1.2.] the possibility of task-orientation needs superseding affiliation-oriented needs cannot be discounted. However, no clear data is available for this supposition, so it may be that affiliative needs are usually compatible with task-oriented needs; for example, helping a partner to talk may also advance the group's efforts to complete a task-focused turn.

In addition to positively contributing to others' well-being, participants also appreciated receiving positive actions from others. In [4.1] Harry receives detailed explanations from his partner about the word 'proud of'. He displays hope that his efforts will benefit the other participants: "***I could find something to talk about, I said it and I hoped they enjoyed it. Then they understood clearly what I was saying, so I felt like everything was OK.***" He also acknowledges the efforts that his international partners put into helping him: "***After all that explaining what happens if I got it wrong, but it seemed to be OK***".

This kind of appreciation of others' efforts is an important part of Japanese culture's focus on reciprocity. Stevens (2003) notes that reciprocity through a strong effort to notice,

appreciate, and then return favour vis-à-vis another person's actions towards oneself is a deeply embedded function and goal of Japanese individuals' interactions. As such, it is not surprising that the Japanese learners in this study noticed and appreciated their partners' efforts to facilitate communication. Annie [1.4], also remarks on her partners' help with the rhetoric focused on the 'for us' marking this out as a clear appreciation of her partners' work to enable the conversation to continue smoothly:

> R: OK, and this is a similar question, but who was easiest to talk to?
> A: **Of course, the Nepalese girl. She spoke very positively for us.** *Maybe she tried to understand my English.*
> R: Yeah. She asked lots of questions

Seo [1.1], similarly, remarks on both the help he receives and the manner in which it is done:

> R: So you are smiling a lot during this bit.
> S: Yeah, cuz they are very helpful.
> R: Ah.
> S: They explain in detail and they go until we understood.

During the appraisal stage of their decision making, the learners noticed some kind of assistance and were grateful for it. In the action control phase, the learners then focused on this positive feeling and the related obligation to show appreciation for said assistance. The appropriate response to show appreciation is to correctly use the items for which help was received. Due to reciprocity, a failure to respond to their partners' assistance would not only indicate the Japanese participants' linguistic difficulties but may also signify a failure to fulfil their obligation to show appreciation of their partners' efforts. In such cases, strong negative feedback in the WTC—talk system may occur.

8.2.1.4. *Motivational orientations conclusion*

This section provides empirical evidence for the other-directedness motivational orientation proposed by Wen and Clément (2003). For the participants in this study, Task-orientation was

shown to supersede personal goals both in terms of language use and chosen topic content. No evidence of other motivational orientations superseding task-orientation were found, indicating that it is the predominant orientation. Furthermore, ample evidence of learners in this study not only striving to help group members but also showing reciprocal appreciation of their partners' communicative efforts provided evidence of an affiliative orientation. To juxtapose this, evidence of ego-focused orientations, such as showing off to develop positive feelings of self-worth or taking a turn with the specific goal of testing one's own ability, were extremely scarce. These findings point to other-directed orientation as a key regulator of motivation working to arouse or suppress communicative motivation. Arguably, this differs from Wen and Clément's (2003) original model as it does not indicate this orientation acting as a filter restricting communication when motivation is aroused; rather, it seems to act more as a motivational framework shaping which aspect of motivation is noticed and acted upon.

8.2.2. Societal context

Wen and Clément (2003) also proposed group cohesiveness (such as feelings of belonging to the group or sharing the same task-focus) and the teacher's role as important factors affecting Confucian-background students' willingness to communicate. Data concerning closeness of group membership, or cohesion, were not specifically elicited in this study. However, two other social factors did provide evidence of a culturally distinct version of WTC. These factors are (1) culturally derived group-participation rules and (2) reactions to changes in group membership.

8.2.2.1. Culturally appropriate turn-_sharing_ rules.

The conversational activities I recorded did not adhere to my expectations of turns being 'up for grabs' as described by Nunan (1987, p.137). A lack of native-English-style conversational turn-taking skills may partially contribute to this phenomenon; however, it is also apparent that the participants were following a set of turn-taking rules that ensured fair amounts of participation

for each learner. These rules meant that (1) a single student did not do too much of the work, and conversely, (2) each student had equal chances to participate. While appearing similar to the aforementioned task-orientation, these decisions are made with regards to fairness and equal participation rather than a focus on 'getting the job done'.

With regards to sharing the workload, in [3.1] the group had to decide who would present their work to the adjacent group. Natsumi did not want to volunteer for the next stage of the activity, but she still signaled a willingness to do so by playing 'rock, paper, scissors' with Kevin to choose who would be the presenter. She explains that she does this because "***I thought it wasn't polite to just ask him to go and do the next bit, so I said like 'should I go'?***" She further clarifies that she actually does not want to speak at all: "***I didn't feel like I wanted to speak. It's not 'I wanted***'. I have to. Because we have to decide who gonna be the speak. Who gonna speak so."

This phenomenon is also evidenced by multiple students fulfilling their turns even when they do not wish to or are not fully ready to do so. For example, despite trouble with a key item of vocabulary, Michael [4.2] is required to fulfil his turn-taking obligations:

R: It's the same question "proud of" how did you feel?
M: Come again. Ha ha but now I didn't understand proud of, so I'm confusing.
R: Ahh OK, but this time you ask?
M: Yes, so so last time proud of question is Harry's question, but now I have to yeah say this question so I ask.
R: So, you need to ask?
M: Yeah
R: I have to answer or I want to answer *I have to answer or I want to answer?*
M: ah I::: have to
R: OK

The obligation to fulfil one's turn is a motivating force, which compelled the learners to make contributions even when they were not fully prepared. In the appraisal stage, the learners had to evaluate their contribution to the task in terms of timing of input and content. If it was necessary to contribute, either positive WTC was aroused or the learner had to overcome negative WTC in the action control phase. In the task execution phase, regardless of positive or

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negative emotions, the learners had to develop appropriate content and language to express an idea appropriate to the topic-at-hand.

Conversely, respecting turn-taking orders also acted as a suppressor / regulator of motivation by reducing a participant's WTC and restricting further talk development once they had completed their turn. Tad [3.2] describes this phenomenon in relation to a sudden drop in his WTC rating from +5 to 0. He explains this was because "*I finished speaking.* So, my turn is done, and so next their times for talking I listening they're talking." The phenomenon of the WTC—talk system being regulated to match turn-sharing rules is also described by Michael [4.1], who declines to take a turn because it is not his allocated time. He explains that, even though his partner's turn is ending and a turn relevant juncture is approaching, the allocation of turns means his WTC is not aroused because "*it's one question for one person.*"

Turn-allocation may also restrict a learner's communication when their WTC is aroused. In [4.1], Harry's WTC is slightly aroused (+1) because "I know Interstellar, so I want to tell something for Michael or for K." He then explains the he cannot contribute as the question (and turn-allocation) is directed to Michael: "I want to, but K saw (looked at) the Michael, only Michael."

Tad [3.2] explains that the function of turn-sharing is to make sure everybody has time to practice:

> R: *… well why couldn't you say your opinion?*
> T: *So, in class, there is a limited amount of time, and everyone should be speaking, so if it is just me talking, then it is not good.*

During the appraisal phase, participants sometimes judged that another speakers' turn was more appropriate. In this case, there was no arousal of the WTC—talk system and the individual had to execute the proper behaviours of 'listening' to allow others to speak. On the other hand, sometimes a participant's WTC—talk system was aroused by a non-turn-taking relevant factor, such as strong topic interest or task-completion orientation, but it was not appropriate for them to take a turn. In such a case, the group turn-taking rules require the

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participant whose WTC was aroused to actively orient towards silence in deference to the floor holder. This phenomenon may equate to the 'filter'-like behaviours of *other-directedness* between WTC and realised talk, which Wen and Clément (2003) suggest impinges on the transformation of a desire to communicate into talk. However, it may also be seen as a positive stance towards appropriate listening behaviours. In the appraisal phase, the learner notices their increased desire to communicate. If this desire or motivation coincides with the realisation that it is currently someone else's turn, the learner might suppress their intentions to speak in the action control phase. Thus, the learner is motivated to be silent or to listen in the execution phase.

Finally, if a learner has the floor (task execution), they must evaluate their own contribution as they complete their turn: "Does everybody understand?", "Have I said enough?", "Is further explanation required?" If the individual judges that their turn was successfully completed, tension is lifted from the WTC—talk system in the action control phase. This means the WTC system is no longer aroused and the floor can be passed to the next speaker. In Chapter Five, it was noted that this was often done by redirecting the topic with a phrase such as "How about you?"

8.2.2.2. Culturally appropriate floor taking rules

Japan-based literature on Japanese conversational styles refers to the cultural phenomenon of '*enryo-sasshi*' (Miike, 2010). This equivalates to the idea of a listener employing restraint (non-interruption) and empathetic guess work (careful consideration of the speaker's intentions), which give both the speaker and listener time to reflect and understand their partner's ideas. In terms of cross-cultural studies, Tannen (1984) similarly identifies a difference in the speed of uptake of turn-taking opportunities. Western Native English speakers are considered to tend towards high-involvement styles that display fast-paced, over-lapping turn-taking patterns; which leave little opportunity for pauses or silence between turns. Conversely, Japanese

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speakers are considered to use a high-considerateness style, which is characterised by less overlap and the potential for longer turns to be taken.

Recognising the multicausal nature of the WTC—talk system, it must be acknowledged that problems with turn-taking result from a combination of factors, such as linguistic (grammar and vocabulary) difficulties, a strong focus on producing accurate utterances, as well as a lack of familiarity with quick turn-taking styles. However, in some cases, it is very clear that learning how to take turns is a central issue. Kobe [5.1] notices his own weakness with this turn-taking style when it stops him from asking a topic-relevant question: "I didn't know when (appropriate timing) I asked him. Japanese style and English style is different, so I didn't say I didn't ask him." When asked to clarify this issue, Kobe notes that "… Japanese style is is ah person is talking, then just listen and after that after he finished, so ask. But English style is when he's talking, some ah someone say someone ask him during he's talking."

In addition to the timing of uptake by interlocutors being an issue, the Japanese participants sometimes waited too long for their partners to complete turns, which reduced the Japanese students chances of speaking during activities. In [4.1], Harry's WTC—talk system is aroused at the appropriate turn-relevant juncture, but he does not ask his question. He explains that "*I was interested, so I wanted to ask a question, but she was still speaking, so I was going to wait until she finished.*" Unfortunately for Harry, Michael does not wait to ask his question, and Harry misses his opportunity to access the floor.

This behaviour is also clearly described by Hide, who is interested in China, in [6.4]. Initially, his WTC system is not aroused during another speaker's turn because he "Just listen" as "*It's his turn.*" Then, once his obligation to listen is complete and the floor is open, Hide's WTC—talk system becomes aroused. He explains that "**So***, like the topics had finished, so there was no topic, but he is Chinese, so I wanted to ask.*" Subsequently, he is able to ask his question.

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In these instances, the Japanese learners seemed to be struggling to adapt from their natural high-considerateness pattern of turn-taking to a quicker pattern of high-involvement floor taking behaviours. As shown in Chapter Seven, successful listening comprehension is a prerequisite for learners to be able to participate. A key factor is being able to notice opportunities to talk; however, the high-involvement—high considerateness dichotomy suggests that learners from different backgrounds may employ different listening strategies; the proposed differences are compared in Figure Twelve, below:

	Execution	Appraisal	Action Control
High-Considerateness	Listen for content	Notice interlocutor's turn completion	WTC is aroused Talk is prepared
High-involvement	Listen for opportunties to be involved (WTC aroused)	Notice junctures for intervention	Employ strategies for floor taking
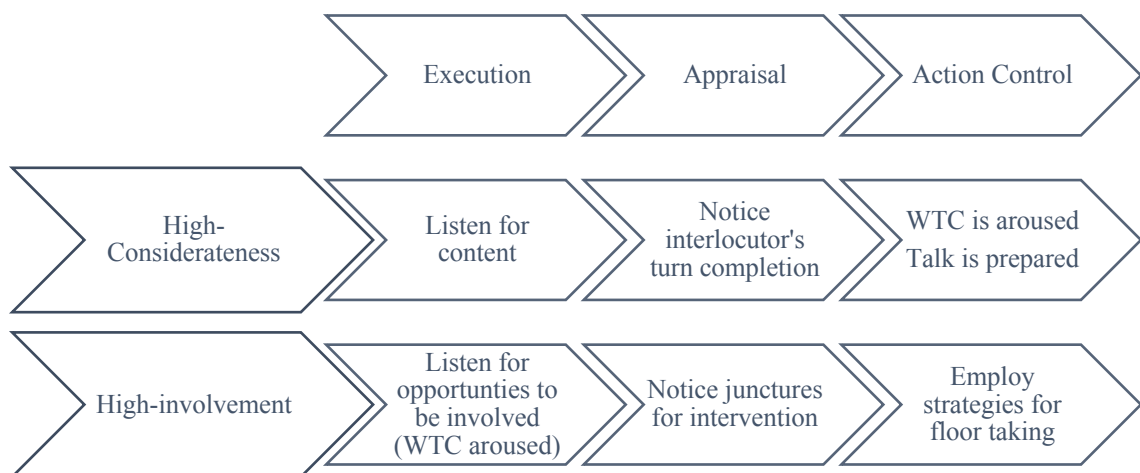
Figure 12. High-considerateness vs. high-involvement listening processes

Figure Twelve proposes that a high-considerateness speaker is wholly concentrated on listening to their partner. Once a high-considerateness individual notices that the current speaker's turn has finished, the high-considerateness individual's WTC talk—system becomes aroused and talk is prepared. Conversely, the high-involvement interlocutor listens with a focus on finding opportunities to join the conversation rather than listening for full comprehension. In the appraisal stage, the high-involvement listener is working on developing their own ideas as well as searching for an opportunity to join in.

As indicated in '*listening issues*' [7.4.2.], the Japanese students in this study may be using a different listening paradigm from the one that teachers focused on Western, native

English-speaking styles are expecting. These learners may be more focused on receptive listening to learn about others, while people using more involved listening styles may be focused on seeking points of connection that allow themselves to take the floor.

8.2.2.3. Culturally appropriate length of turn rules

In addition to rules about when to take the floor, the Japanese participants seemed to hold different expectations about how much information to divulge when they were holding the floor compared to their English-basis partners. This refers not just to the amount of words but also to the level of intimacy, or self-disclosure. In this case, Japan-based literature on Japanese conversational style refers to the cultural phenomenon of *kensou* or *kenkyou* (Doi, 1986; Naotsuka, 1996), which is translated as 'modesty'. In terms of floor time, too much self-disclosure could be seen to be dominating or selfish, partially, as it does not allow other speakers time and space to join in the conversation. Additionally, Bao (2014) notes that for a long time in Japan, disclosing personal information has been seen as unnecessary and, in fact, leaves the person sharing their own personal information open to criticisms and exploitation.

In cross-cultural studies, various cultures are considered to have similar attitudes. In their work on speaking styles, Gudykunst and Ting-Toomey (1988) identify cultural differences in accepted quantity of talk. Elaborate cultures, such as many Arabic ones, widely use metaphors, similes, and idioms to assert the speaker's intentions; consequently, elaborate speakers generally produce a high number of words. In comparison, exacting communicators, such as North Americans, Northern-Europeans, and British-English speakers, may use a measured formulation that requires fewer words and little reiteration of intention. Finally, succinct cultures, such as East-Asian and indigenous American Indian cultures, are likely to make use of silence or minimalistic statements to convey intentions.

While participants themselves did not directly express appreciation of elaborate speaking, some learners did remark upon the differing quality of the English-basis students' talk.

Seo noted the open and friendly demeanor of his international partners in [1.1] and [2.1A]. In the latter conversation, his international partner tells a long story about watching a scary horror film, struggling to sleep, and requiring her younger brother to help her go to the bathroom in the middle of the night. While I expected Seo to be frustrated by a lack of opportunity to speak, he describes the opposite reaction: "it's fun" and "it's interesting. For me, Japanese I don't people being like like this kind of talking." I was unable to clearly elicit exactly what differences in talk Seo perceived between Japanese and international students, but he also remarked on the demonstrativeness of the accompanying body language in the story: "the moving like showing hand it was fun. I enjoyed it, like."

Similarly, Harry [4.1] is impressed by the levels of effort his international partner goes to in order to share a personal story:

> H: *At this time, if this was a Japanese person, they would just talk, explaining everything with just words, but he actually tries to show us the coin. When he did this, I thought that all my other foreign friends, or international friends do this kind of thing, showing photos or things, showing how it really is, which makes us really interested (in what they are saying).*
> …
> R: *Oh, Japanese people wouldn't show it?*
> H: *They would just say it, like: "ah before, I just picked up this unique ten-yen coin."*

While the English-basis students open stance towards sharing information was clearly appreciated, their preference for the Japanese learners to also produce more talk sometimes caused confusion and difficulty. In [4.1], Harry is asked about what makes him proud; upon answering, both his international partners (one Korean, one Bangladeshi) prompt him to say more, which he finds confusing:

> R: Then he is like "say some more, say some more".
> H: He asks so many things, *so my score goes up and down. So, I said what I wanted to say, but he still wants me to say more, but I'm wondering what to say. I don't have anything else to say.*
> R: *So, never mind that he is not satisfied, but for you is it a problem that you can't say more, or a problem that he wants to hear more?*
> H: *He wants to hear more.*

In his next activity [4.2], the difference between Harry's succinct speaking style and his Bangladeshi partner's elaborate style is epitomised by the following comparison. When asked the question "Where would you like to live in the future?", Harry offers the following succinct response:

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504   H      where would you like to live in the uh iceland
505   IM     iceland?
506   H      iceland
507   M      hu uu uu
508   IM     it's really cold
509   BF     iceland
510   M      hu hu hu [ hu hu
511   H              [so when i was first grade in the AAA so i went to iceland alone [for
512          volunteering [iceland is so very nice country
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H = Harry; IM = Indonesian Male; BF = Bangladeshi Female; M = Michael (Japanese)

For the same question, the Bangladeshi partner's response, which is characterised as elaborate and contextualised, is five times the length (120 words) and gives further details concerning: specific dates, reasons for her choosing the location, further details on the location, details on her accommodation, activities she did in that place, and her impressions of the experience.

Harry's impression of his partner's elaborateness in a later question is not favourable: "*Up until around about now, I had been listening carefully to everything that T-san said. But, when she started talking about the management school, I wasn't so interested.*" He further notes that this was not the only time he had this negative impression: "*So, before, T-san spoke for a long time and didn't stop, it's like that. I thought she was going to stop, but she kept on going on about Tokyo, and I got bored.*" He also expresses a desire for a change in speaker / topic: "*the next person (would be good), half way through (T-san's talk) was OK, but then I started getting bored*"; however, he listens politely all the way until the end of his partner's turn.

The cultural schema of 'modesty' or succinct speaking in interpersonal exchanges returns two apparently opposing evaluations amongst the Japanese students participating in this

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study when they encountered English-basis students. The Japanese participants report an appreciation of open and forthright self-disclosure in some circumstances, but they also report limited tolerance for longer, elaborate, and contextualised turns. Such aversion would be somewhat dependent on the specific topic being discussed; however, it is noticeable that, in the cases reported by Harry [ibid], he initially reported enjoying the input of his partners before becoming intolerant of the same topic as time passed.

Furthermore, being accustomed to a succinct and modest style of speaking influenced the Japanese learners' decision-making vis-à-vis the question of how much information to impart. The Japanese participants, as succinct speakers, seemed to evaluate a short turn with limited or no extension as sufficient (appraisal phase of the MTPS). Once they imparted a limited amount of information, they tended to 'de-select' themselves by offering the floor to another speaker. This is a phenomenon that Campbell-Larson (2019a) describes as being common in Japanese classrooms. These limited turns are considered to be a frequently occurring problem in Japanese classrooms (Richmond & Vannieu, 2019); thus, rather than learners practicing to speak in competitive 'floor taking' environments in which 'who says what to whom is up for grabs' (Nunan, 1987, p.137), the learners in this study were reliant on the explicit turn-sharing maneuvers of other speakers for opportunities to practice.

With specific reference to Sacks et al.'s (1974) seminal work on turn-taking rules in conversations, certain caveats for situational appropriacy based on other-directedness can be made. Sacks et al.'s (1974, p. 700—701) Rule Five states that turn order is not fixed; however, in the video data collected, a certain amount of predetermined turn allocation occurs to ensure all learners have roughly equal opportunity to speak. Second, Sacks et al.'s (1974, p. 700—701) Rule Six states that turn size is also not fixed; however, the Japanese learners in this study did self-regulate turn size / length in order to accommodate other speakers. Third, Sacks et al.'s (1974 p. 700—701) Rule Nine states that relative distribution of turns is not specified; in the observed classes, however, as speakers who have not currently spoken were allocated turns to

promote an even distribution of talk time, the potential for all speakers to contribute the next turn reduced as a conversations progressed. Finally, Sacks et al.'s (1974 p. 700—701) Rule Twelve identifies the passing of turns through either turn-taking by a non-active speaker or turn-allocation by the current speaker directing a question to another interlocutor. With the exception of Terry [1.4, 5.1, 5.2, 5.3] the Japanese participants were heavily dependent on turn allocation as manifested by the wide spread use of the 'floor-sharing' and other facilitating behaviours described in Chapter Five.

In short, other-directedness seems to result in 'non-conventional' English talk characterised by extensive use of turn-sharing not turn-taking and by the important role of 'leaders' or 'pivots' in allocating turns. The serious implication of this is that the learners in this study may be practicing formulating linguistically accurate utterances but not actually be learning to communicate.

8.2.2.4. Changes in societal context

Japan is a highly stratified society with status dependent on the relative age and gender of interlocutors (Davies & Ikeno, 2002; Tsujimura, 2007). These differences are embodied in the Japanese language. For example, Japanese employs a wide range of gender specific pronouns for self-, and interlocutor-, reference. Pharr (1976) also notes that women are expected to show deference to all men through the use of polite language, honorific forms, and bowing.

This gender divide is not just evident in deference and more common use of polite language but also in grammar and syntax. The final morpheme of a Japanese sentence carries the essential comment about the topic, and Tsujimura (2007) identifies this as an area of language where gender is displayed; for instance, while a Japanese woman uses final particles such as "kasira", "wa", "no" to affirm her femininity, a Japanese man employs sentence final particles such as "zo", "ze", "sa" to affirm his masculinity.

Social differences such as these are not as explicitly conveyed in English grammar and, thus, may not be conveyed in Japanese learners' English language practices. However, Wen and Clément (2003) identified the role of the teacher and the teacher's specifically elevated hierarchical position as keys to inducing positive affect and development of WTC. Therefore, a key question is, "Did students notice and adjust their behaviours to shifting social contexts as group compositions changed?"

Data from the interviews revealed that students were affected by social differences. The first of these differences was age. In [1.3], Annie refers to the fact that she equates language ability with age: "I think their Japanese is very clear and very high level, so I think 'they are senior'?!" She then notes that perceived age differences impact her emotional stability: "If he is senior, my feeling is a little nervous. But we are same grade, so (it's not a problem)." In a later conversation [2.2A] the same issue arises, and Annie knows already that her partner is older, which makes her nervous when talking to him. She further also indicates that her behaviors may need to be adapted to accommodate the older partner: "Interesting, but like umm, like I cannot be like positive because um for I think about during talking with him I'm always thinking like 'oh for adults'."

For Annie [2.2B], this distinction with age also relates to her perceptions of the interlocutor as a culturally similar Asian person; thus, rules of hierarchical concession also apply: "I'm very nervous for him because he is older than me, and Korean communication style is we have to like umm look up (defer to and show respect).

Gender differences also seem to affect the students' participation. Michelle [1.1] notes that it is easier for her to talk to girls:

> R: *Then, who was the easiest to talk to, who could you communicate well with?*
> N: *As for (speaking) easily, probably this girl was the easiest for me to talk to.*
> R: *Do you have a reason (why)? Could you explain?*
> N: *So, it was like a girl-to-girl conversation, and she had empathy (for me).*
> R: *Ah, it is easier for you to talk to girls (than boys)?*
> N: *Yeah, Yes. So, as a result of this, I talked to her primarily.*

A mirror of this situation was implied by Kobe [5.2] as he struggles to talk with his female partner but is able to talk with his male partner; he suggests this is because "Ah maybe he's a man and I'm a man."

While Kobe [ibid] implies he has problems talking to the opposite sex, Chi-Chi [3.2] is very emphatic about her troubles talking to the opposite sex. She notes that she is not used to talking to the opposite sex: "I'm not used to be like by surrounding surrounding by many boys." As noted at the beginning of this chapter, familiarity and experience may enable smoother functioning of the processes in the MTPS, so this grouping with many boys could put her at a cognitive disadvantage. Moreover, talking to members of the opposite sex has a negative affective impact on her WTC—talk system: "I have been nervous until finishing the class but I I tried tried to talk more English with other boys."

In addition to gender differences, the presence of the teacher causes issues for Michelle [1.2]. When asked why she cannot ask the teacher for help, she points out that "***There is like a gap between the teacher and me, a gap. It's big.***" Negative feelings are also reported by Kiki [6.2] when the teacher approaches: "***It's a bit scary.***" As noted in Ducker (forthcoming), the physical proximity of a teacher can be used as a positive pedagogical tool as it can focus learners' attention on the task-at-hand. This is also noted by Kiki [ibid] as the teacher approaches: "***Like, I have to speak, a bit. He doesn't actually say it… but…***".

An important finding in this study, which probably relates to the overall status of English in Japan, is that the very presence of the English-basis students aroused feelings of inferiority amongst many of the Japanese participants. Partially, this inferiority complex may stem from a comparison of English abilities. Natsumi [1.1] indicates this affects her appraisal and task execution processes: "***How can I say? Disa... I couldn't really do it, I couldn't speak English so much, so I think I thought I should speak more. Mmm, I was thinking that I should use my English, but I was thinking they are better at English than us so I didn't really have confidence (to speak English much).***"

An inferiority complex concerning English seems to afflict the wider Japanese population. This is described as '*Eigo-shinkou*', or English-worship, by Aspinall (2006) and Aspinal and Cullen (2002), and it may contribute to the general malaise, reported in the beginning of this thesis, that many Japanese people have regarding the English language.

This inferiority complex may also extend to other attributes of the international students. Annie [1.3] stated that English-basis students have better 'time management' skills in their classwork and in their daily life, while Michelle [1.2] compared the English-basis students' mastery of Japanese (as a third or fourth language) to her own failures in English:

> R: … Before the class how did you feel? Before the class?
> M: *I didn't really want to do it.*
> R: Ah really? Before the class?
> M*: So, they are supposed to be studying Japanese and practicing Japanese, and we are supposed to practicing English; but these guys, the international students, are really great at Japanese but we can barely speak English, so it is kind of depressing.*

Japanese participants were clearly impacted by changes in the social context. In addition to an apparent inferiority complex and reactions to differences in age and gender, I previously reported, in section [5.3.1.], that the presence of English-basis students raises the Japanese learners' anxiety levels. Conversely, coinciding with excitement at joining exchange classes, the same students also reported (as discussed in section [7.3.2.]) multiple expected benefits of talking with the international students. I will now explain two important ways in which changes in context impacted the MTPS.

First, elevated stress levels induced by 'difficult' social situations could lead to a breakdown in a functioning of the Task Processing System. This is described by Kobe [5.1]:

> Ko: So, at the beginning I didn't I didn't any feeling nothing, but during this conversation I fell uh I have pressure ah I'm so so now I can say something like ah again grammar but uh this conversation maybe I have pressure, so I didn't say.

The stress and pressure induced by participation can lead to an inability to actually do anything, as Natsumi [1.1] points out: "***this is the exchange class so I was unsure about what to do, so I froze.***"

Second, a lack of a familiarity with their English-basis partners and the fact that many of these new people have better levels of English further raised many of the Japanese learners' anxiety levels. This phenomenon is somewhat predictable as MacIntyre et al. (1998) point out that using an L2 causes a lot more uncertainty than L1 communication. This uncertainty will lead to negative effects on the various antecedents of WTC, such as reduced communicative confidence and increased anxiety.

What was less predictable was that even apparently small differences in group composition, such as an older interlocutor or a switch from male to female partners, could also have a strong effect on an individual's anxiety levels. In the MTPS appraisal stage, both a lack of familiarity with the situation and related stress may led to slower decision making and more negative self-evaluations. In turn, in the action control phase, coping strategies may need to be employed with greater frequency, intensity, and urgency leading to tiredness. Finally, in the task execution phase, the effects of anxiety and stress may affect linguistic control leading to poor execution of task-oriented behaviours. This situation may lead to a vicious circle of negative self-evaluation, greater anxiety, and impaired cognitive functioning.

In addition to negatively impacting the smooth functioning of the MTPS, the perception of the international students as being in some way superior sometimes led to changed appraisals of the situation and subsequently changed behaviours. In [4.1], Michael, Harry, and their Female Korean partner did not agree with the turn-taking order proposed by their Bangladeshi male partner. Michael quickly concedes his disagreement over this issue and explains that "he is a native speaker and he and my teacher speak in English so he understand more than me, so I think he is the correct." Concerning the same event, Harry stated, "***I wasn't brave enough. We have been proceeding with him as the group leader, so I wasn't brave enough.***"

These comments and Annie's comments about "not being positive" with age-senior students indicate that when the identity of the interlocutor changed, the mental schema that the Japanese students used for making appraisals is adjusted. Consequently, the Japanese learners deferred to the English-basis students and / or suppressed some of their own intentions. In terms of appraisal, a schema of senior > junior was applied in which the 'senior' individual's intentions were considered to have priority. As such, in the action control phase, the 'junior' individual may somewhat restrict or suppress their own personal intentions; this is executed as deference to the intentions, or presence, of the 'senior'.

Finally, in some situations, changing the identity of the interlocutors led to ambiguity. This seems to be the case when Chi-Chi [3.2] and Kobe [5.2] indicate some difficulty in communicating with the opposite sex. Ambiguity is reflected in difficulties in appraisal of what is 'appropriate'. Consequently, during the action control phase, selecting appropriate conversational strategies becomes difficult due to lack of familiarity with the context. Once task execution (i.e., disclosing appropriate content) becomes difficult, the risk of negative feedback impacting the smooth processing in the MTPS increases.

Anxiety, inferiority complex, and ambiguity may exist concurrently. In many cases, the Japanese students in this study were communicating as hierarchical inferiors due to their inferiority complex vis-à-vis the international students; they were anxious about communication in English; and they were communicating with people from cultures they had not encountered before, and they were doing so with mixed ages and gendered situations that may have led to ambiguity about what kind of conversational roles to fulfil and which strategies to use. Many Japanese-basis students expressed high levels of stress and struggled to cope in conversations without the facilitating efforts of their English-basis partners. The implications for out-of-class intercultural and / or L2 encounters are quite serious as, in such situations, the Japanese students may encounter the same difficulties without the safety net of the classroom or teacher to fall back on.

Changes in societal context strongly affected the Japanese participants' WTC—talk system. First, the learners have a mental schema of appropriate conversational behaviours in different situations; for example, it is more polite to speak quietly in the classroom but acceptable to speak loudly in the cafeteria. The learner's MTPS is regulated by the rules provided by such mental schema, and each learner was motivated to complete turns in ways that are appropriate to the schema they are familiar with.

In the context of this study, the Japanese learners used an 'other-directed' schema, which promotes actions that are centered on a set of group-orientated conversational rules. These rules ensure a fair, or even, amount of talk time for all members of each group. participants concurrently evaluated if they were doing enough but also if they were not 'stealing' too much of the floor time from other learners. This focus on equal participation leads to students employing various conversational strategies that may seem to be inappropriate or 'deviant' when viewed through the Western cultural paradigm of competitive floor taking in conversations. Commonly noted behaviours in this study were: allocation of turns rather than 'competitive turn-taking'; responding when one did not wish to; limited elaboration of ideas; low tolerance of extended, elaborate speech; and difficulties in the timing of adding ideas when other speakers have the floor. There seems to be much need, and scope, for addressing these issues in CLT classes.

Additionally, it was also shown that the learners revised their mental schema when the identity of their interlocutors changed. Many students struggled to cope with unfamiliar interlocutors, and it was noticeable that, as described in Chapter Five, the only two Japanese learners who were not wholly dominated or controlled by their international partners were the two with the most international experiences: Annie (through her international travels) and Terry (as a dormitory assistant).

8.2.3. Factors associated with an individual's personality

In Japanese there is a proverb, "The nail that sticks out gets hammered down." This proverb is used to indicate that behaviours which deviate from group standards will not be tolerated. This negative stance towards being different from one's peers is a strong component of a Japanese group-focused orientation called '*shudan ishiki*', or group-awareness (Davies & Ikeno, 2002). This group-awareness orientates individuals away from behaviours that can risk an individual as being seen to stick out, or deviate, from the mainstream.

Adhering strictly to mainstream, normalised behaviours also means that Japanese people tend to also exhibit an aversion to new or unusual social situations. In terms of cross-cultural studies, this is known as 'uncertainty avoidance' (Hofstede et al., 2010). Hofstede (n.d; para 9.) explains that "Japan is one of the most uncertainty avoiding countries on earth" and that "in Japan anything you do is prescribed for maximum predictability." Such desire for predictability may be counterproductive to language learning as good language learners are risk-takers (Rubin, 1975) and are "willing to guess, appear foolish, and willing to try out new structures about which they are unsure" (Wen & Clément, 2003, p. 29). In the conversations recorded, various face-saving tactics were employed by students in order to not have to guess what to do, or appear foolish. Similarly, many learners displayed an aversion to uncertainty or potential difficult interactions. In section [8.2.3.1.] 'Risk avoidance', I will describe learners' risk avoiding, face saving tactics; and in section [8.2.3.2.] 'Tolerance of ambiguity', I will give examples of students' negative stances towards uncertain situations in the activities they took part in.

8.2.3.1. Risk avoidance

Participants were observed taking decisions that minimised their risk exposure. For example, in [2.3B], Tad decides to avoid beginning the teacher's prepared activity:

> R: ***What does it mean?*** "Do you want to start speaking?" "No thank you!"
> T: So, this is introduction time so so so "**Let's begin?" "No! Ha ha ha"**

R: So, we are not gonna start the activity, we are gonna do introductions?
T: yeah … no pfuh hu hu wa ha so I don't start so activity because so English is difficult for me.
R: How should we say that (in English)?
T: *I was escaping?*
R: *So, you feel like once you start it's going to be difficult, so you'd prefer to stay as you are (put it off).*
T: *Yeah* ha ha ha

Given the Japanese participants' strong task-orientation, it seems somewhat anomalous that Tad should avoid completing the task; however, at this stage of the conversation, the teacher had only distributed handouts but not clearly stated "let's begin" or "start talking", which may explain why Tad felt free to reject the activity.

Later, once the activity has begun, Tad [ibid] describes a second way he avoids taking risk in conversations by allowing his partners to model answers before he tries to respond: "*So here, there was a word I didn't know, … So, I let the other two answer first, so that I could guess what I should do, so I was just seeing what they said first.*" This is a common tactic which Harry [4.2], amongst others, also relies on in his conversations:

H: *So, the teacher told us that everybody will respond to the same question, so we won't have a single question for just one person. So, if at first you don't understand a question, then someone else will give us an answer, which can be an example, and then we can understand (what to do).*

It is noticeable that avoiding risk doesn't lead to an absence of action but leads to an alternative action; such as speaking second instead of first, or delaying the activity and talking about something else. Thus, risk-avoiding behaviours do not lead to a lack of communication, just a selection of different communications.

Task-completion and turn-completion orientation potentially mean that the learners in this study consider deflection to be more appropriate than rejecting communication or admitting they cannot fulfil their turn. In the appraisal stage of MTPS, learners anticipating difficulty in completing their turn must find a way to avoid disrupting the group's task completion (action

control). Offering a chance to speak to another participant (execution) seems to be a common tactic to achieve this in the exchange classes.

These risk avoidant strategies should also be considered to carry a face-protecting orientation and may be closely related to the phenomena, reported in Chapter Five, whereby Japanese learners often avoided directly asking for help. For example, learners often refrained from requesting translations or teacher help when they encountered listening difficulties; instead, Japanese learners opted to use face-saving strategies, such as pretending to understand or muddling through the problem.

8.2.3.2. Tolerance of ambiguity

Tolerance of ambiguity is characterised by one's reactions to novel situations. If a novel situation arouses excitement and anticipation of opportunity, one is said to have high-tolerance of ambiguity. Conversely, low-tolerance of ambiguity is characterised by anxiety and expectation of difficulty when encountering novel situations (Hofstede et al., 2010). As noted in section [8.2.2.4.], the exchange classes exposed the Japanese students to novel situations that many found unfamiliar and intimidating. One aspect of this unfamiliarity is the kind of activity the teacher would ask the students to do; some students worried that these activities would cause topical and/or linguistic difficulties. In [6.2], Taka describes how the teacher's instructions to "have a free conversation" contribute to his intolerance of ambiguity as he wonders if he will be able to come up with topics to discuss:

> T: ha ha ha ha ha. Ah he said the he don't have the topic in English so oh so that I thought what should we ask and what should we say so yeah, like that.
> R: So, is this a nervous thing or an exciting thing, or nothing?
> T: Not nervous, but worried about what we should ask or…
> R: ***Please explain what you mean by worried.***
> T: Ahh so at that time, I'm thinking about what we should ah um say.
> R: Ah, OK.

This intolerance of ambiguity also manifests itself when more structured activities are provided, as Harry [4.1] describes: "***I was wondering what the questions would be, I was nervous about that.***"

Other students were worried about the personality of, and their relationships with, the English-basis students. As Michelle [2.1A] points out, familiarity with some English-basis students promoted feelings of stability: "***…naturally if I have met them before, I feel more secure.***" Security, as Kang (2005) points out, should lead to increased feelings of WTC. Therefore, it is important to note that some students preferred to remain in one group for longer durations as it enabled them to overcome their intolerance of ambiguity. For example, in [6.1] Aki expresses her frustration when she was asked to rotate groups and begin a new conversation. When asked about this, she states that she feels secure in the groups in which she has already established a relationship because "their personality is good", and she also explains that she is nervous about meeting new groups because "I don't know about after person."

While not necessarily intolerant of ambiguity herself, Annie [1.3] describes how the less-well-known nationality of her partner (Uzbek) leads to some confusion. On the other hand, familiarity with the other international partner (Nepalese) enables her to develop an interesting conversation:

> A: Fun person? Fun person? Ah her. Maybe, ***we can talk about similar experiences same sentence (experience) which is good***. I have a knowledge of Nepal and I can talk about Nepal for a long time. And I can understand her personality, her personality like I know Nepalese personality but and before this class ah I exchanged with her, so it is very natural and easy to communicate with her. But I don't know his personality and he is from Uzbekistan but I have not much Uzbekistan friends, so I can't understand his personality.

Intolerance of ambiguity is not the only cause of anxiety and nervousness within the population of participating subjects; however, it is an important factor, and it is noteworthy that eleven participants reported feeling nervous before meeting with international students.

The Wen and Clément (2003) model of WTC indicates that Confucian background students are likely to be averse to risk and have low tolerance of ambiguity. The data, while not proof of a greater tendency to avoid risky situations and be more intolerant of ambiguous situations than other learners, does indicate that this personality factor plays a role in the Japanese participants' communicative decision-making processes. However, saving face and avoiding risk do not seem to preclude communication, so they cannot be assumed to act as a filter on the development of WTC and talk. Instead, they seem to act as motivational forces that push learners to select less risky communicative behaviours that do not expose them to conversational difficulties. Noticeably, non-communication was not one of the chosen strategies.

Intolerance of ambiguity seems to have a different function in the WTC—talk system. The Japanese learners' anxiety seemed to be easily aroused when they encountered new learning tasks and new interlocutors. As noted previously, negative emotions, such as anxiety, interfere with the smooth functioning of the three cognitive processes that make up the TMPS. Therefore, the impact of this intolerance of ambiguity should not be underestimated

8.2.4. Affective perceptions

The factor 'affective perceptions' is somewhat a misnomer as affective reactions to conversational situations, such as feelings of affiliation, embarrassment, and anxiety, are commonly evoked situational factors in WTC studies. Rather, this construct relates to the affective-cognitive layer [layer V] of MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) heuristic model. In this layer, individuals' affective and cognitive *reactions* to (a) other groups, (b) the immediate social situation, and (c) their own competence are considered to impact WTC. In the Wen and Clément (2003) model, individuals' perceptions of (c) their own communicative competence are considered to play an important role in Confucian background learners' filter on communication. The two factors under discussion are (1) expectation of evaluation and (2) an inhibited monitor. In both cases, I will argue that these factors lead to learner inaction and a

failure to contribute to the group's shared goals. As such, they should be differentiated from other-directed action, such as careful listening or ceding the floor to another interlocutor, which do contribute to overall task-completion.

8.2.4.1. Expectation of Evaluation

Various sources of literature indicate that Japanese students may be extremely susceptible to fears of evaluation from others. King (2013a & b) makes the argument that this fear of being watched or evaluated is not limited to the classroom but is present in all facets of Japanese daily life. McVeigh (2002) also argues that this fear of being watched is responsible for Japanese students' silence and preference for the anonymity afforded by large, teacher-fronted classes. One of the students in this study, Kiki [6.1], makes the point that this evaluating behaviour is a Japanese trait; an absence of which, amongst international students, may actually make it attractive (paradoxically) for some Japanese students to socialise with non-Japanese students:

> R: *So, without thinking too deeply, if you meet an international student in the cafeteria, and if you meet a Japanese student in the cafeteria, how do you feel, what words describe it?*
> K: *Meeting an international student is more relaxed for me. Recently, if I meet a Japanese student, I feel more anxious.*
> R: *Really?*
> K: *Foreign, international students don't really judge you over small things, but if there are Japanese people, they judge you more.*
> R: *So, you have to worry about what that person is thinking?*
> K: *Yes, yes, yes*
> R: *Really?*
> K: *Yeah, I really noticed it a lot recently.*

Under such circumstances, it is not surprising that the Japanese students in this study were averse to admitting difficulties in completing their turns in exchange class conversations. Various non-verbal strategies were used by the participants to avoid showing their difficulties. In [4.1], Michael uses verbal backchanneling and continued nodding to do so. He explains his

reasons for this: "***I'm hiding it, really, I don't understand but like the Japanese word is 'get away with it'.***"

These behaviours have a greater meaning than just hiding embarrassment. Rather, such signaling is a group-focused action that allows the individual to avoid spoiling the group activity. As noted in Chapter Seven, not only are learners motivated to improve their relationships with the other group members [7.3.3.3.] but they also need to perceive some value for their partners in their own actions [7.6.2.]. In the description below, Kiki [6.1] describes her efforts to keep her motivation and avoid embarrassment while, at the same time, allowing the group to continue discussing:

> K: ***Like, I'm laughing, but it's like "oh no, it's impossible" so I'm laughing. I was so gutted – I can't join in, I can't join in, I want to join in, quickly! I want to join in, I want to talk.***
> R: ***oh***
> K: ***I can't do anything, but laugh.***
> R: ***At this stage, your score was one.***
> K: ***Oh, one***
> R: ***Yeah***
> K: ***That was a "I want to speak" one, but I couldn't speak, all I could do was laugh. I was thinking, just laugh.***
> …
> K: ***I'm smiling to hide it. Like, if I do this face (miserable) the atmosphere will become bad, so I'm using this face (happy) to avoid that situation, to avoid it.***

In order to access affordances for L2 development, students encountering difficulty should preferably ask for some help with their comprehension, so that they can contribute to the activity; in this study, however, they often did not. If, in the appraisal phase, the participants realised they could not contribute; they strove to avoid personal embarrassment and avoid upsetting the group (action control). Consequently, they executed an action, such as laughing, nodding, smiling, or verbally agreeing (*yes, yes, I see, I see*), while their partners were talking.

In this study, the expectation of negative evaluation can be said to act as a 'demotivator' for communication or a filter on WTC. This is because learners are electing to mask their difficulties and maintain the status quo by not communicating their difficulties. Admittedly, they are giving some form of communication; however, they are communicating a falsehood as

an alternative to disrupting the flow of an activity to ask for help. This, in turn, may restrict their potential to later join the conversation in a meaningful way.

8.2.4.2. Inhibited Monitor (or fear of making linguistic mistakes)

A second demotivator of participation, or filter on WTC, potentially stems from the focus in Japanese education on 'one right answer' (Richmond & Vannieu, 2019; Taguchi & Naganuma, 2006). Wen and Clément (2003) argue that, in situations where formal learning (such as in Japan) is emphasized, students will be overly focused on producing 'grammatically perfect' utterances; or, in the parlance of Krashen (1982), they may be monitor over-users. Such a claim is supported by the findings of Cutrone (2009), Doyon (2000), and Ohata (2005), who all note that fear of making (linguistic) mistakes impacted their learners' participation. Conversely, Lockley & Farrell (2011) and Yoshida (2010) both confirmed the fear of *grammar* mistakes as a factor but downplayed its importance in their learners' language practice.

In the data I collected, students frequently described the process of putting together utterances and the problems that linguistic issues caused in their participation. This is described in [2.1A] by Michelle, who explains the reason she is having trouble asking the teacher for help is "Like grammar!! Maybe what I want to say gets all messed up. Just words come out of my mouth, but it's difficult to make sense of them. So, I really want to speak, but I'm thinking how to organise (grammatically) what I want to say and then I just can't speak." In relation to the construct of other-directedness in WTC, it is not the *fact* of making mistakes, rather, it is the *fear* of mistakes that is relevant. While participants frequently described difficulties with constructing linguistically correct utterances, they rarely isolated or identified the fear factor. In [5.1], however, Kota does describe his fear of mistakes: "I I'm so nervous is I'm worried about my English is correct or so the is can understand my English."

In another instance, Aki [6.1] remarks that anticipated difficulties in explaining her hometown cause a steep reduction in her WTC because "I have to explain the my hometown

and it it has has have to detail so I have to use much English." For Aki [ibid], when her international partner claimed (mistakenly) to have been to Aki's hometown, rather than seeing this as a potential opportunity to take the floor and contribute to the conversion, Aki was able to use this as a reason to avoid discussing her hometown.

Fear of making mistakes can be said to be a demotivator or filter on WTC in this study. If a learner appraises the situation and anticipates linguistic difficulties, they may elect to accept decreasing WTC and chose not to refocus or re-motivate themselves in the action control phase. This may either lead to a failure to contribute in the task execution phase or lead to a turn of limited length that ends quickly. In either case, fear of mistakes did sometimes limit talk and restrict access to affordances for L2 development in the exchange classes.

Fear of making mistakes may be one contributing antecedent of 'expected evaluation' or an independent factor, but this cannot be confirmed at this time. Similarly, it cannot be ignored that the Japanese students' 'fear of making mistakes' may be related to competitiveness with their peers or influenced by their inferiority complex vis-à-vis the international students.

Until now, I have posited that the other-directed factors described in Chapter Eight all influence motivational decision-making with each factor contributing to an individual choosing between various alternative communicative behaviours. That is to say, these factors promote a particular situationally-appropriate behaviour. Conversely, fear of negative evaluations and fear of making linguistic mistakes led to students declining to contribute rather than risking a poorly formed utterance or social faux pas. Learners elected for 'non-communication' through silence or a 'communicative falsehood'; the latter was often realised by laughing, nodding, smiling, or verbally agreeing. Thus, these two factors 'filter out' some of the learners' desire to communicate before it becomes talk. In terms of the WTC—talk realisation model presented in Chapter Seven, this filter is compatible with layer VII 'perceiving interlocutor value', which is presented in section [7.6.2.].

Moreover, it can be said that fear of making mistakes and fear of evaluation contributed to the learners' anxiety. Anxiety has two negative WTC—talk effects. First, it may depress the WTC—talk system as learners strive to avoid anxiety arousing situations. Second, it may cause problems with the smooth functioning of the three processes in the MTPS, leading to language production difficulties and further restricted participation. In this way, expectation of evaluation and an inhibited grammar monitor may also affect the WTC—talk system and MTPS at the motivational 'desire to communicate' level as well as acting as a communicative filter.

8.3. Other-directedness and the WTC model

I examined Wen and Clément's (2003) supposition that other-directed behaviours would act as a communicative filter, impinging on WTC and restraining learners' participation in the exchange classes. Using Dörnyei and Tseng's (2009) Motivational Task Processing System paradigm to evaluate learners' WTC—talk system allowed me to analyse three aspects of the participants' decision making, namely: (1) the situation the learners perceived, (2) their emotional and cognitive reactions to the situation, and (3) actions that learners undertook in response to (1) and (2).

With the exception of 'affective perceptions', factors in the other-directedness model did not seem to act as a filter that restricted the Japanese learner's communicative behaviours with the English-basis students. Rather, other-directedness seems to be part of a cultural framework that provided guidelines to the learners on appropriate behaviours for interpersonal interactions. Thus, learners were stimulated to respond to various other-directed needs that arose in the activities. In relation to MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) heuristic model of WTC, other-directedness is a key interpersonal and intergroup motivational orientation which influenced the Japanese learners' 'desire to communicate'. In the WTC—talk model I proposed in Chapter Seven, the motivational force of other-directedness underlies the seven 'reasons to engage'

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proposed in layer XII and described in section [7.3.3.]. As a set of guidelines for interpersonal behaviours, other-directedness is a constant orientation rather than a choice that is turned 'on' and 'off' in response to situational variations or individual preferences.

For Japanese learners in the exchange classes, it seems the most important aspect of this orientation was often a motivation or desire to contribute to the group's completion of the activity or conversation. In some cases, when the task had not been clearly initiated by the teacher, the learners saw little reason to communicate in English. They, therefore, did not interact in English and / or did not interact with their international partners. Furthermore, it can be said that in most cases, this task-focused orientation superseded other kinds of self-focused motivation, such as developing their English skills or having fun by discussing topics they liked. This kind of orientation could lead to confusion for teachers from more ego-, or self-, focused cultures, who might expect learners to talk for the sheer joy of it or because the learner knows they can improve their L2 competencies by talking.

A further other-directed motivation with important influence on the Japanese participants' behaviours was affiliation, which manifested as learners prioritising helping each other, contributing to their partners' enjoyment of the activity, and focusing on improving their relationships with their partners. Thus, both task-focus and affiliation should be seen as motivational orientations that lead to a specific kind of contribution rather than leading to restrictions on a learner's participation.

A further aspect of the Japanese participants' other-directed orientation was the subconscious self-regulation of the amount of talk offered. This was to ensure fair participation for all members of the group activities. Regulation meant that the Japanese participants did not feel free to avoid turns about topics they did not like, which helped increase participation and WTC for reluctant speakers. This regulation also meant that the Japanese participants tended not to proactively seize the floor in conversations; thus, avoiding weaker speakers being curtailed or inhibited from contributing to activities. Furthermore, the Japanese participants'

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inherent length-of-turn regulating behaviours ensured one person did not hold the floor for too long. Arguably, by regulating the amount of talk between learners, they are also regulating the group's overall WTC. Further investigation is need to verify this idea and evaluate if, should it exist, this phenomenon leads to an overall increase or decrease in WTC ratings and talk.

As mentioned, these self-regulatory behaviours are for the most part subconscious. While one could argue that regulation of turn-taking and length-of-turn may potentially act as a filter on the WTC of a learner who has a particularly strong ideas about one topic, the data indicated that the participants' WTC developed in accordance with these rules. Rather than WTC being filtered out or cut off due to turn-taking rules, WTC was often aroused as an individual's turn approached. Conversely, once a participant had satisfactorily completed their allocated turn, their WTC would become depressed again. For the Japanese learners in the exchange classes, these turn-taking rules may ensure that WTC and speech is evenly shared amongst group members; however, when learners with different cultural speaking rules engaged with the Japanese learners, problems with turn-taking and length-of-turn self-management arose. For example, the Japanese learners sometimes reported that the presence of the international students required them to ask follow-up questions or seizing the floor in a more proactive manner than they were used to. These cultural clashes sometimes lead to confusion, frustration, or the Japanese participant's desire to communicate not being expressed as speech.

In terms of other-directedness affecting learners' motivational orientation, it was also noted that the Japanese learners had to adjust or select mental schemas appropriate to the changing contexts. When the participants found themselves in groups that they were not used to, issues adjusting to groups of differing ages, differing mixes of sex, and differing teacher—learner relationships all become apparent. This adjustment could have one of two impacts. First, the Japanese learners reported having to adjust their behaviours and feeling greater anxiety in the presence of an older student or the teacher. Second, when coming into contact with

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members of the opposite sex or partners from unfamiliar cultures, some Japanese learners reported feeling ambiguity concerning appropriate topics or communication techniques / strategies. Such ambiguity can lead to greater anxiety, which may also bring negative feedback into the WTC—talk system. Problems with ambiguity may not arise frequently in cultures that have greater equality between different groups or require fewer marked differences in behaviours between different groups, although this needs to be confirmed with further study.

Finally, Wen and Clément (2003) proposed that Japanese learners may be more risk avoidant, or intolerant of ambiguity, as they feel a cultural need to align their behaviours with their group members' behaviours. The elicited data did support the idea that Japanese learners would act to reduce their exposure to risk and ambiguity by declining to respond first to difficult questions or by mimicking other's answers. However, in this study these actions should be seen as motivated action to reduce the risk of spoiling the conversation and overcome ambiguity concerning how best to contribute rather than as some kind of reduced speech or failure to communicate. Thus, for the most part, risk avoidance, or intolerance of ambiguity, acted as a motivational force that engendered a specific culturally acceptable communicative behaviour in exchange class activities rather than as a filter that reduces WTC.

The factors of 'motivational orientation', 'societal context', and 'personality' all motivated, or promoted, specific culturally appropriate behaviours that contributed to the completion of the conversation or activity. Therefore, other-directedness can be said to be a motivational component of the WTC—talk system. However, in some cases, other-directedness acted as filter on the development of talk. This happened when the Japanese students perceived that a risk of negative evaluation coincided with arousal of talk-promoting motivational forces. For example, when a Japanese participant wanted to talk, but they perceived linguistic difficulties and should have asked for help; they sometimes employed face-saving strategies, such as smiling or laughing. This behaviour arguably had an other-directed motivation in

maintaining group harmony, but it restricted the individual from resolving the issue and subsequently contributing to the exchange class activity.

Fear of negative evaluation, sometimes stemming from a fear of making a linguistic mistake, could lead to hesitation and unrealised talk, or it could lead to reduced WTC. However, it was only very rarely that a Japanese participant would decline to take a turn. This may be because the overriding motivational force for the learners in this study was the obligation to contribute towards the activity's completion.

Wen and Clément's (2003) model proposes that other-directedness is a kind of talk-restricting filter with influence between desire and WTC. Based on data collected in this study, I propose that other-directedness is a kind of framework, or schema, of culturally acceptable behaviors. In Figure Fifteen, next page, this alternative proposition is shown with 'motivational orientation', 'social context', and personality-based factors promoting other-directed behaviours at the desire to communicate level. Only 'affective perceptions', or threats to the learner's ego, is retained as a filter that impinges the smooth development of a desire to communicate into WTC and speech. It should also be noticed that aspects of the *societal context* differ from Wen and Clément's (2003) original model; 'participation rules' has been added, but 'group cohesion' is not included, as it was not studied.

```
        ┌──────────────┐
        │   Layer II   │
        │     WTC      │
        └──────────────┘
```

Affective perceptions
Social acceptance (face)
Inhibited monitor
Expectation of evaluation

Motivational orientation
Affiliation
Group intentions
Hierarchy
Task orientation

```
        ┌──────────────────┐
        │    Layer III     │
        │    Desire to     │
        │ communicate with │
        │ a specific person│
        └──────────────────┘
```

Societal Context
Group member
identity
Participation rules

Personality
Risk taking
Tolerance of ambiguity
Modesty

Figure 13. Adjusted format of other-directedness
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Curriculum

With regards to cultural differences, I stated earlier that cultural dimensions should not

be seen as absolutes, rather, they should be considered as points on a spectrum; some

individuals orientate further to one end of a spectrum, and some orientate to the other end of a

spectrum. With regards to this Japanese-specific-model of WTC and other-directedness, it is

assumed that Japanese students have a high propensity to orient towards other-directed

behaviours; they will, however, be partially influenced by other ego-, or self-, focused

orientations. Conversely, interlocutors from other cultures may be less influenced by other-

directedness but be more strongly influenced by ego-focused orientations. Based on studies in

intercultural communication, Japan registers as a country with a middling group-orientation,

while China and Korea have much stronger-group orientations (Hofstede, 2010). On the other

hand, Western English-speaking cultures, such as the UK, America, and Australia, have a

stronger individualistic, self-orientated focus. Based on this, I would predict that other-

directedness orientation is probably stronger in China and Korea than in Japan, but that ego-orientated behavioral orientations are much stronger in Western cultures.

A final note about the MTPS underlines how difficult it can be for learners to 'get everything right'. To partake in a conversation, interlocutors need to make concurrent decisions about discourse and sociocultural appropriacy, linguistic correctness, timing of engagement, selection of strategies, and correct actional choices. At each moment, this requires the ongoing appraisal of the situation, selection of an appropriate action (execution), further ongoing appraisal of (peer) reactions to their own output, and action control to protect and enable their ongoing participation. This is an ongoing process where actions have consequences. One task execution process, such as remaining silent or taking a turn, will lead directly to another set of processes. In the case of remaining silent, the learner must then focus on listening; this entails appraising and engaging in appropriate reactions, such as back channeling, follow-up questions, or offering to take a subsequent turn. On the other hand, if the learner takes a turn, they will need to appraise the reactions of other participants to judge if their content was appropriate and understood while also evaluating how long is appropriate for them to hold the floor. Given the interrelated complexity of these processes, it is little wonder that learners participating in this study frequently reported being exhausted by the exchange classes.

NINE: DISCUSSION AND IMPLICATIONS

9.1. Discussion

At the beginning of this study, I set out to investigate ways in which I could help my learners become better communicators in English as both a goal and a process of L2 acquisition. I did this because many stakeholders in the education system in Japan have an ingrained belief that Japanese students both fail to acquire English and struggle to learn in CLT environments.

In regard to this situation, I will conclude this thesis by discussing the actionable findings of my work. First, I will respond to my research questions. I will then discuss some of the limitations of the work carried out. Next, I will discuss the relevance of my findings in the same order that they are presented in the thesis. Finally, I will discuss the potential for further studies arising from this work.

9.1.1. *Review of, and main findings pertaining to, research questions*

As I gathered and analysed data, I realised that my original approach to WTC needed to be revised to take into account its dynamic, complex qualities. The three most revealing aspects of this new approach were that (1) it was possible to have both negative and positive motivational forces impacting a learner at one time, that (2) the act of communicating caused profound and wide-reaching feedback on learners' subsequent intentions and behaviours, and that (3) the resultant feedback effect of realised talk or unrealised intentions to talk was somewhat unpredictable.

I felt it necessary, therefore, to re-conceptualise WTC as a WTC—talk system. In light of this, I now need to re-think my original research questions. In the following four paragraphs, I will restate the original questions, then I will state the more appropriate, reconceptualised questions and briefly outline my findings.

The first research question was: 'What factors impact WTC in the classroom?' The updated question is **'What factors cause arousal or depression of the WTC—talk system?'** In response to this issue, I identified seven motivational opportunities or needs that participants strove to respond to; changes in the participants WTC ratings corresponded with them noticing one or more of these needs / opportunities. These needs could conflict, leading to communicative ambivalence and unexpected relationships between WTC ratings and observable behaviours. Furthermore, both successful talk and unsuccessful talk had a feedback effect on these motivational needs, satiating some needs and stimulating other needs.

The second research question was: 'What, if any, are the differences between immediate-WTC and classroom talk?' The basic response to this question was that the WTC-ratings I elicited did not correlate with learners' observed utterances. A more complex answer is that WTC could not be measured; rather, learners reported their 'desire to communicate', as aroused by the seven motivational forces I identified. Furthermore, as these forces often conflicted, the relationship between talk and an apparently aroused WTC—talk system appeared to be extremely unpredictable. A more appropriate updated question is **'To what extent do factors in the WTC—talk system align to successfully predicate speech?'** This question is somewhat addressed by the updated third question.

The third research question was: 'What factors facilitate or impede realisation of WTC into classroom talk?' The updated question is **'What combination of factors in the WTC—talk system enables a learner to talk?'** In response to this question, I identified a range of learner-centered factors that individuals can practice negotiating. I organised these factors into a model of WTC—talk realisation. The factors can be grouped into five main categories: motivational, listening-based, topical, content relevance, and language production. This model can be used to help teachers or learners identify difficulties that stop them (or their classes) from having successful communications. In addition to the successful alignment of these factors, when talk

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is or is not generated, I also identified a role for feedback in promoting or interfering with subsequent efforts to communicate.

A fourth question was implicitly subsumed into the first and third question: 'What culturally prevalent factors impact a learner's WTC?' A much better and more nuanced question is: '***What culturally situated framework do learners base their communication decisions on?***' In response to this question, I investigated the relevance of Wen and Clément's (2003) other-directedness model. The data I elicited indicates that the learners in this study drew a clear distinction between classroom talk and out-of-class talk. For in-class talk, learners assume that it is appropriate to share the conversational floor somewhat equally and that each person has a responsibility to enable others to talk. Actions to promote this sharing included floor-sharing and limited self-expression. The data also indicated the participants took actions to avoid embarrassment and negative evaluations from other group members. Finally, it seems as if the Japanese learners in the study employed differentiated interpersonal rules based on age and gender. In relation to this, when engaging in intercultural contact using English, the Japanese participants in this study seemed to struggle to find the appropriate interpersonal rules to use with unfamiliar interlocutors.

The reconceptualisation of an existing construct, if accepted by other researchers, is an important and valuable contribution to any scientific or academic field as it can stimulate new avenues of investigation. Therefore, I will close this section by restating (and re-ordering) my updated research questions in the hope that they can stimulate future research:

1. What factors cause arousal or depression of the WTC—talk system?

2. What combination of factors in the WTC—talk system enables a learner to talk?

3. To what extent do factors in the WTC—system align to successfully predicate speech?

4. What culturally situated framework do learners' base their communication decisions on?

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9.2. Limitations and future studies

One of the most important limitations of this study is its socio-constructivist nature; however, many of the issues relating to the research design were dealt with in the methodology section (Chapter Four). As with many such studies, the generalisability of my findings may be limited, and readers of this thesis should not use the results per se; rather, they will need to draw inference to, and find connections with, their own contexts. That said, having worked in Japan for nearly 20 years as both a language teacher and an intercultural communication lecturer and having previously worked at the site of the study for three years, I found comments made by the students in interviews to be typical of the experiences of my other learners. Furthermore, other teacher / researchers with whom I have shared my findings at professional development and academic conferences (a list of which is included in Appendix Ten) also commented on the strong similarities to their experiences. Nevertheless, improvements can always be made, and by acknowledging further limitations that came to my attention during this study readers can make their own judgements concerning the validity of my findings. Discussing limitations will also contribute to improved protocols when studying WTC or using idiodynamic methodology in the future.

9.2.1. The wider theoretical standpoint

Part of the premise of my work was that Japanese students struggled to communicate in English when required to do so. The general zeitgeist in Japan, commentary in news media, and research by native-speaker researchers and Japanese researchers accustomed to Western pedagogical models indicate that this may be so. Moreover, in the data I collected, the Japanese learners engaged in behaviours that may seem to be anomalous when compared to native-speaker models of English. However, as Crystal (2012) points out, there are more non-native users of English than native, and Japanese speakers of English are just as likely to encounter people using English as a second or third language as they are to encounter native-speakers.

This is certainly the case at the university where the data was collected. When this study's participants use English outside of class with culturally similar others, the kinds of interactions observed in the exchange classes may be appropriate; however, when they use English outside of class with culturally different others, the kinds of interactions observed in the class may be inappropriate. As such, instead of continuing to compare relatively inexperienced Japanese learners' English abilities to native-speaker models of English, further investigations that compare Japanese learners to other non-native learners is required. A large body of indisputable evidence that Japanese learners have contextual and / or innate English-learning-disadvantages compared to other non-native learners would affirm the relevance of, and shape, further research in the field of second language acquisition and WTC in the Japanese context.

Similarly, this work was also developed on the basis that many researchers claim Japanese learners struggle to take advantage of opportunities for language acquisition through talking. The small amount of evidence that this study provides indicates that the learners in this context may not be making the best use of said opportunities; the kinds of interactions observed in the exchange classes seemed to not promote the acquisition of strategic / actional skills nor enable much form-focused linguistic development. Before making stronger claims in the regard, however, more empirical work is required to provide a clear framework concerning the quality of interactions that can best support L2 acquisition through CLT.

9.2.2. Research design

I collected data in a specific kind of class. While all the idiodynamic studies I have read about were carried out in laboratory settings, this study focused on a more naturalistic setting. This may be a strength of the research design; however, the elevated levels of anxiety and excitement that were aroused in the exchange classes may have somewhat skewed the results towards more exaggerated emotional arousal. Further examination of the Japanese learners' everyday classroom interactions and their out-of-class interactions would vastly improve our

knowledge of the linguistic capabilities and the typical functioning of said Japanese students'

WTC—talk systems in other settings.

Another limitation of the study was the number and identity of participants. Most

idiodynamic studies actually only report on the behaviours and reactions of five or six

individuals; thus, I can claim this study is extremely detailed. However, to produce more

specific and actionable results, it may be better in future studies to streamline and compare

distinct groups of participants. Based on results from this study, I would expect particular

relevance could be found by comparing male and female students, or by comparing different

age groups; or by streamlining groups by relative linguistic abilities, attitude towards the target

language, or previous experiences. For example, a study that followed the same procedures but

compared the reactions of students who had no international experiences with those that did

may uncover important differences in our understanding of how learners cope with difficult

situations and / or acquire strategic and sociocultural L2 competence.

Grouping students may also help with another problem I encountered. In data collection

rounds one—four, some teachers did not trust the learners to be able to carry out free

conversations with their partners, so they provided conversation prompt sheets. In the

naturalistic setting of the exchange classes, I could not control for this factor; however, the use

of prompts was noted in the descriptions of classroom activities, which are provided in

Appendix Eleven. While the use of prompts did enrich the study by allowing me to see the

effects of the teachers' interventions and allowing an unexpected insight into task-orientated

motivation, delineation between activities with and without teacher intervention could provide

more specific findings. For example, comparison of classes that had no teacher interventions

and classes with teacher interventions could be useful for the purposes of gathering data

relevant to designing level-appropriate classes that teach the necessary strategies for

maximizing level-appropriate interactions and affordances for L2 development.

9.2.3. Research protocols

Idiodynamic methodology is a relatively recent and novel approach to data elicitation. As such, lessons learned during this study will be valuable for other researchers who adopt this approach. A first weakness in my study was a failure to firmly establish the parameters of WTC. In this case, the problem was negligible because all the learners actually reported something slightly different from WTC. It is, however, important to note that ratings returned with idiodynamic software may have been interpreted differently by different learners. With regards to 'WTC 0' ratings, a wide range of interpretations were reported during the study, such as: having normal feelings, having nothing to say, not being interested, or not perceiving it appropriate to take a turn. A catalogue of these descriptions of ratings may be a first step to standardising ratings in future studies. Standardisation in itself is not necessary when the ratings are used as guides for conducting further interviews; however, should the ratings be used for statistical analysis or to make learner—learner comparisons, it may be necessary to affirm the reliability of the instrumentation by firmly establishing the parameters of the construct to be examined.

In a similar way, participants' interpretation of what constitutes a high or low rating was also subjective and context dependent. Two learners, Kevin [3.1] and Kobe [5.1], reported an elevated WTC base-line of +4 and +6 respectively. In Kobe's case, he originally reported his WTC base-line as WTC 0, but he then requested to repeat the ratings and reported a base-line of +6. The speakers reported differing reasons for this elevated score: Kevin's was due to a conscious effort to not become demotivated by the poor atmosphere in his group, but Kobe's was the result of an inherently positive outlook towards communicating with the English-basis students. Reflecting on these comments, I realised that I should have spent more time at the beginning of the recall sessions discussing these base-line ratings (zero, elevated, or otherwise) to gain a deeper understanding of each learners' attitudes towards communicating.

As a slight aside, in Chapter Six, it was noted that learners who reported higher ratings of class-WTC than trait and immediate ratings, in a pattern of [T < C > I], also reported not

enjoying communicating with others in general but were willing to communicate in class. The agreement between qualitative descriptions of a higher proclivity for communicating in class and matching patterns of higher C-WTC ratings in the quantitatively elicited data helps substantiate the validity of the tools used to measure the constructs. Further comparison and triangulation of qualitative and quantitative methods would help increase the validity of all the instrumentation used in this study.

Another concern arising from this study was the treatment of laughter, backchanneling, and non-verbal utterances. As few WTC studies actually report on observable utterances of language, there are currently no guidelines or precedents as to how to correctly record, render, and rate these conversational phenomena. During transcription and analysis, when I noticed a non-verbal signal potentially taking the place of a voiced utterance; such as a thumbs up or 'OK' circle with fingers, or a shaking or nodding of the head, or pointing, I counted it in the same way as a voiced utterance. However, when the non-verbal signal coincided with and reinforced a voiced utterance, I did not count the non-verbal sign *and* the voiced utterance but treated them as a single utterance.

Laughter also caused ambiguity. I only counted laughter as a single voiced utterance when it did not accompany other talk; however, it would certainly be reasonable to consider laughter as conveying the same meaning as "That's so funny!" which would count as three voiced words. A standardised convention concerning such utterances in WTC studies would help reinforce the reliability and validity of future WTC—talk studies, and it would also allow for more accurate comparisons of the amount of talk generated by participants.

In the same way, broken, partial, and repaired utterances contributed to an individuals' word count during the analysis of conversational behaviours. For example, the following sequence taken from [2.3B] was counted as 64 words:

```
396   C     he he my share mate he he my share mate is indonesian [so indonesian is
397         know purikura [inaudible so i u sometimes go to go out [and then take pic
398         take purikura but but now erm just all take a pictures or [inaudible or um
399         and then after that go out to go out and like eat out or eat out together so tsuu
```

The same information, however, could be communicated by a more fluent speaker as "I sometimes go out with my Indonesian roommate, we take pictures at *purikura*, and then go out to eat." This would count as 19 words (or 20 words if the localised term 'share mate' was used). In both cases, the same information would be conveyed, and there would be no reason to suppose that the *intent* to communicate was different. Arguably, counting units of information shared (i.e., what was communicated) rather than counting the medium by which it was conveyed (i.e., how many utterances) would give a more accurate indication of the successful realisation of WTC into talk. Much work needs to be carried out before clear conventions could be established, but standardising such protocols would help reinforce the reliability and validity of future WTC—talk studies.

9.2.3. Interpretation of data

Many of the WTC—talk factors reported in this study existed concurrently and fleetingly. As with all retrospective methodologies, the factors that were most foregrounded in a learner's recollections were the ones I could elicit, report, and analyse. Some of them may have significant overlap with other factors or be inseparable parts of the same construct. For the purpose of clarity, many of these factors have been reported discretely, but this may not do justice to the dynamic and complex nature of these factors.

Furthermore, during data collection and analysis, it was assumed that willingness to communicate actually existed. For stimulated recall interviews, I asked learners to focus on when they wanted to speak or did not want to speak and I introduced them to WTC through the use of WTC quantitative questionnaires. However, there have been many iterations of the construct of WTC, and a single definition has not yet been set on. Therefore, it is not particularly surprising that, during the data collection, the term 'willing to communicate' was mentioned only once by a single participant. Moreover, by the end of the study, it had become apparent that learners were reporting their 'desire to communicate'. This led me to the

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conclusion that, if it exists at all, immediate-WTC is extremely ephemeral in nature. To resolve this issue, I proposed the alignment of factors that may enable, or restrict, a learner's intentions to communicate from becoming talk as a 'WTC moment' in a learner's WTC—talk system. This theoretical stance is, however, clearly open to debate and challenge.

9.3. Implications and future studies

In many cases, the limitations of my study also indicate the need for further work in the field of WTC or in the wider field of second language acquisition. These issues asides, I will now discuss the potential for future work in the field of WTC or for improvements in the provision of English language in Japan, and elsewhere, based on the findings of my study. I discuss these implications in the orders they presented, chapter-by-chapter.

9.3.1. Concerning observations of classroom interactions

In Chapter Five, I reported that the participants in this study frequently exhibited a set of communicative behaviours, such as explicit turn-sharing as opposed to turn-taking, that could be considered anomalous from the point of view of native-English speakers. As a Western model of English is widely taught in Japan (and in other regional EFL contexts such as China and Korea) if these 'anomalous' behaviours are widespread, they can be considered as a primary confounding factor in developing learners' communicative competence and confidence. As far as I am aware, educators and materials designers frequently overlook the structure and organisation of in-class talk; as long as someone is stimulated enough to talk, classes and activities are considered successful. This is unfortunate, as understanding how language functions in natural settings is a crucial factor in developing effective learning practices and competent users of the language. Therefore, in much the same way that many foreign language and academic programs include a component on academic written discourse,

that covers aspects such as an opening topical sentence to a paragraph and the inclusion of evidence to substantiate claims, language programs should also include components on the structure and mechanics of having actual conversations.

Video data also revealed that even when participants were talking, they relied on the facilitating efforts of the more confident members of the group to be able to engage in talk. First, this means that the Japanese learners in the study were most likely not 'naturally' acquiring the strategic and actional competences required to engage in out-of-class English practice. Second, this implies that these learners are being led into conversational situations that are simply too difficult for them. This may be damaging for their confidence, reducing the likelihood of them seeking out L2 opportunities outside of the class. In addition, it means they are unlikely to be able to take advantage of the immediate conversation to acquire linguistic competence as the level they are attempting to communicate at may fall outside of their potential zone of learning, or zone of proximal development (Vygotsky, 1978). In light of this, I would strongly recommend that teachers develop communicative syllabi that focus on features such as approaching and initiating conversations, proposing topic changes both cooperatively and unilaterally, and negotiating difficult situations. This would enable learners to lead conversations to appropriate topics at appropriate levels of linguistic complexity. In light of these observations, I have developed a text book focusing on these issues, which I use in some of my university classes. I have included the contents page of this book in Appendix Seventeen.

Also in regard to linguistic development, I noticed that some of the learners' actions in the exchange classes negated potential opportunities for linguistic development; for instance, failing to ask for help, hiding a lack of comprehension, or simply not noticing corrections provided by stronger learners. During post-class interviews, it became apparent (particularly in comments made by Michelle [2.1A & B], and Harry and Michael [4.1 & 4.2]) that watching videos of their in-class activities provided opportunities for reviewing difficult linguistic items and for reconsidering in-conversation-(in)actions, such as failures to ask follow-up questions.

This not only indicates the potential for students in CLT classes to use their smartphones to record classroom conversations for review but also indicates that learners (particularly if they are engaged in exchange class type situations) could benefit from strategy development to notice and act on affordances for development that arise during communication activities.

Overall, a combination of students' negative emotional reactions in the exchange classes, the dominance and control exerted by English-basis students, and the potentially anomalous nature of interactions (such as turn-sharing) indicate that further evaluation of both the efficacy and effectiveness of CLT is required both on-site and in the wider EFL industry. In many cases, it seems teaching students how to interact and how to take advantages of affordances for learning could be of primary importance.

9.3.2. The nature of WTC from a CDST standpoint

The findings I reported in Chapter Six challenged the current theoretical standpoint of WTC➜talk. During data collection and analysis, it became evident that an aroused WTC system does not lead to communication in many cases; I uncovered a range of varied relationships between trait-, classroom-, immediate-WTC ratings and actual talk. These temporal and contextual variations strongly support a CDST approach to WTC; as a result, during the course of this study, I became to feel it more appropriate to refer to WTC as a WTC—talk system. This is in juxtaposition to as opposed to the more static and discrete (modular) descriptions of it as personality-trait (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987), or the momentary and discrete descriptions of WTC as: a decision (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels; 1998); a state of readiness (Kang, 2005); a probability (Macintyre, 2007), or an intention (Matsuoka, 2009). As mentioned at the beginning of Chapter Nine, this new conceptualisation offers a new range of research questions to stimulate future research.

A strong reason for describing it as system was the clear existence of feedback between WTC and talk. Of particular note was the unpredictability of this feedback on the system.

Successful talk could lead to either negative or positive WTC ratings, while unsuccessful talk could also lead to increased or decreased WTC ratings. As I realised this, I came to understand that students were really reporting their intention to communicate, which in MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) heuristic model equated to the 'desire to communicate'. It is my belief that this clarification will become an important part of our general understanding of the WTC—system, and this knowledge will be of great value to other researchers interested in WTC, especially if they choose to use idiodynamic methodology.

In terms of teaching, I also believe that it will prove valuable for educators to understand the different aspects of the WTC—system. First, situations that arouse positive aspects of a learners' desire to communicate, such as a desire to share interesting information, will inevitably coincide with learners' desire to avoid embarrassing mistakes. In such cases, development of strategies to focus on, and tap into, talk-promoting desires and ignore talk-avoidant desires may help keep learners' WTC—talk system sufficiently aroused to attempt to talk. In a similar way, encouraging learners to focus on using both positive and negative feedback to channel more positive desires to communicate may be an effective way to keep learners proactively engaged in conversations, or stop them becoming demotivated.

A second issue is the question of 'normalcy'; which I proposed as a psychological state in which restraining forces are perceived to be low and emotional stability is prevalent. Helping learners achieve this state inside and outside of classes would be beneficial for teachers and learners alike because reducing the effort required to produce talk would mean that less cognitive effort is expended on coping with emotional difficulties; subsequently, more sustained periods of effective language practice would be possible. This may also lead to less arousal of negative feedback in the system. I suggest that acclimatising learners to the requirements of L2 interactions and helping learners develop a set of conversational-contingencies for difficult situations would be expedient. As one example of a way to do this, in the idiodynamic sessions some students started to realise they could / should have asked the

English-basis students or teachers for help; thus, having students review and rate their own in-class activities may help them react more appropriately in future conversations (e.g., they may learn to ask for help after shorter intervals). Moreover, I would recommend that learners work together to develop strategies for coping, both emotionally and linguistically, in conversations by watching videos of their own classroom activities and discussing difficulties in pairs. By doing so, they may also be able to develop resilience towards the effects of negative feedback in their WTC—talk system.

9.3.3. Understanding the WTC—talk system

Having pointed out that WTC ratings and talk display an inconsistent relationship, it might have been considered redundant to try to correlate WTC ratings with observable talk. In Chapter Seven, however, I did report further on the lack of relationship between ratings and talk, and the extent to which WTC ratings and talk did not correlate (almost not at all) was unexpected. I would like to discuss four important points about this.

Firstly, from the point of view of language practice, it will be highly important for teachers and other trainers to realise they must (1) provide conditions and impetus for positive arousal of the WTC—talk system, *and* (2) help learners develop the skills to take advantage of positive arousal of the system. This would lead to a higher level of correlation between WTC ratings and talk. In the future, measurements of learners' overall trait- and class-WTC and measurements of learners' immediate-WTC—talk correlation may be useful metrics for evaluating the effectiveness of classroom-based pedagogies and programs. In particular, increased measurements of the former across a 2-year or 4-year program may be indicative of greater learner confidence and reduced anxiety in using the L2, while increases in the later measurement across a semester could be indicative of effective conversation strategy training or ongoing good classroom management.

Second, based on the conceptualisation of WTC as part of a WTC—talk system, in addition to arousing the system *and* enabling successful completion of talk, I now believe it is also important for teachers and learners to focus on the development, and use, of positive feedback in the system. For example, focusing on positive feelings arising from a successful communication should then lead to a learner striving to achieve the same feelings of satisfaction again rather than allowing a learner to 'switch off' having completed their turn. Similarly, focusing on negative feelings arising from L2 difficulty and unsuccessful communication should lead to a learner striving to develop contingencies to both resolve future iterations of the L2 difficulty and see those difficulties as affordances for learning rather than as sources of anxiety.

Third, the assumption that high trait-like WTC would also lead to learners deliberately seeking out more opportunities to interact with L2 others needs re-examining. In the data from Chapter Six, it was noted that some learners had higher classroom WTC than trait WTC; accordingly, these learners acted more proactively in class than might otherwise be expected from their daily attitude towards communication. As learners were frequently motivated by obligations in the classroom, high levels of class-WTC may be partially explained as a compulsion to talk rather than as a volition to talk. In Japan, English classes are mandatory for graduation, and, by default, mandatory for job hunting. As such, teachers need to recognise that students are not completely in control of their own WTC—talk system. This point somewhat 'muddies the waters' with regards to WTC because, until now, studies have been based on the assumption that communication choices are made when learners are "free to choose to do so" (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 546). Moreover, with particular reference to those learners in the study who reported anxiety and stress, teachers may need to re-evaluate their underlying CLT-focused assumption that, based on theories of acquisition through interaction, it is good to talk lots in class.

Fourth, some students pointed to an enjoyment of listening to the English-basis students talk and learning about their cultures as benefits of the exchange classes. Thus, at all stages of educational provision, from research to designing tests, syllabi, materials, and in day-to-day classroom management, further accommodation for learners who prefer to listen or who are not naturally talkative is needed.

9.3.4. Learning to cross the Rubicon

In Chapter Seven, I proposed a model of WTC—talk realisation that I believe may lead to many opportunities for teachers to help learners develop speech from their WTC—talk system. The factors proposed in the model can be used in the order presented as a check list: either for students to self-evaluate where most of their own interactional and linguistic difficulties lie, or as a classroom survey to help teachers align activities with the needs of the majority of the class. For teachers and individual learners, if multiple issues are identified as problematic, priority would lie with focusing on (anteceding) factors that are placed lower in the stepped model as they are considered as prerequisites for the factors in the succeeding layers. I will now discuss the potential of developing an agency approach to WTC, which is centered on training learners to become better speakers through a refocusing of their understanding of the parameters of classroom talk and on overcoming difficulties as they arise in conversations.

At the trait-WTC level, commentary on the geopolitical, social, and economic status of English in Japan is beyond the scope of this study; and, for the most part, the Japanese-basis students in this study agreed on a wide-ranging set of potential benefits from entering into conversations with English-basis students. However, for the WTC—talk system to be aroused from moment-to-moment, participants in the study needed to be able to perceive a need (have to) or a benefit (want to) which would motivate each instance of interaction.

To promote more interaction, the seven momentary WTC—talk motivators that I identified in this study have important implications for task design and materials writing. One

of the most important things I learned in this study is that a classroom 'conversation' is for many students an 'activity' or 'task' with specific parameters. Once the perceived requirements of the task have been fulfilled, the desire to talk may either become depressed or not be aroused. Common phenomena in classes in Japan (and potentially elsewhere) are students falling into silence and / or reverting to an L1 conversation after minimal talk in the L2. In my classes, I often challenge student on this situation, and they unfailingly claim, "we finished." To generate more talk, it may be possible to specify extended parameters for activities; for example, "continue to: [find new pieces of information / find things in common / give personal stories] until: [3 minutes] has expired / [6] items have been found / your group mates have asked [8] questions / your team mates have laughed [5] times."

Overall lesson design could also be re-evaluated. In this study, learners frequently declined to seek out potential opportunities to talk as the kind of talk that could be generated fell outside of the parameters of the perceived rule of the activity. For example, sometimes a participant's idea did not seem to align with the parameters of the topic, or turn relevant junctures and topic interest did not align with the individual's allocated turn-taking order. Clearly, conversation practice classes, like the exchange classes, need to focus on practicing specific conversational skills rather than these skills being obfuscated by activities with a topical focus. Some suggestions for focused practice are: a lesson on redirecting to new topics three times during a conversation; a lesson in which students re-direct to wholly unrelated, pre-prepared topics; a lesson to instruct students to not use "how about you" to 'deselect themselves' or 'share-turns'. In the case of this study, it may even be possible to instruct the English-basis students to not ask questions thereby forcing the Japanese-basis students to control conversations. These lessons may seem to promote native-speaker models of conversational behaviours (which may or may not be a bad or good thing); however, I would argue that they are designed to re-focus students' perceptions of the task-/conversational

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parameters, so that their WTC—talk system is more frequently aroused by an understanding that the whole conversation is an opportunity to talk.

During this study, I also encountered three interesting aspects of participants' listening behaviors: the distinction between listening opportunities and talking opportunities, a policy of non-interruption, and listening as an activity. The first two aspects are more succinctly dealt with in the following section on other-directedness [9.3.5.], and 'learners who prefer to listen' has already been discussed section [9.3.3.]. Crucially, however, it should also be noted that listening comprehension is a vital aspect of conversations, and it became apparent in data collection rounds 1—4 that vocabulary items, speech rate, and complex ideas all caused difficulties for the Japanese-basis learners in the study. As part of EFL syllabi, I would like to recommend specific conversation practices that focus on coping with listening comprehension difficulties in conversations. In exchange classes, it may be possible for lower-level students to ask English-basis students to give a self-introduction at normal speeds, and then have the Japanese-basis students practice asking about specific items of vocabulary or about particular topics that arise. Other practices I recommend include: asking for speakers to slow down, asking for repetitions, and practicing working with smart-phones to use pictures to resolve comprehension issues. These skills should be placed early in a CLT curriculum before other conversational skills are practiced in later classes.

The next set of factors in the model related to 'topic'. In terms of class preparation, students self-selecting topics or teachers writing materials that tap into the aspects of topic-interest (such as incongruity, patriotism, and hometown pride) may seem to be a question of good planning; however, on a moment-to-moment basis, learners need to be able to understand a wide range of topics and then find a way to use the topic-at-hand to connect themselves to their partners. One possibility that could be explored is the use of visualisation and brainstorming techniques. This is a tentative suggestion at the moment; however, pre-activity-brainstorming of topics that both oneself and potential partners can understand and can find

interest in may help students mentally prepare things to talk about. As a specific example, many students in this study described their hometown as part of their self-introduction; but, unless their partner had a detailed and specific knowledge of that area, the only possible response to information concerning this topic was often "Oh, really." On the other hand, 'part-time jobs' was a topic that nearly all students shared relevant experiences of. A second possibility is for students to learn to seek out moments of "Oh, me too!" This would enable students to find a connection and share ideas.

Furthermore, as clearly described in Chapter Five, a lack of specific details often curtails development of potential topics. Learners should again engage in specific practices that help them extend topics. In the case of part-time jobs, this may include sharing the things they like and don't like about their jobs with specific anecdotes added.

9.3.5. Other-directedness

Chapter Eight provides an innovate examination of how cultural differences may impact classroom interactions and learning through a triple focus on action, appraisal, reaction. In this chapter, I treat culture as a situated framework around which we base our judgements of what is acceptable and possible rather than looking for discrete factors that are considered to be unique to a specific cultural context. In much the same way that challenging the WTC➜talk assumption will hopefully lead to a re-appraisal and new understanding of the WTC—talk relationship, I also hope that by using Dörnyei and Tseng's (2009) MTPS in this way, a new appreciation of how culture affects language learning and classroom practice will be possible. I also hope that this re-imagining of how culture impacts learning is useful for other researchers and teachers. I therefore, now repeat my updated fourth research question: What culturally situated framework do learners' base their communication decisions on?

Data from this study indicated that the Japanese learners that took part in the exchange classes based many of their classroom-communication-decisions on an other-directed

framework. For teachers, the first aspect of other-directedness to consider is the motivational-orientation. This strongly relates to, and can help further explicate, important aspects of the seven 'desires to communicate' that were reported in Chapter Seven. A key motivator for classroom practices, which seems to supersede other desires to communicate, is task-motivation. I have already discussed how to take advantage of this to further language practice in the classroom in section [9.3.4.]; however, one further possibility is to widen the scope of group task-completion in the classroom. Of course, many EFL classrooms do have 'English only' policies. I would further suggest constant reminders to students to use English at every opportunity even once an activity is finished. Teachers could explore the possibility of bonus grades for students who continue to converse in English outside of task parameters, or posting extra conversational topics to the board for students who finish activities quickly, or asking students who finish early to use their phones to audio record oral reviews of their peers' work.

The second aspect of other-directedness was the societal context. For this study's participants, perceived rules of L1 turn-taking and length-of turn seemed to carry across into L2 practices and affect the WTC—talk system in the second language. In other words, L1 rules did not only impact on the kinds of conversational skills that the learners used, but the rules also shaped the learners' patterns of WTC arousal. The Japanese participants seemed to perceived it to be appropriate to give a succinct answer, and their talk mostly coincided with short spikes of arousal of the WTC—system; in situations where a longer answer is often deemed appropriate, I would expect longer plateaux of WTC arousal to mirror a longer spell of talk. In this study, the clash between Harry's [4.1 & 4.2] succinct style of talk and his Bangladeshi partners' elaborate styles was clearly a cause for confusion. Learners need to prepare for this eventuality.

Before making claims that a relationship between speaking rules and changes in the WTC system is a proven phenomenon in all contexts, further research that examines patterns of talk and WTC ratings in groups that exhibit different speaking styles is required.

Notwithstanding the need for further confirmation, the potential importance of this for future WTC studies is threefold.

First, the immediate environment and specific conversational context perhaps hold a more important role in shaping the behaviours of an individual's WTC—talk system than previously realised. This could mean that the perception of opportunities to take the floor would be a far greater predictor of actual talk than any measurement of WTC; supporting the argument that focusing on learner agency and speaker training is the most effective approach to developing successful learners in CLT contexts.

Secondly, for L2 interactions with a native speaker of that L2, a firm understanding of the speaking styles one might expect to encounter can greatly enhance the chances of a conversation with successful outcomes. Furthermore, as English is a global lingua franca, learners need to develop a flexibility and sympathetic attitude towards encounters with individuals who have different speaking styles.

A third point is that teachers may need to reappraise their approaches and methods for language teaching. The fact that WTC L2 ratings fluctuate in accordance with L1 turn-taking and turn-length rules indicates the existence of a certain amount of 'hard-wiring' of linguistic behaviours that are difficult to unlearn. Simply put, due to their cultures, some learners may not be predisposed to produce large amounts of talk; however, in both the CLT paradigm and iterations of CLT, such as TBLT, important measures of successful speech include complexity, accuracy, and fluency. The first and third items in this list are somewhat interdependent with the production of large amounts of talk. Teachers employing CLT type methodologies will need to take a sympathetic and culturally appropriate route to aiding learners develop spoken competence that does not punish learners who are hardwired for succinct or tacit communication.

Another interesting finding was the Japanese participants' sensitivity to changes in the composition of the group they were working with. The important point here is to find a balance

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between low-stress groupings while also providing practice at coping with a range of different interlocutors. Moreover, with regards to interpersonal power differentials stemming from gender and age differences, further investigation is required into the impact of an examiner's identity in oral interview tests, such as IELTS, or into the influence of group composition for group-, or paired-spoken tests. For Japanese learners, this could be very important because many Japanese universities, including my own, use such group interviews as supplemental entrance exams.

Finally, with regards to the influence of other-directedness on the WTC—talk system, whereas Wen and Clément (2003) proposed it as a kind of filter, or restrictor, on behaviours, I am suggesting that it is a culturally bound framework that individuals use to apprise and select appropriate behaviours. This suggests that learners pursue other-directed behaviours because that is what they are expected to do and what they would expect others to do for them. This is an important part of their identity and asking a learner to break these boundaries by adapting to different norms of speaking can be extremely threatening to their self-image. As teachers we need to draw our learners' attention to cultural differences and prepare them for encounters and situations that require them to adapt their behaviours.

9.4. Future research

I have already mentioned possibilities for improvements in the protocols for the methodologies that I employed in this research and for possible improvements in the provision of English classes, particularly with reference to Japanese students and even more so with Japanese students on EMI-focused campuses in Japan, such as the university where this study took place. The effectiveness of these pedagogical interventions can be investigated through action research studies. In the following section, I would like to outline further possibilities for research that stem from this study.

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Due to the relatively novel methodology used in this research, there is much potential for future studies to be carried out in many different ways. Other studies could be used to examine any number of other ILDs or combinations of ILDs, including anxiety, confidence, or motivation. As mentioned, this has been done in laboratory conditions, but there is also much scope for further in-situ, classroom or workplace, studies.

I am currently pursuing two slightly divergent strands of research with the idiodynamic software. First, in my own classes, I have shared the software with my students and asked them to work with a partner to examine difficulties they had in completing in-class oral activities and to share their strategies for coping with these difficulties. The first time I trialed this approach (see Ducker, forthcoming) learners noted concentration, anger, intolerance of ambiguity, happiness, and stress as important factors that impacted their participation in class. The second time, I further developed a set of review questions that focused on how learners coped with difficulties. I am currently analysing the results of this data collection, but early results indicate that students employ a range of meta-cognitive strategies to reset or re-focus their motivation when they encounter difficulties in completing tasks. In the future, I hope to further pursue this kind of investigation by longitudinally examining students' developing use of strategies over a 2-year or 4-year period. I would also like to carry out this study with specific groups, such as high-anxiety or high-motivation groups, and incorporate developments in trait-like aspects of these constructs as a part of the study design.

A second way I am using this methodology is to rate students' listening comprehension as part of a project to evaluate students' academic readiness and listening proficiency before they enter an EMI content- and thesis-writing-preparation-class. In this study, I use triangulation of learners' idiodynamic ratings of their own comprehension of a short lecture, notes taken from the lecture, and results of a listening test to develop my analysis and conclusions.

Further work can also be done with the data I collected in this study to check for correlations between trait- and class-WTC ratings and counts of specific kinds of behaviours, such as topic changes, turns of more than one TCU, or higher rates of proactive behaviours. This was not done in this thesis as the focus was on the realisation of talk rather than on general trends in learner behaviours.

Based on the widespread use of speaking strategies in this study that do not align with the expectations of competitive turn-taking by participants, a potential cause of many Japanese learners' apparent difficulties in communicating in English could be a lack of strategic skills that would promote greater oral output and more pro-active communicative behaviours. I have begun examining CLT-based textbooks and teacher manuals in my office and university library to check if they incorporate guidance to students or teachers on communicative strategies. In spite of the wide use of learner talk as a learning activity (i.e., activities that call on learners to discuss, share, or talk about certain topics), I have not yet found any books or manuals that provide such guidance. Indeed, the same can be said of the texts and manuals that purport to be for 'improving communication skills'; in many that I have examined, no guidance as to *how* to communicate is given. There is clear scope for a wide-ranging survey of both EFL texts and universities' curriculums in Japan to evaluate to what extent learners are supported in their efforts to learn to communicate as both a process and a goal.

Concerning the WTC—talk system, researchers may wish to find predictability in the role of feedback from realised and unrealised talk. For example, it might be useful to know under what conditions realised talk depresses or arouses the WTC—talk system and, conversely, under what circumstances does unsuccessful talk depress or arouse the system. Such findings may have implications for enabling learners to maintain an aroused WTC system for longer in the goal of increasing learners' access to affordances for learning.

The most exciting chapter of this thesis for myself was 'other-directedness'. When I first came to Japan, I fell in love with various aspects of Japanese culture. One of the dangers of

such an interest in a single culture is to essentialise or stereotype it. Particularly in the case of Japanese learners, it can be easy to stereotype them as reticent to talk in class. It would be remiss to not point this out, and with reference to Chapter Eight, there is much work that can be done with the framework of other-directedness to validate the work and better understand learners' behaviours in class.

The clearest steps in this direction are to carry out similar studies using idiodynamic methodology with groups of students from different cultural backgrounds. While any of the findings from this study require further validation in the form of replication in other contexts, I am personally most interested in specific aspects of other-directedness. First, I am interested in how the other 'end' of the other-directedness spectrum manifests itself in different contexts. I would expect to find trends towards other-directedness in other Asian cultures and trends towards more ego-orientated behaviours in more individualistic cultures.

Second, I would also expect to find structural differences in the other-directed construct between cultures; some cultures may report greater risk-avoidant tendencies, and some cultures may return weaker task-orientated tendencies. To this end, quantitative methodologies, such as structural equation modeling, could also be employed to allow for quicker comparisons of larger numbers of students.

Third, in replication studies in different cultures, I would expect learners from other contexts to show differing patterns of responses to positive and negative feedback in their WTC—talk systems. As an example of this, it seems that the Japanese students in this study may have been particularly risk-averse; as such, they may be particularly sensitive to negative feedback from conversational difficulties and unsuccessful attempts to talk. I would expect that learners who are less risk-averse may be less sensitive to negative feedback as they do not perceive it as a danger to their own ego. With low-risk aversion learners, it would be interesting to examine if unsuccessful talk further arouses or depresses the WTC system. This information

could then be used in teacher training when teachers are considering how much and what kind of feedback to give to learners from different cultural backgrounds.

Fourth, similar cultural variations in speaking styles may also be expected. With high-involvement styles speakers, I would expect to find the WTC—talk system to be engaged even during other speakers' turns. Furthermore, for more elaborate speakers, I expect that their WTC ratings would have more and longer plateaux of elevated WTC ratings. Again, examination of the WTC—talk relationship may reveal different levels of talk—WTC correlation and relative satisfaction, or it may reveal different iterations of the obligations and needs that I identified in Chapter Seven.

9.5. Closing comments

In closing, I would like to return my thoughts to Mika the student who 'knew' English but just couldn't join in. My interest in WTC began with Japanese students, like Mika, who apparently couldn't, or wouldn't, talk in English. In retrospect, it is almost inevitable that, at the beginning of their CLT-focused studies, even Japanese students with high levels of motivation will struggle to participate in classroom conversations. A combination of geographical isolation leading to lack of practice opportunities; a focus on exams and exam-English that ignores the complexities of communication; a vague fear that embracing English will damage their own culture; and rigid, memory-focused, teacher-centered learning styles are all serious barriers to CLT that learners and teachers must overcome. During this study, I realised that the struggles of the participants in this study and stories like Mika's lay bare the fallacy of the 'learning to talk, talking to learn' paradigm. Having studied under the guidance of multiple foreign language experts, who all implemented a form of CLT, at no stage in their education were Mika and this study's participants actually taught *how to talk*. I wouldn't expect my children to read a book

without being taught the rules of phonics, so why do we teachers expect our students to be able to communicate without actually teaching them the rules of communication?

Notwithstanding this lack of communication-focused instruction, I set out to better understand these learners' WTC—talk 'problem' with the assumption that increased WTC leads to increased learner talk. I was cautious and also posited that sometimes WTC would not become talk, and so I also investigated reasons why WTC would not become talk. The first significant aspect of this study is that I used a novel idiodynamic methodology in a novel way: in class, in groups; and the procedures I developed and the related findings will hopefully help guide future research.

What I found was that the Japanese learners I interviewed did want to talk: for friendship, for enjoyment, for grades, to save themselves embarrassment, to avoid upsetting or bothering their group-members, and other associated reasons. Two or more of these reasons may simultaneously stimulate changes in WTC ratings. When the learners were able satisfy their reasons for talking, there was a feedback effect on that learner that lead to a subsequent action and subsequent changes in his/her WTC ratings. As I realised this, it became apparent that I needed to reconceptualise WTC as a WTC—talk system. This reconceptualisation is perhaps the most significant point of this study, and I believe that future WTC-focused research can be greatly enhanced by adopting this conceptualisation.

Once I started using this conceptualisation, I delineated factors that promoted a desire to communicate from factors that acted as a prerequisite for talk to be enabled, and I was able to develop a model of WTC—talk realisation that I believe can be the basis for a pedagogical tool for improving classroom activities and for improving learner training.

Furthermore, some of the findings that contributed to the model of WTC—talk realisation appear to be culturally specific; for example, compulsion to talk in the classroom, particular listening behaviours, and restrictive perceptions of turn-taking rules. To this end, I started using Dörnyei and Tseng's (2009) MTPS in a novel way to investigate the cultural

framework 'other-directedness'. It is my hope that this approach leads to a deeper understanding of the role of culture as a framework that underlies learners' decision-making during the process of acquiring a second or third language, and that teachers can use this understanding to adapt Westernized CLT practices to better fit this framework.

As a teacher what does all this mean? In the long run, learners and teachers need to continue to develop learners' trait-WTC so that learners approach communication with a positive attitude and continually seek out L2 contact opportunities inside and outside of the classroom. Inside the classroom, teachers need to develop activities or tasks that increase opportunities for learners' WTC—talk system to become aroused. At the same time, they need to provide clear guidance to learners on how to notice these opportunities, a general guiding principle might be: 'talk time is all the time'. Finally, learners need training in the requisite skills that will enable them to turn opportunities for talk into actual talk. As such, I am finishing this thesis with a reminder to myself to not only promote but also arouse, notice opportunities for, and enable learners' WTC—talk systems.

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Appendix One: Glossary of L2 acquisition

The explanations below describe some of the important ways in which interaction or classroom participation can lead to language acquisition.

Input

Input provides learners with models of language to copy and compare their own utterances to. Large amounts of input are needed for acquisition. In this regard, Ellis says, "It can be claimed with confidence that, if the only input students receive is in the context of a limited number of weekly lessons based on some course book, they are unlikely to achieve high levels of L2 proficiency" (2005, p.218). By taking part in communicative activities, learners can be said to provide each other with input, or examples of the target language. However, input alone is not sufficient, learners must make use of that input to develop their language skills.

Skills building

In the cognitive-interactionist paradigm, interaction is seen as key to transforming the language that learners are receiving into acquired useable language skills. First, in order to develop communicative competences, DeKeyser (1998) claims, in his skill building theory, that any known language can and must be transformed from explicit knowledge to implicit knowledge through interaction. The table below indicates the differences between the two:

Explicit Knowledge	Interaction	Implicit Knowledge
Consciously aware of form and linguistic rules / norms		Intuitively knows what is correct
Controlled processing	➜	Automatic processing
procedures reported using metalanguage		Cannot report internalised procedures

Acquisition through interaction, however, goes beyond developing what is known into usable fluent language. Interaction can also lead to the acquisition of new, previously unknown language. To do this, during interaction, students must place primary focus on conveying meaning, and will thus incidentally (not unconsciously) acquire the correct forms of language. In short, if a learner wishes to convey the feeling of sad/happy/anxious, they must first focus on the meaning of what they want to convey and will thus be able to acquire the necessary form of "I'm + 'feeling'. Various processes that enable this are described next.

Noticing and attention

Schmidt (2001), theorises that learners pay attention to patterns in forms of language input and may notice the meaning behind these forms. For example, the simple past of regular verbs in English is distinct but simple to notice (verb + ed); learners will likely notice the differences and start to practice producing them. Additionally, they may also notice what they don't know (e.g., irregular past tense of 'run') and choose to focus attention on these unknown forms.

Negotiation in interaction

The acquisition of these forms may be enhanced by interaction (as opposed to simple attention to input) as described by Long and Porter (1985). They describe that, during interaction, a learner is likely to negotiate meaning by focusing their attention on forms that cause problems (selective attention), they would thus receive feedback about the form that was causing problems (leading to comprehensible input). As a result, the learner can then map out better form(s) of the language they wished to use for the meaning they wish to convey.

A further potential learning benefit of interaction is that learners may be forced to segment their own output when they receive feedback (such as corrections, confused responses, or no response) on their own output. This feedback forces learners to adjust their own language to make it more like the correct target form of the language for their communicative intentions to be comprehended (Pica, 1992).

Pushed output
A further important aspect of interaction is that it can lead to pushed output (Swain, 1985). As described in Pica's (1992) interaction hypothesis, interaction leads to modified output. Swain argues that this output is important in three ways. First, it forces learners to 'notice' what language forms they lack control of. Second, it makes learners 'test out' hypotheses about the correct form of language they are trying to use. When they receive positive or negative feedback in the form of partner's responses, learners evaluate if their hypothesis is correct or if the form needs further adjustments. Third, it helps learners reflect on the forms of the L2 that they are using. In a similar way, Ellis and Shintani (2014, p. 207) cite De Bot (1996) in pointing out that interaction should also help learners gain control over forms of language that they have partially acquired.

Peer-Peer development
While the cognitive-interactionist paradigm sees interaction as a source of data and a site where data manipulation practice can occur, the sociocultural paradigm sees learning happening within the interaction (Lantolf, 2006). This stance develops from the Vygotskian view that internal cognitive and affective learning processes develop from the transformation and mediation of external activities (Ellis & Shintani, 2014). The difference between the two paradigms may not be immediately clear; the sociocultural paradigm sees interaction and language development as depending on two 'builders' or creators of the interaction working together, while the cognitive-interactionist paradigm sees the learner as using the input from the other participant as external stimulus to internally develop and acquire language knowledge and skills. The key theory in the sociocultural paradigm is 'assisted performance' (Ohta, 2001) whereby learners work together and co-create a state / situation that allows the learners' level of development to progress beyond its current level.

Legitimacy and confidence
In addition to theories on how language is acquired, social theories also support the idea that practicing and actually communicating successfully in the second language can legitimise a learner, helping them self-identifying as an 'owner' of that language and as a 'member' of that language community. Strong support for this notion is found in Peirce's (1995) work with Immigrants in Canada whereby successful learners position themselves, through contact with others, as having the right to practice and use the language as and when is considered desirable.

PhD Student Research Ethics

Approval Form (REC1)

<div style="border:1px solid black;">

PLEASE NOTE: You MUST gain approval for any research BEFORE any research takes place. Failure to do so could result in a ZERO mark

Name   Nathan Ducker

Student Number   ████████

Proposed Thesis title: Crossing the Rubicon: studying the moment WTC is realised into speech

</div>

Please type your answers to the following questions:

1. **What are the aim(s) of your research?**

I have adjusted the research questions to be more general than in my previous application. The main reason for this is simply to allow for a more inclusive data collection and analysis. This does not exclude the previous intentions but broadens the scope to allow for other factors as well as the interlocutor. The basic question is now what factors impact on a student's WTC and their actual speech as I focus on factors that facilitate or impede a student's attempts to participate in a class activity. This broadening of the question will still allow for the interlocutor as a factor, but also allows for other factors too.

My initial research questions are:

Q1 What, if any, are the differences between a student's situational WTC and their actual talk in classroom activities?
Q2 What factors facilitate or impede a student's realisation of WTC into classroom talk?
Q3 What factors impact on a student's WTC in the classroom?

This study, is pedagogically valuable because the research may highlight a confusing factor in WTC research. While quantitative research uses students' actual count of utterances or students' self-reported utterances as a measure of WTC in predicting contributing factors in WTC, this investigation is expected to highlight that the act of realising WTC in an utterance cannot be considered as reflective of the level of a student's WTC. Thus, helping focus WTC studies on the quality of communication not just the quantity.

In a similar manner, apart from one or two studies into study abroad students, studies into WTC have so far tended to focus on mono-cultural situations. Despite the fact that second language lessons prepare students for intercultural situations, intercultural differences between two interlocutors have not yet been studied as a factor in WTC, thus, this study is expected to open up a new direction in WTC studies. In the immediate context, this is very valuable as there are some 2000 + international students studying alongside 2,500 + Japanese students, a large number of both living in mixed dormitories on campus.

Finally, the study is intended to further our understanding of how students evaluate classroom interactions and how this evaluation will impact on student's decision to communicate or not. Hopefully, this will provide valuable information for curriculum and activity design, as well as classroom management decisions.

What research methods do you intend to use?

Video recording of a classroom activities. Each recording session is expected to last roughly 10 – 15 minutes. Each recorded session is designed to focus on a period in the class whereby the participating students are seated around a desk. While the video will record from the beginning of the class to the end for practical purposes, only the part of the video where the participants are seated around the desk will be used in the study. The remainder of the video data will be edited out and deleted. A such, the microphone and video camera will be minutely focused on one desk, avoiding as much as possible the inadvertent recording of non-participants.

Follow-up sessions including some brief structured interview questions, some brief semi-structured interview questions, and a stimulated recall interview. Each session is expected to last less than one hour.

Data collection will be longitudinal in that it will involve following a small select group of students and recording their involvement in monolingual and multilingual classes during a semester. I would like to repeat this study with different subjects in both spring and fall semesters in 2015, 2016, and spring semester 2017.

2. **Please give details of the type of informant, the method of access and sampling, and the location(s) of your fieldwork. (see guidance notes).**

All data will be collected at a university the researcher formerly worked at. This means that the researcher will have no influence of the study outcomes of any volunteer subjects. In order to get a random sampling (i.e. that the volunteers are not only students who have a positive attitude towards English classes), student volunteers will be offered an incentive of a 2,000-yen gift card redeemable at local convenience stores for each round of data collection (in class video and follow-up stimulated recall interview). A minimum of 4 volunteer informants and preferably 8 volunteer informants will be recruited per semester.

To help recruit volunteer subjects, the help of the volunteer subjects' teachers will be required, in: announcing the project to students, placing a video camera and microphone in the classroom, coordinating a meeting time with the volunteer subject and the researcher. As the researcher and the teacher are former colleagues there should be some enthusiasm but no compulsion for the teacher to aid the researcher. However, to compensate the teacher for their help, an honorarium of 5,000 yen will be paid for a single round of data collection (recording in class, arrangement of follow-up between student and researcher).

Follow-up stimulated recall sessions using the researcher's laptop computer will be conducted in the foyer / lounge of the language centre – this provides an open public space, but with a seating set up that will provide privacy for participants in the follow-up sessions. Each session will be conducted on a one-to-one basis in this area.

3. **Please give full details of all ethical issues which arise from this research**
4. **What steps are you taking to address these ethical issues?**

Is the research potentially beneficial to the research area? Yes. There are many arguments for studying WTC. Participation may be considered as a valuable pedagogical activity in itself, but also an increased WTC is considered by some to be a valuable goal of a university language education. Finally, as a study of students' interpretations of the classroom situation, it behoves all educators to understand as best as possible the emotional and cognitive processes that students go through in their decision making, so that educators can avoid stress wherever possible, make the most effective classroom activities possible, and inform their own classroom management.

Minimising student discomfort. (Non-participating students). Some students may not wish to be video or audio recorded. Therefore, it is necessary to carefully focus data collection equipment away from non-participating students. Firstly, small, discreet video cameras will be utilised in the classroom, which will focus on only one physical area of the classroom, so that students who do not wish to feature in the video can easily avoid entering the view of the camera lens. Additionally, instead of using the video camera microphone, which may pick up background audio, the video camera will be connected by a cable to a small external microphone placed on the table where the data collection is focused. This microphone is designed to pickup audio from its immediate vicinity and is actually necessary to guarantee clear audio from the research subjects' interactions. This cannot guarantee zero pick up from non-participating students, but in my experiences of recording noisy classrooms, only extremely noisy events such as laughing or teacher instructions are likely to be recorded inadvertently.

Additionally, some students may object to the class being recorded in any way whatsoever. As the video and audio is for research purposes and not direct related to the teaching processes or outcome of the class, in such a case the data collection will have to be abandoned and new class approached for data collection. Further details on this are given in the "consent section" of this application.

Minimising student discomfort. (All students). All students will also need to be informed that the video is not for evaluative purposes but for gathering information about how well activities in class work, so that teachers can make better instructions and activities.

Minimising teacher discomfort. The teacher of the class may also be impacted by the videoing of the class. The researcher must take steps to ensure that videoing will not impact on the teachers' performance during the class as well. This will be slightly easier as the teacher will be privy to the exact goals of the research project, and will know that they are not a target of the research itself.

Will students feel compelled to join the research? The students will be recruited from a class that I do not teach. Therefore, there will be little compulsion for students to take part in the study other than purely as volunteers. Also, during the interviews, students will need to give details about what happened in class; therefore, it is necessary that the research takes place in another teacher's class not mine, so that I can get honest answers from the students. As I don't work in this university, this is not a problem.

The same applies for the teacher of the class – I will ask for volunteer teachers to approach their class, but as I do not work at the university, teachers will not feel compelled to approach their class and ask for permission to record.

Will students feel free to refuse my requests for video collection, and to refuse my requests for interviews? Firstly, the research participants will be recruited from classes that I do not teach, so there should be little pressure on students to acquiesce to requests for videoing a class. However, at this stage is necessary to discuss the issue of non-participating students.

Firstly, as the microphone is very unlikely to pick up non-participating students' voices and the video camera can be directed to the desks of participating students only, three main groups of students will be discussed.

1. Students who consent to the recording of the class and are willing participants in the data collection. (Students who will feature in the video and carry out the stimulated recall sessions).
2. Students who consent to the recording of the class but are not participating in the study directly. (Students who will be in the classroom, but will not be seated at the desks where the video camera lens is directed or the microphone placed, and will not attend any stimulated recall sessions).
3. Students who do not wish for any audio-visual recording of the class to take place.

In order to avoid discomfort and ethical problems with the above groups of students, the following points must be observed.

a. Firstly, consent from all the students in the class to gain their permission to place audio-visual equipment in the classroom and record a physical section

(one corner) of the classroom, regardless of whether the students will feature in the recording or not.

b. Consent from direct participants who will feature in the recording and stimulated recall sessions must also be gained for their direct participation in the video to be recorded and the stimulated recall session.

c. Regarding consent (a) students need to be made aware that while they are not a part of the study, if they approach the desk where the data collection is taking place, their face, body or a part of their voice may momentarily appear in the video that is being analysed, even if their face, body, or voice is not a direct part of the study.

d. Regarding consent (a), Before the day of the video collection, consent forms will be distributed to the class via the teacher of the class who will collect and return the forms to the researcher. The teacher will inform the researcher if there are any issues or opposition to videoing the class – if so, the researcher can abandon the intended data collection and make a request to another class.

e. Regarding consent (a), should even one student oppose the video recording, the recording for that class would be abandoned and alternative arrangements made.

f. Regarding consent (a), if any student is absent on the day the research is explained, but attends the class on the day of the recording and is unable for whatever reason to receive and sign a consent form, then the recording for that day must be abandoned and alternative arrangements made.

g. For students who agree to the recording of the class with no direct participation, then consent (a) is sufficient. However, for students participating directly in the study, separate consent (b) for their direct participation and for their participation in the stimulated recall session will also need to be obtained before the recording take place.

Will volunteers be compelled to complete the stimulated recall interviews given that they are being rewarded for doing so? The purpose of giving a gift card for students to volunteer for the stimulated recall and interview is to try to attract a wide cross section of students – I don't want to only attract students who are positive to English or have a strong affiliation for the teacher making the request – I want to get any students' in the class. Furthermore, I hope to underline to students that by remunerating them, their participation in the research is in no way linked to their grades for the course. However, remunerating students for volunteering may make a student feel compelled to complete the stimulated recall interview when they do not feel comfortable doing so. To avoid this, students will be reminded that they can stop the stimulated recall interview at any time they so wish, or decline to answer any question they wish to avoid. It will also be necessary to give them their gift card at the beginning of the stimulated recall interview, so that they do not feel forced to stay longer than they so wish.

Confidentiality, Privacy and Anonymity of students: Apart from students' first names, and the teacher's name, which are required for understanding classroom interactions, no sensitive data such as grades, addresses, or other identifying information will be needed during the stimulated recall interviews. However, it is also necessary to take every

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measure to stop a potential reader from being able to identify a volunteer or student in the class. Therefore, when transcribing any portions of the classroom interactions or the interview results, students' names and volunteer participants' names will be numerically coded in order to avoid disseminating their names. Students in the videoed class and volunteer informants also need to know that I intend to publish the results of the data collection in presentations and in publications, but that students' names will be replaced in the publications by coding such as "V1, V2, V3," for volunteers and "a, b, c" when non-volunteer students are referred to during interviews. The teacher will not be named, but will simply be referred to as *"the teacher"*, any class codes, locations, dates, and the specific semester that the data collection took place in will not be disseminated, and in any publications or presentations the university will be simply referred to as *"A university in Southern Japan"* so it will be difficult to identify teachers, students, and volunteer subjects.

Volunteer subjects should also be guaranteed, as much as possible, anonymity with regard to their relationships with their fellow students and their teacher. As such, during the recruitment stage volunteers will be asked to respond to a private email rather than volunteering in front of their teacher and classmates. Furthermore, subsequent interactions will be arranged at the location and scheduling preferences of the volunteers. Informants need to know that their responses will not be disseminated directly to other students in the class, and that their answers will not be directly discussed with the teacher of the class although general findings, such as *"the teacher's instructions were not very clear"*, may be published in an article or presentation that the teacher may read in the future (although this would be after the course has been completed). Given that other students are highly unlikely to ever read subsequent publications, or attend presentations, it would be highly unlike that a volunteer would be identifiable by a description of their actions in the class.

For class members who feature in the video but do not take part in the stimulated recall (and the teacher), there is the question of privacy. They will feature in a video but will not take part in watching it. In order to protect the videoed class' privacy, the only people that will watch the video are the volunteer informants, who are members of the same class, and the researcher. As the video will only be watched by these two sets of people, there will be no risk of exposing non-volunteer students' classroom activities and behaviours to third parties. The simulated recall interviews will be carried out on a one-to-one basis between the researcher and the informant – so any discussion about what is happening in the class will be private. Additionally, classroom video and stimulated recall interview data will be kept securely on my password protected laptop, minimising risk that it would be seen by an unintended third party.

Volunteer participants will be asked to focus on their own performance in class. However, they will need to mention interaction with other students. At these times, the researcher will not ask the volunteer to make a judgement or evaluation of another student's performance. Similarly, the teacher of the class is likely to be exposed during the course of these interviews, so students will not be asked to make judgements or evaluations of the teacher's actions during the interviews.

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Data Protection: The class video and stimulated recall interview data will be saved onto my password protected laptop. The laptop will be kept in my locked work office when I am not using it. The raw video data and the raw results of the stimulated recalls interviews will not be made available to people unrelated to the project. That is to say that my supervisor may request access to the video and the results of the stimulated recall activities, while the student watching the video for the stimulated recall session will also require access to the video. In both cases, only the section of video that is required necessary for the activity at hand, will be supplied as an edited version of the raw video. However the results of the data analysis will be published – with subjects' anonymity being maintained as per the protocols laid out on page 5 and 6. When I am not analysing the raw data, the computer will be password protected at all times and the door of my office will be kept locked.

Consent: It is difficult to tell the students exactly what I am studying as it would affect their performance – i.e. students would give me the answers I am looking for, and during videoing it would affect behaviour in the class. Yet, I need all the students' informed consent in order to video the class. In order to do so, I will tell students that the videos are being used to improve opportunities for speaking, (a clear goal of the classes) without specifically telling students – *I will be analysing your participation.* Please see the attached consent forms for further information.

During the simulated recall, volunteers will be informed that we are analysing that volunteer's specific participation and that volunteer's reactions to particular stimuli in the classroom in order to improve teaching. At the beginning of each stimulated recall session, volunteers will again be given the option to withdraw from participating in the research activities.

Given that the research participants are Japanese students learning English, all research consent forms will need to be bilingual English and Japanese. Likewise, explanation of the video data collection and the stimulated recall interviews will need to be given in Japanese as well as English – orally and in writing. Furthermore, students will need to be given the option of discussing answers in Japanese should they so wish to do so. Otherwise, volunteers may feel they have not been able to communicate what they wished to do so clearly and may become upset, stressed out, or frustrated with the research process.

Post study: There are two issues to consider post-data collection. The first is whether the research will stay true to its original goals that were conveyed to students when gaining consent. While some of the methodological procedures of the research may change during the piloting stage (as is the point of piloting a study), there is no reason to think that the research focus will change from classroom participation and willingness to communicate, so there is little reason to think that this is an issue.

The second issue is whether students can withdraw from participation after the data has all been collected. In order to avoid such a situation, whereby a volunteer informant feels uncomfortable after the data has all been collected, I think it will be necessary to allow students to review their answers in Japanese and English to the stimulated recall

and the interview, and to provide an artefact, such as a short printed summary shortly afterwards, so that students can review and make sure that what they think they said is what they really said. Finally, if a student is not satisfied with their participation, they will be able to email the researcher and ask for their information to be excluded from any presentations or publications. For practical reasons, after a particular stimulated recall session has taken place, I will aim to supply the interviewee with a copy of the necessary transcripts to review within two weeks of the interview session. The student involved will then be given a further month after the transcript has been given to them to withdraw their participation, without any compulsion to return their remuneration.

Conferred advantage by taking part in the research: By taking part in the stimulated recall and interviews, students may learn or develop ideas about classroom participation that may prove advantageous to them in gaining a better grade, thus potentially disadvantaging other students. The participation part of any students' grade in the English language program is 10%. So any advantage would probably be only 2 – 3 % of the total grade for the course.

Secondly, grades are not competitive grades based on ranking but a simple alpha numeric grade based on a culmination of percentage points throughout the course, so one student's advantage will not become another student's disadvantage.

Thirdly, research indicates that participation and interaction with a more motivated or more able student will increase the motivation and effectiveness of study for weaker students – thus any advantage from participating in the research would benefit all stakeholders in the class.

Finally, as participation is a part of all courses in the language program, all classes go through an awareness raising process at the beginning of the course to encourage and inform students' good participation. Therefore, it is unlikely that students will gain an unfair advantage over their counterparts by taking part in the research.

5. **What issues for the personal safety of the researcher(s) arise from this research?**

The research will take place in a place I previously worked. The subjects are students in the school. There are few expected dangers beyond any that would be expected in my regular job as an English language teacher.

6. **What steps will be taken to minimise the risks of personal safety to the researchers?**

Stimulated recall interviews will take place in the foyer / lounge of the language centre building – this provides an open public space, but with a seating set up that will provide privacy for participants in the interviews, thus the researcher and the student subjects will not be in any private or isolated situations.

Statement by student investigator(s):

I consider that the details given constitute a true summary of the project proposed

I have read, understood and will act in line with the LSS Student Research Ethics and Fieldwork Safety Guidance lines .

Name	Signature	Date
Nathan Ducker	███████████	08 – 06 – 2015

Statement by PhD supervisor

I have read the above project proposal and believe that this project only involves minimum risk. I also believe that the student(s) understand the ethical and safety issues which arise from this project.

Name	Signature	Date

This form must be signed and both staff and students need to keep copies.

Appendix Three: Classroom video recording consent form

Dear student,

We teachers are committed to improving our teaching and your learning. Therefore, as part of my PhD study I am conducting research into the classroom and classroom teaching, and I would like to invite you to help me with some research.

The purposes of this research is to make your classroom and other classrooms better places for speaking practice and learning how to speak. Therefore, I would like to ask your permission to record your class.

Here is what you need to know.

- I would like to request your permission to place a video camera and a microphone attached to this camera in one section of your classroom.
- This equipment will be focused on one section of your classroom only.
- Only the students who want to participate in the study will be recorded.
- You do not have to be recorded, however if you wish to be recorded you can request to do so.
- Unless you get close to the video or microphone, your face, body, and voice will not be recorded in the video.
- After I have recorded the students in their group activity, I will keep the video private, and will edit it so that only the relevant sections are viewed by participants in the video.
- The students in the video will, after the class, watch the video and make some comments on the video.
- The edited video will be viewed by myself, possibly my PhD supervisor, and the students directly recorded in the video.
- I will keep the video data (edited and raw) safe on my password protected laptop computer. This computer is kept in my office, which is locked when I am not using it.

If you have any questions, please contact the researcher (Nathan Ducker) at the below email address: nathanducker@gmail.com

Subject consent form

- ☐ I have read the description of the video data collection to be carried out by Nathan Ducker. I have had the opportunity to discuss it with him and ask any questions I have by email.

- ☐ I understand that Nathan Ducker needs my permission to place and use audio-visual equipment in my class.

- ☐ I understand the video will be focused on one section of the class only to minimise the chances of non-participating students from featuring in the video.

- ☐ I understand I do not have to feature in the video recording, but may if I want to.

- ☐ I understand that even if I do not wish to be recorded if I approach the equipment, there is a small chance my face, or body, or voice may be inadvertently recorded.

- ☐ I understand the video will be edited by Nathan Ducker and then relevant sections of the video will be shown to the participating students, and may also be shown to Nathan Ducker's PhD supervisor.

- ☐ I understand that all video data will be kept securely and safely on Nathan Ducker's laptop computer.

Please circle either 1 or 2
1. I give permission for this class to be videoed, and I give permission for the researcher to discuss the video with some of my classmates.

2. I do not give permission for the class to be videoed.

_____
Signature

_____
Print name

_____
E-mail address

Appendix Four: Participation explanation and consent form

Dear student,

We teachers are committed to improving our teaching and your learning. Therefore, as part of my PhD study I am conducting research into the classroom and classroom teaching, and I would like to invite you to help me with some research.

The purposes of this research is to make your classroom and other classrooms better places for speaking practice and learning how to speak. Therefore, I would like to invite you to participate in this study.

There are two stages to this study, if you agree to participate in the research.
- Part one of the study involves recording you and your classmates in a speaking activity of your teacher's choice in your regular classes.
- Part two involves watching a video of your own speaking activity, using some software to evaluate yourself in the activity, and answering some questions. Part-two is expected to last roughly 60 minutes and for this activity, you will be given a 2000-yen *quo card*.

Once you have watched the video and answered my questions, I will type up your responses and send you a copy of your responses. If you are unhappy with any of the responses or the research in anyway, you can remove your responses from the study. If you withdraw, you do not need to return the gift card I gave you.

The video I take of your class will only be used for the research purposes I described above. Therefore, the raw video with you in it will only be seen by me. An edited version with a section pertaining to this study will only be shown to you, other students in the video who agree to take part in the study, and in some cases my research supervisor. It will not be shown to other teachers, or other students not involved in the video, or anyone else not involved in the study.

Any information which we gain from the video will be used solely for the purposes of this research project which may include publications and presentations. During presentations and publications, you will not be identified and you will be described using a pseudonym.

Throughout the study I will do my utmost to protect your anonymity, privacy, and confidentiality.

If you have any questions, please contact the researcher (Nathan Ducker) at the below email address: nathanducker@gmail.com

Subject consent form

☐ I have read the description of the research project to be carried out by Nathan Ducker. I have had the opportunity to discuss it with him and ask any questions I have by email.

☐ I understand that only Nathan Ducker will watch the raw video of the class activity.

☐ I understand that myself, other participating students in my speaking group, and Nathan Ducker's research supervisor may also watch edited sections of the video.

☐ I understand that my name will be kept in confidence, and that my identity will not be revealed.

☐ I understand that the findings from the research will be used in presentations and in publications, but that my name and other identifying information will not be used in these presentations and publications.

☐ I understand that if during the research process (steps one or two), I feel uncomfortable or stressed out, I can stop and leave at any time without returning the gift cards that I have received.

☐ I understand that I can withdraw my information from this research up to a month after I have participated in an interview and checked my answers without returning the gifts cards that I have received.

_____
Signature

_____
Print name

_____
E-mail address

Appendix Five: Classroom-WTC scale (Doe, 2014)

This is a short survey about speaking English in the classroom. I'd like you to think about your English classes here at APU and tell me if you would do the following things or not. Please use the scale to answer the questions

I would never
do this

I would
definitely do this

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |

1. I'm willing to suggest a change of topic.
1. 英語の授業の中に、英語でトピックの変更を提案する。

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
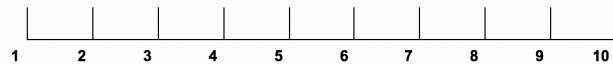
2. I'm willing to ask questions about other people's experiences.
2. 英語の授業の中に、英語で他のスピーカーの経験について質問する。

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
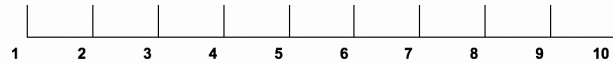
3. I'm willing to talk about my future plans.
3. 英語の授業の中に、英語で自分の将来の計画について説明する。

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
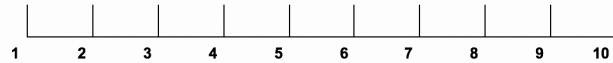
4. I'm willing to bring up a new topic.
4. 英語の授業の中に、英語で新しいトピックを提案する。

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
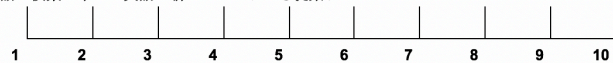
5. I'm willing to be the first person to speak.
5. 英語の授業の中に、英語でディスカッションで最初に発言する。

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
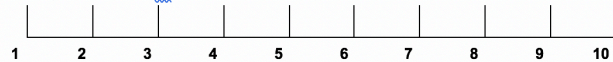
6. I'm willing to disagree with other speakers.
6. 英語の授業の中に、英語で他のスピーカーの意見に反対する。

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |

7. I'm willing to talk about my past experiences.
7. 英語の授業の中に、英語で自分の過去の経験について話す。

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
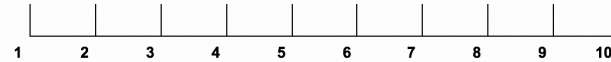
8. I'm willing to give examples to support my opinions.
8. 英語の授業の中に、英語で自分の意見をサポートする為に例を挙げる。

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
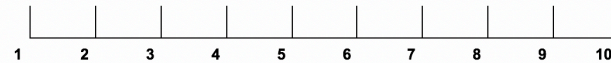
9. I'm willing to talk about things I like or I don't like.
9. 英語の授業の中に、英語で自分が好きな事又は嫌いな事について話す。

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
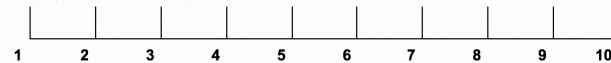
Appendix Six: Trait-WTC scale (McCroskey, 1992)

This is a short survey about speaking English in your everyday life. It is about when you are on campus, or in Beppu, or in your hometown. I'd like you to think about your everyday life and tell me if you would do the following things or not if you had a chance. Please use the scale to answer the questions.

I would never do this   **I would definitely do this**

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

1. Have a small-group conversation in English with acquaintances (people you know).
1. 知人同士の集まる小さなグループで、英語で会話をする。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

2. Give a presentation in English to a group of friends.
2. 友人達のグループに向けて、英語でプレゼンテーションを行う。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

3. Give a presentation in English to a group of strangers.
3. 見知らぬ人達のグループに向けて、英語でプレゼンテーションを行う。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

4. Participate in English in a large meeting among strangers.
4. 見知らぬ人達が集まる大きなグループで、英語で参加をする。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

5. Have a small-group conversation in English with strangers.
5. 見知らぬ人達の集まる小さなグループで、英語で会話をする。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

6. Participate in English in a large meeting among friends.
6. 友人達の集まる大きなグループで、英語で参加をする。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

7. Talk in English to a friend.
7. 友人達と英語で会話する。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

8. Participate in English in a large meeting with acquaintances (people you know).
8. 知人の集まる大きなグループで、英語で参加をする。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

9. Talk in English with an acquaintance (people you know).
9. 知人と英語で会話をする。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

10. Give a presentation in English to a group of acquaintances.
10. 知人のグループに向けて、英語でプレゼンテーションを行う。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

11. Talk in English to a stranger.
11. 見知らぬ人と英語で会話をする。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

12. Talk in English to a small group of friends.
12. 友人達の集まる小さなグループで、英語で会話をする。

1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

Appendix Seven: Stimulated recall procedures

Good Morning / Afternoon.

How are you today?

Thank you for coming to meet me.

My name is Nate? What is your name?

Was this your first exchange class?

Did you enjoy the exchange class? Do you usually enjoy exchange classes? Please explain.

Do you think exchange classes are useful for improving your English?
Please explain

Who was the most fun person for you to talk to in the class this morning / today / yesterday?

Who was the easiest person for you to talk to? And the most difficult?

Did you have a chance to answer the two short surveys about speaking English?

Thank you very much.

Today, I want to ask you questions about speaking English. I want to ask about what makes it easy for you to speak English or difficult to speak English.

Before the exchange class how did you feel?

After the class how did you feel?

Did you feel satisfied you had practiced English enough? Please explain.

Today, we will watch a video of you in the class. As you watch the video, I would like you to use the mouse button to show me how much you wanted or didn't want to speak.

Let me give you an example.

In the class, your teacher asks you a question. You didn't know the answer but your teacher asks you again and again. In this case you may feel you don't want to speak, even if you do speak.

Here is another example: In the class your friends are talking a lot, you are enjoying listening, but the grammar is difficult. Maybe you want to also speak but can't because of the grammar, or maybe you just want to listen but don't want to speak. In both cases, I am interested in your feeling, not your actual speaking.

Finally, maybe in class the teacher asks about homework. You really want to speak as you like the teacher and want to show him / her that you did the homework. But, someone else answers the question so you don't speak. Again. I am interested in your feeling, more than your actual speaking.

Ok. Let's take a look at the video.
Here is how to use the software.

Carry out the idiodynamic recall using software

Thank you very much. Would you like to take a break, go to the bathroom, or get a drink from the vending machine.
OK. I'd now like you explain your feelings, thoughts and opinions about the class.
We will watch the same video again, and I'd like you to stop the video and explain any of these:

Show sheet with examples:

- I wanted to speak and I could speak easily
- I wanted to speak and I couldn't speak
- I didn't want to speak at all
- I didn't want to speak a little
- I was shocked or surprised
- I was frustrated
- I was excited

Or anything else you may think interesting for me.
I may also stop the video and ask questions sometimes.

Question prompts include:
- *What were you thinking at this time? Please explain.*
- *How did you feel at this time? Please explain.*
- *At this time you looked / sounded < happy, confused, excited, bored, > Can you explain this?*
- *When < > did this, how did you feel / what did you think? Please explain.*

Carry out the stimulated recall

Thank you very much. Would you like to take a break, go to the bathroom, or get a drink from the vending machine?

Thank you for answering my questions. If you are OK, I'd like to ask you a few more questions about the video.....

Specifically tailored questions based on the recall video
- *can you tell me more about…*
- *you mentioned... please tell me about this*

In general, do you have any stereotypes of <country where speaking partner originated from>
How did you feel when you first met <   >.
Were they easy or difficult to talk to. Why?

Semi-structured questions on:
Prior international experience (Macintyre, Baker, Clément, & Conrod, 2001)
Have you had any chances to go abroad and use your English skills?
Do you have much experience with international students at this university?

International posture questions (Yashima, 2002; 2009; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004)
Do you have any experiences with foreigners in Japan? Please explain.
Do you have any interest in working or volunteering overseas in the future?
Do you pay attention to what is happening in other countries?
Are you interested in other countries cultures? How often do you check them out?

Attitudes to learning English (Dörnyei, 2002; Ryan, 2009)
Do you generally enjoy studying English? Please explain.

Perceived communicative competence (Macintyre & Charos, 1996; Ryan, 2009)
Compared to the rest of the class, how does your speaking English level compare do you think?

L2 Classroom Anxiety (Dörnyei, 2002; Macintyre & Charos, 1996)
Do you ever get any feelings of nervousness or embarrassment in the English classroom? Please explain.

Motivational intensity questions (Ryan, 2009; Yashima et al., 2004)
In general, do you think you study English hard?

Instrumentality of English (Dörnyei, 2002; Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000).
Do you think English will help you much in your future job? How so?
Will you use English much in your future life?

Milieu and Social support (Macintyre, Baker, Clément & Conrod, 2001; Ryan, 2009)
Do the people around you (friends, parents) encourage you to speak English on campus?
Do your friends seem positive to learn English?
Do you friends try to use English on campus?

Appendix Ten: Academic work inspired by this study

Ducker, N.T. (2016, Nov 26th). Towards a Japanese conceptualisation of willingness to communicate. *Paper delivered at the 42nd Japan Association for Language Teaching National Conference: Transformation in Language Education.* Nagoya, Japan.

Ducker, N.T. (2017, Sep 1st). Identity struggle in the classroom: WTC as a reflection of investments in self-development, group membership, and task completion. *Paper delivered at the 50th Annual Meeting of the British Association of Applied Linguistics: Diversity in Applied Linguistics: Opportunities, Challenges, Questions.* University of Leeds.

Ducker, N.T. (2017, Nov 16th) Helping students develop intercultural skills in the language classroom: What and how to teach. *2017 Yamaguchi Prefecture JET Program and ALT Professional Development Workshop, (plenary speaker).* Yamaguchi, Japan.

Ducker, N.T. (2017. Nov 18) Teaching conversation management for intercultural conversations. *Paper delivered at the 43rd Japan Association for Language Teaching National Conference: Language Teaching in a Global Age: Shaping the Classroom, Shaping the World.* Tsukuba, Japan.

Ducker, N.T. (2017, Nov 19) When WTC does and does not beget speech. *Paper delivered at the 43rd Japan Association for Language Teaching National Conference: Language Teaching in a Global Age: Shaping the Classroom, Shaping the World.* Tsukuba, Japan.

Ducker, N.T. (2017, Dec 1) Conversation management strategies for intercultural conversations. *Paper delivered at the Otomae University, Hiroshima JALT, & Institute for Intercultural Education professional development symposium: Culturally Familiar Material Development for EFL Education.* Otomae University: Nishinomiya, Japan.

Ducker, N.T. (2018, Jun 8). Mechanisms (dis)connecting WTC and speech: Investigating the moment when WTC does or does not become speech. *Paper delivered at the Psychology and language learning 3rd conference: Stretching Boundaries.* Tokyo, Japan.

Ducker, N.T. (2018, Nov 24). "Group" as a key motivational factor in WTC. *Paper delivered at The 44th Japan Association for Language Teaching National Conference: Diversity and Inclusion.* Shizuoka, Japan.

Ducker, N.T. (2019, Jan 26). Inside head: The psychology of an EFL conversation. *Paper delivered at the Oita JALT professional development workshop.* Oita, Japan.

Ducker, N. T. (2019). Mechanisms (Dis)connecting WTC and speech. In J. Mynard, & I. K. Brady (Eds.), Stretching Boundaries: Papers from the third International Psychology of Language Learning Conference, Tokyo, Japan: IAPLL, 30-32.

Ducker, N.T. (2019, Oct 14). Strategy conflict: Balancing L1 identities with L2 task requirements. *Paper delivered at The Third International Conference on Situating Strategy Use: Stepping into a New Era of Strategy Research and Practice.* Osaka, Japan.

Ducker, N.T. (2019, Nov 2). Student perceptions of learner differences. *Paper delivered at The 45th Japan Association for Language Teaching National Conference: Teacher Efficacy: Learner Agency.* Nagoya, Japan.

Ducker, N. T., (2019). Willingness to communicate. In Liontas, J. I. (Ed.), *The TESOL Encyclopedia of Language Teaching* (pp. 1-8). Oxford, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

Ducker, N. T., (in press). Non-verbal communication. In Liontas, J. I. (Ed.), *The TESOL Encyclopedia of Language Teaching* (pp. 1-8). Oxford, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

Ducker, N. T., (in press). Perceptions of silence in the classroom. In Liontas, J. I. (Ed.), *The TESOL Encyclopedia of Language Teaching* (pp. 1-8). Oxford, UK: John Wiley & Sons.

Ducker, N. (forthcoming). Variety, volatility, intensity: Understanding key characteristics of individual learner differences. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & P. Bennet (Eds.), *JALT2019 Conference Proceedings.* Tokyo: JALT.

Appendix Eleven: Descriptions of conversations

Conversation 1.1 (12 minutes) **Type: semi-scripted conversation dominated and controlled by international student(s)**

Natsumi (Japanese Female) TOEFL Score: current 470, high 507
Intercultural Experience: Short term exchange program in USA including homestay, 3rd exchange class, lives in multicultural dormitory, international friends on campus
WTC Ratings: Class 5, Trait 6.83, Variable; mean 2.71; SD 2.81, mode 0

Seo (Japanese Male) TOEFL score: 427
Intercultural Experience: Short term exchange program in USA, one-year volunteer program in the Philippines, 5th exchange class, international friends on campus
WTC Ratings: Class 5.3, Trait 4.17, Variable; mean 1.75, SD 2.66, mode 0

JZ (Samoan Male *TC and Dom***), Tiara (Thai Female)**

At the time of recording, Natsumi and Seo were enrolled in the intermediate-level course of the ELP and had previously completed two semesters of language education at the school. The ensuing conversation is distorted by an early critical whereby JZ assumes the role of leader and reads questions from the worksheet. Quantitative dominance is subsequently exerted by the Samoan Male, who takes 166 turns and uses 803 words compared to the Thai Female who takes 143 turns and uses 584 words. Conversely, the Japanese students assume relatively little floor time with Natsumi taking 117 turns and 282 words, and Seo 85 turns and 211 words.

Speech density is also markedly different between the Japanese students and international students. Both Japanese students record a little over 2.4 words per turn, while JZ and Tiara recorded 4.8 and 5.2 respectively. Furthermore, for both international students, a little over 30% of their turns are constructed from multiple TCUs, while Natsumi (7%) and Seo (8%) complete very few turns of multiple TCUs.

The quality of turns is also markedly different. 49.57% of Natsumi's turns are backchannels, compared to 33% for Seo and 24% for both international students. The relatively passive stance of both Japanese students is confirmed by the ratio of unsolicited statements to responses to direct questions: Natsumi, 0.0681; Seo, 0.0975; Tiara, 1.765 and JZ, 0.86. This indicates a more passive approach to information giving by the Japanese language students compared to a more pro-active approach to self-disclosure by the international students.

Topic dominance is also asserted by JZ who collaboratively initiated 12 topics compared to the Tiara's 6 topics. The Samoan male also unilaterally initiated a further 7 topics, and in some instances unilaterally *concluded* topics (lines 75, lines 239, lines 318, lines 355). He also asked 71 topic related questions compared to 32 topic related questions for Tiara, 9 for Seo, and 7 for Natsumi.

During the interview, both students mentioned factors that may have impacted their participation. Seo mentioned his shyness being a factor, but in a later interview reveled that he has a girlfriend from overseas and multiple international friends with whom he communicates in English. Natsumi mentioned problems with understanding eight times during her interview. She also describes herself as *"passive"* or *"taking the easy way"* during her interviews. Overall, both Seo and Natsumi found this conversation satisfying. Seo because he could make a new friend, while Natsumi learned new information about her partner's country.

Conversation 1.2 (16:30 minutes) **Type: semi-scripted conversation, then task; dominated and controlled by international student(s)**

Michelle (Japanese Female): TOEFL Score 420
Intercultural Experience: High school trip to the UK, university exchange program to Hawaii, Volunteer programs in Laos and Thailand, 2ⁿᵈ exchange class, international friends on campus.
WTC Ratings: Class 9, Trait 5.3333, variable mean -0.622568; SD 1.91; Mode -1

Kevin (Taiwanese Male enrolled with Japanese students) TOEFL score 450
Intercultural Experience: N/A
WTC Ratings: Class 7.4, Trait 5.5555, variable mean 3.91439; SD 2.8927; Mode 0

Mac (Korean Male *TC & Dom***), Angel (Thai Female** *Dom***)**

Kevin from Taiwan took part in the class. His participation is representative of a growing body of international students studying alongside home students throughout Japan, so his participation in conversations is reported. At the time of recording, Michelle and Kevin were enrolled in the intermediate-level course of the ELP. Both had previously experienced exchange classes.

Dominance in the conversation was exerted by the international students with Angel taking 73 turns and producing 590 words, and Mac taking 107 turns and 438 words. In comparison, Michelle took 66 turns and produced 227 words, and Kevin took 40 turns and produced 191 words. In terms of speech density, the Thai female's turns were distinctly longer than all the other participants at an average of 8.08 words per turn, compared to the Korean male (4.09), Kevin (4.775), and Michelle (3.459). In terms of TCU's, 46.5% of Angel's turns comprised of +1TCU, nearly more than double any of the other participants. (Michelle 21%, Kevin 17.5%, Mac 27%).

The quality of turn talking also greatly differed between the international students and the Japanese language students. 59% of Michelle's and 45% of Kuro's turns were back-channels, compared to 38% for the Korean male and only 25% for the Thai female. Additionally, the ratio unsolicited statements to responses to direct questions (Michelle, 1.4; Kevin, 1.25; Mac, 3.1; and Angel, 1.88) indicates a more passive approach to information giving by the Japanese language students compared to a more pro-active approach by the international students.

Control of the topics was established by the Korean male who initiated topic changes 5 times collaboratively compared to 2 times for the Thai female and once for Kevin. The Korean male also asked questions to further the topic discussion 17 times compared to 9 times for the Thai female, 4 times for Kevin, and 2 times for Michelle.

When interviewed about this conversation, Michelle indicated 15 times during the interview that the instructions, the speed of the international students' speech, and difficult vocabulary caused comprehension issues. Such issues may have accounted for her low WTC ratings for this activity (variable mean -0.622568; SD 1.91; Mode -1) compared to her trait-WTC ratings (class 9, trait 5.3333)

Kevin also mentioned that the teacher's instructions were difficult to follow, and that he did not know how to ask questions to participate in the conversation. Thus, indicating that the relatively low language proficiency of the Japanese language students affected their ability to participate and their WTC ratings. Kevin also indicated that the Korean male was easier and more fun to talk to. This, perhaps, indicates that the male's relatively shorter answers compared to the Thai female's and his efforts to ask more questions made him an apparently more sympathetic language partner for the Japanese language students. Overall, Michelle felt that her inability to participate in the conversation was a useful reminder of how much more she needed to study, while Kevin felt dissatisfied as he had not spoken enough during the activity.

Conversation 1.3 (11 minutes) **Type: semi-scripted conversation, dominance shared by Japanese student and international student but topic controlled by international student**

Annie (Japanese Female *Dom***):** TOEFL Score 450ish
Intercultural Experience: Independent solo travel to Korea, Nepal, Thailand, America; school trips to Australia and New Zealand; Accompanied parent to Singapore, 3rd exchange class.
WTC Ratings: Class 8.3, Trait 6.16, variable mean 0.875; SD 1.6; Mode 0

Hermione (Japanese female): Did not attend scheduled interview
Astrid (Nepalese female TC & *Dom***) Simon (Uzbek male)**

At the time of recording Annie was enrolled in the pre-intermediate level course of the ELP and had previously completed one semester of university language education. Despite her low WTC ratings for the activity (variable mean 0.875; SD 1.6; Mode 0), quantitative dominance was asserted by Annie (593 words and 95 turns) and Astrid (544 words and 76 turns). In comparison, Simon (166 words and 55 turns) and Hermione (188 words and 53 turns) were relatively quiet. Similarly, both Annie and Astrid constructed denser turns with Annie producing an average of 6.24 words per turn and Astrid 7.16 words per turn, while Hermione only produced on average 3.55 words per turn and Simon 3 words per turn. This is reflected in +1TCU: Only ten percent of Simon's turns were +1TCU with this number rising to 20% for Hermione, 30% for Annie, and 35.5% for Astrid.

Perhaps Annie's proactive stance towards conversation enables her to produce a greater quantity and density of language. She produces a comparatively lower percentage of backchannels as turns (39%) than Hermione (50%), and Simon (67%). Also, her ratio of unsolicited statements to responses to questions is the highest in the group: Annie 0.80, Astrid 0.61, Simon 0.5, and Hermione 0.36. Concerning pro-active participation, 6 of Annie's turns commence with her overlapping with another speaker, which is a phenomenon that has not been noted amongst the other Japanese speakers in this round of data collection.

While Annie dominates the conversation quantitatively, topic control is exerted by Astrid, who asks a total of 29 topic related questions, compared to 6 for Annie, 5 for Simon, and two for Hermione. Astrid also unilaterally starts 4 topics.

During the interview, Annie reported that she was satisfied with her participation and that she had enjoyed this activity. Multiple factors seem to have contributed to this positive outcome:

Topic: at this beginning of this conversation, Annie noticed that Astrid was from Nepal, where Annie had recently been traveling. This topic provided impetus for the early exchanges between Annie and Astrid, which neither Simone nor Hermione could participate in (lines 54 to 84):

Language ability: during this conversation, Annie judged it necessary to translate into Japanese for Hermione, giving Annie access to the conversation out of turn and impairing Hermione's chances to complete her turns;

Proactive speaking style: as described, Annie takes a proactive stance to turn-taking.

Facilitation: Astrid dominates the topics but uses her dominant role to ask 29 questions relevant to the Japanese speakers.

Overall Annie enjoyed this conversation, and was happy to make new friends.

Conversation 1.4 is reported on pages 94 and 95, section 5.1.1.

Conversation 2.1A (24:05 minutes) **Type: dominated / controlled by international student**

Michelle (Japanese Female): TOEFL Score 420
Intercultural Experience: High school trip to the UK, university exchange program to Hawaii, Volunteer programs in Laos and Thailand, 5th exchange class, 2nd interview, international friends on campus.
WTC Ratings: Class 5.3, Trait 4, variable mean 2.145; SD 1.09; Mode 2

Seo (Japanese Male) TOEFL score: 427
Intercultural Experience: Short term exchange program in USA, one-year volunteer program in the Philippines, 6th exchange class, 2nd interview, international friends on campus.
WTC Ratings: Class 5.4, Trait 5.5, Variable; mean 0.19, SD 0.9, mode 0

Mary (British Female)

Both participants had previously taken part in data collection and reported differences with previous WTC ratings. Michelle's background ratings were lower: (class 9 → 5.3, Trait 5.3 → 4), while her variable score was higher: (variable mean -0.622568 → 2.145; Mode -1 → +2). One potential reason for the increase in variable WTC is the fact that she had already done a previous exchange class with the same class of international students, so she could "*relax a little bit*". Conversely, Seo's background ratings increased marginally (class 5.3 → 5.4, Trait 4.17 → 5.5), while his variable scores were slightly lower: (mean 1.75 → 0.19). Seo admitted he had very little interest in practicing his English during this exchange class as he had extracurricular opportunities to practice his English and was tired from visiting the gym before class, which may account for his low variable WTC ratings.

Quantitatively and qualitatively, this conversation was dominated by the international student, Mary. Mary took more turns (162) than both Seo (100) and Michelle (110). She also used far more words (1808) than Seo (274), or Michelle (412). Accordingly, the density of Mary's turns was also very different: 11.16 words per turn compared to Seo's 2.74 and Michelle's 3.75. Similarly, while Michelle only had 17 turns +1TCU, and Seo only 15 turns, Mary took 76 turns of +1TCU. This disparity in turn quality is also reflected in Mary's ratio of unsolicited statements to responses to direct questions (42 / 7 = 6) compared to Seo (8 / 34 = 0.235) and Michelle (12 / 13 = 0.92). Mary's positive stance in this conversation is somewhat necessitated by the lack of questions formed by Seo (3) and Michelle (7), which led to Mary having to control the whole conversation by collaboratively initiating topics 16 times and asking 37 topic related questions, leading to her describing the conversation as *"brutal"*, (line 127).

Seo enjoyed this conversation because he felt he did not have to try hard to talk and could enjoy listening, while Michelle felt disappointed as she hadn't practiced speaking enough.

Conversation 2.1B (15:05 minutes) **Type: Semi-scripted, dominated by international student**

Michelle (Japanese Female): TOEFL Score 420
Intercultural Experience: High school trip to the UK, university exchange program to Hawaii, Volunteer programs in Laos and Thailand, 5th exchange class, 2nd interview, international friends on campus.
WTC Ratings: Class 5.3, Trait 4, variable mean 3.63; SD 0.61; Mode 4

Seo (Japanese Male) TOEFL score: 427
Intercultural Experience: Short term exchange program in USA, one-year volunteer program in the Philippines, 6th exchange class, 2nd interview, international friends on campus.
WTC Ratings: Class 5.4, Trait 5.5, Variable; mean 0.21, SD 0.83, mode 0

Gary (British Male)

This conversation was carried out immediately following [2.1A]. Seo and Michelle remained in their seats, and the international student switched to a different group. The incoming international student and Seo had previously met, so Seo might have been expected to feel more relaxed and, as such, report higher rates of WTC; however, it is in fact Michelle whose WTC score increases with her mean score increasing from 2.145 to 3.63, and her mode rating increasing from 2 to 4. When questioned about this, Michelle explained that it was easier to understand Gary than Mary.

Additionally, as they were using scripted interviews as prompts for this discussion, Michelle indicated that she did not have to think during the conversation; thus, reducing her cognitive load and allowing her to concentrate better in participating in the conversation.

Scripts somewhat distorted the conversation. During the first half of the conversation, Seo uses his script, and so most of the conversation revolves around Gabrielle listening to questions from the interview sheet and responding. In the second half of the conversation, Michelle's script is used, and the same pattern repeats itself. As might be expected, Gary quantitatively dominates this conversation with 120 turns at an average of 4.58 words per turn. In comparison Seo takes 91 turns at an average of 3.3 words per turn, and Michelle takes 68 turns at an average of 1.93 words per turn. The turn density scores are reflected in Gary taking 51 turns with +1TCU, while Seo (13) and Michelle (6) had relatively few turns of +1TCU.

Finally, perhaps due to the fact that the number of questions Gary had to field during the conversation was somewhat dictated by the interview schedules, the ratio of unsolicited turns compared to responses to direct questions was similar for each participant: Gary = 0.77, Michelle = 0.66, Seo = 0.55. Interestingly, when possible, Michelle was proactive in asking 13 extra questions during the interviews; she asked 4 questions unrelated to the interview schedule, 7 language related questions, and 2 follow-up questions directly related to responses from the interview schedule. In comparison Gabrielle asked 9 language related checking questions, but only one non-interview related question and one follow-up question. During the post-activity interview Michelle indicated that, generally, her low pro-active turn-taking was not due to a lack of intention but rather a competency issue: "*I didn't know how to say it, I tried to think of the grammar, but I couldn't find the words to say. So, I thought, 'I don't know how to say it' and then I couldn't speak*". The question of competency and (in)ability to speak affecting WTC is described in the WTC—talk realisation model.

Overall, Seo enjoyed this conversation because he was partnered with a friend, and he is a fan of British music culture, where Gary comes from. Michelle felt disappointed as she hadn't practiced speaking enough.

Conversation 2.2A (18:25 minutes) **Type: Semi-scripted, dominated by Japanese student, controlled by international student**

Annie (Japanese Female *dom***):** TOEFL Score 450ish
Intercultural Experience: Independent solo travel to Korea, Nepal, Thailand, America; school trips to Australia and New Zealand; Accompanied parent to Singapore, 3rd exchange class.
WTC Ratings: Class 8.8, Trait 8.083, variable mean 1.33; SD 2.14; Mode 0

Kerry (Japanese female): Did not attend scheduled interview

Henry (Korean Male)
Macey (Tongan Female)

As in her previous activity [1.3], Annie quantitatively dominated the conversation. She took 145 turns, compared with 91 for Macey, 83 for Kerry, and 73 for Henry. She also used nearly triple the number of words (927) of any of the other participants (Henry 360, Macey 337, Kerry 228). Annie also produced denser turns. Her average words per turn was 6.39, compared to 4.93 for Henry, 3.7 for Macey, and 2.75 for Kerry. Annie also produced far more turns of +1TCU, 62 compared to 24 from Henry, 18 from Macey, and 12 from Kerry.

Conversely, Annie did not behave in a more proactive manner than her partners. In terms of backchanneling, 45% of both Annie's and Macey's turns were backchannels, while this number was higher at 58% for Kerry but much lower at 26% for Henry. Additionally, concerning the ratio of unsolicited turns to responses to direct questions, Annie and Kerry had similar scores (0.61 and 0.63 respectively), while Henry and Macey were more positive in their turn-taking efforts with ratios of 0.93 and 1.125 respectively.

What can account for Annie's dominance in the conversation then? Control over the topics in the conversation was asserted by the international students; Henry asked 19 topic related questions and initiated 3 topics, and Macey asked 15 questions and initiated 4 topics compared to Annie asking 11 questions and initiating one topic and Kerry asking 2 topic related questions. The explanation lies in Annie demonstrating greater communicative competence and communicative confidence than Kerry.

At the beginning of the conversation, Annie proactively volunteers to introduce herself first, without hesitating to check if it is OK to speak first, or without checking for any guidance as to what to say. This is atypical behavior for Japanese students in these conversations (line 59). As Henry interrupts, Annie then continues to introduce herself (line 61), and then finishes her introduction with a joke (line 64):

	55	T	ok hello nice to meet you
	56	all	(*to each other*) hello nice to meet you
	57	A	what introduction ha ha
	58	KM	yes
→	59	A	[ok i
	60	KM	[five minutes
→	61	A	ok so i'm first hiya hello i'm AAAA ah se uh first year second semester err my major
	62		is APM yeah and umm my hobby is singing dancing playing watching soccer [and err
	63		umm traveling alone yeah and uh tomorrow i will performance ah [osaka week grand
→	64		show so IF you're free please come [ha ha ha thank you

Annie continues to display greater confidence and competence than Kerry; when discussing Kerry's food preferences, Annie responds to a question directed at Kerry (line 177) and then acts as a kind of translator rephrasing Henry's question with hand gestures in line 180.

```
    174  KM    how do you eat natto
    175  A     natto
    176  KM    un
→   177  A     so she like she she in the morning [fu for the breakfast she often eat
    178  KM                                        [ah in the morning
    179  KM    ah::: with rice
→   180  A     like rice (indicates mixing rice and natto with hands to K)
    181  K     uu nn
```

Thus, when the international students asked questions, they were usually fielded by Annie first before Kerry could take a turn to respond.

In the following example, Henry (KM) asks a question to both the Japanese students, but Annie responds first, leaving Kerry with little conversational work to do (line 185). Annie translates the question for Kerry (line 191), but then continues to answer the question, leaving Kerry with little to do, but listen and backchannel (line 201).

```
    183  KM    oh owa i:: have a question about uh japanese food uh i see this uh uh water with egg in
    184        it
→   185  A     ah:[:: onsen tamago
    186  KM       [wh
    187  KM    ah
    188  A     like li like in co-op
    189  KM    un ah co-op and cafeteria [shokudo as well
    190  A                               [cafeteria
→   191  A     [ah (to K) cafeteria so like onsen tamago nanka aru yan so hanjuku tamago like ah so
    192        (to KM) a little boiled right [little boiled
    193  K     [ah
    194  KM                                  [little bit
    195  A     yeah yeah yeah
    196  KM    [how do you eat it
    197  TF    [like half
    198  A     ah so like . soy sauce and then uh nandarao [put on rice or ... um . tsu: .. ah i often eat
    199        like put on the rice [ and the e so this like egg and then okura [what do you say okura
    200        like green green mix mix [it's [very good ya::h it's very good
→   201  K                                     [pfhu hu hu
    202                          [BELL RINGS TO INDICATE END OF ACTIVITY
    203  KM                                                          [ah::
    204  KM                          [ah (mimics A's hand signals)
    205  T                                  [(begins explanation of next activity)
    206  KM    i'll try it
```

In this way, while the international students provided questions and initiated topics, most of the first responses to questions were offered by Annie, allowing her to quantitatively dominate the conversation.

Overall, Annie felt that she had been unable to explain herself clearly and was left disappointed.

Conversation 2.2B is reported on pages 96—98, section 5.1.2.

Conversation 2.3A (19:26 minutes) **Type: Semi-scripted, dominated and controlled by international female student**

Chi-Chi (Japanese Female): TOEFL Score 480
Intercultural Experience: Homestay in the USA three times; lives in multicultural dormitory
WTC Ratings: Class 5.9, Trait 6.42, variable mean 7.57; SD 1.76; Mode 9

Tad (Japanese male):
Intercultural Experience: Short overseas vacations, lives in multicultural dormitory, 3rd exchange class
WTC Ratings: Class 6.2, Trait 6.7, variable mean -0.44; SD 1.44; Mode 0

Sai (Indian Male)
Ji-Hye (Korean Female)

As with the previously described conversation [2.2B], Ji-Hye dominated and controlled the conversation. She took 153 turns, compared to 134 for Tad, 121 for Sai, and 73 for Chi-Chi. She also spoke over double the number of words of any of the other participants. Ji-Hye spoke 940 words compared to 383 words for Sai, 353 words for Tad, and 262 words for Chi-Chi. When comparing talk produced to WTC ratings there is a clear discrepancy. Chi-Chi's mean WTC rating for this activity was 7.57, while her mode rating was 9. In comparison Tad's mean rating was negative 0.44 and mode 0. Yet tad produced 90 more words than Chi-Chi and had nearly double the number of turns. This clearly indicates that there is a discrepancy between WTC ratings and speech production.

As might be expected, given her qualitative dominance, Ji-Hye produced "denser" turns than the other members of the group. Ji-Hye produced turns of an average of 6.14 words, compared to an average of 3.6 words per turn for Chi-Chi, 3.17 words for Sai, and Tad producing an average of only 2.63 words per turn. Similarly, Ji-Hye produced 34 turns of +1 TCU compared to 20 for Sai, and 18 for Tad, with Chi-Chi only producing 9 turns of +1TCU. Given her high WTC ratings, Chi-Chi's low production seems counterintuitive and is worthy of further investigation.

Perhaps one reason for Chi-Chi's comparatively low level of talk during the conversation is her passive stance. First of all, Chi-Chi's ratio of unsolicited turns taken compared to responses to direct questions was 5/14 = 0.36. Both Tad and Sai had slightly higher ratios at 0.88 and 0.64 respectively. However, Ji-Hye's ratio was much higher at 2.75. Ji-Hye's positive stance to the conversation can also be seen in her collaboratively initiating topic changes 9 times, compared to 5 times for Sai, 2 times for Tad, and zero times for Chi-Chi. She also asked 43 topic-based questions, compared to 21 topic-questions for Sai, and 10 questions for Tad, with Chi-Chi asking only one topic-based question.

During the post-task interview, Chi-Chi admitted that she found some of the questions in the conversation "confusing" and that she was also hesitant to take-turns before her partners. She also recognised Ji-Hye as the leader of the group, this was due to her being older than the Japanese participants and the proactive nature of Korean students in previous encounters. Similarly, Tad admits to allowing other to speak first so he can "*guess what I should do*" based on their responses.

Given the passivity of Tad and Chi-Chi's attitudes, it seems that Ji-Hye is forced to take control of the conversation. This can be seen in the following excerpt whereby Ji-Hye reads a question from the teacher's prompt list and after waiting for a response (line 356) for over 3 seconds, decides to respond herself. Then she is forced to elicit responses from the other members in turn (see line 364 and line 377), and to then vocalise potential responses (lines 368 & 374) as the other participants do not proactively offer their own responses.

	355	KF	mm let's move on to the second question we shouldn't allow children to eat fast food [
→	356		should we allow them to eat fast food or not (3.5) i think it depends [me i think it
	357		depends because umm if some children have um health problems or if they gain to much
	358		weight or they are weak on some parts i think it's gonna be better if they um hold onto
	359		um i mean keep it down a little bit but i don't think it should be banned [un so i think this
	360		strong this question also is too strong
	361	T	[un
	362	C	[un
	363	C	[un
→	364	IM	(2.5) what about you (*indicates to T*)
	365	T	ah ha
	366	IM	he he he (2)
	367	T	(*points to item on paper*)
→	368	KF	it depends (*writes for T*)
	369	T	(3) eh so: yeah so uh i think also you [so so i don't have reason [bu hu hut but
	370	KF	[un
	371	KF	[un pfhu hu
	372	C	[pfhu
	373	IM	[hu hu
→	374	KF	so they could eat [eat if it's not too much
	375	T	[yeah
	376	T	yeah
→	377	KF	hm *chika ha*

Overall, Tad was disappointed with his contributions to this conversation and felt he had not spoken enough. Chi-Chi enjoyed the conversation but also felt like she had not spoken enough.

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Conversation 2.3B (19:26 minutes) **Type: Semi-scripted, dominated and controlled by international female student**

Chi-Chi (Japanese Female): TOEFL Score 480
Intercultural Experience: Homestay in the USA three times; lives in multicultural dormitory
WTC Ratings: Class 5.9, Trait 6.42, did not complete second interview due to time constraints

Tad (Japanese male):
Intercultural Experience: Short overseas vacations, lives in multicultural dormitory, 3rd exchange class
WTC Ratings: Class 6.2, Trait 6.7, variable mean 0.33; SD 1.0; Mode 0

Henry (Korean Male)
Macey (Tongan Female)

This conversation was qualitatively dominated by the female international student Macey, but her level of talk compared to participation by Tad was not large. Conversely, Henry and Chi-Chi's level of participation was low. Macey took 169 turns and used 557 words, compared to Tad's 152 turns and 430 words, while Henry took 98 turns and used 334 words, and Chi-Chi only took 69 turns and used 290 words.

Interestingly, considering she used the fewest total turns and total words, the longest turn was taken by Chi-Chi (62 words), which was roughly triple the length of any other turn (Tad 22 words; Macey 18 words; Henry 24 words). This discrepancy was also mirrored in the fact that Chi-Chi's turn density was 4.2 words per turn, compared to 2.8 for Tad, 3.3 for Macey, and 3.4 for Henry. This discrepancy merits further investigation; it possibly indicates that Chi-Chi's difficulties in participating (note she rates similarly in trait WTC scores to Tad, and in the previous conversation her in-situ mean of 7.57 and mode score or 9 were the highest for any participant) are perhaps related to strategic competency or gender issues rather than grammatical or structural issues.

A further discrepancy is that while Chi-Chi is capable of producing longer turns, she produces fewer turns of +1TCU. In this instance, Macey's quantitative dominance is reflected in the fact that she took double the number of turns of two or more TCUs (31) than the other participants (Chi-Chi 15, Tad 16, Henry 13).

In terms of control, Macey unilaterally initiated one topic, collaboratively initiated 5 topics, and asked 40 topic related questions; while Henry collaboratively initiated 5 topics, and asked 14 topic related questions; and Tad unilaterally initiated one topic, collaboratively initiated two topics, and asked twenty topic related questions. On the other hand, Chi-Chi did not initiate any new topics, nor did she ask any topic related questions. Due to time constraints, Chi-Chi did not interview for this video, so the reasons for this lack of topic control involvement is unclear.

In a similar pattern to control of topics, Chi-Chi maintained a very passive stance towards the activity. 52% of her turns were back channels compared to 41% for Henry, 33% for Macey, and 30% for Tad. Chi-Chi also had a much lower ratio of proactive turns with a ratio of unsolicited turns taken compared to responses to direct questions of 0.5, while Tad's ratio was 0.73, Henry's ratio was 0.91, and Macey's ratio was 0.96.

Conversation 3.1 (14:50 minutes)**: Type: Unscripted task, dominated and controlled by international male student**

Natsumi (Japanese Female) TOEFL Score: current 470, high 507
Intercultural Experience: Short term exchange program in USA including homestay, 3rd exchange class, lives in multicultural dormitory, international friends on campus
WTC Ratings: Class 5.56, Trait 7.67, Variable; mean 2.1; SD 2.49, mode 0

Seo (Japanese Male) TOEFL score: 427
Intercultural Experience: Short term exchange program in USA, one-year volunteer program in the Philippines, 5th exchange class, international friends on campus
WTC ratings: Class 5, trait 5.5, Variable; mean -0.1, SD 0.63, mode 0

Kevin (Taiwanese Male enrolled with Japanese students) TOEFL score 450
Intercultural Experience: N/A
WTC Ratings: Class 7.4, Trait 5.8, variable mean 5.09; SD 2.09; Mode 4

The Japanese department cancelled the exchange class at the last minute; however, as arrangements for recording had already been made, the scheduled activity went ahead with only the Japanese students from the English language department in attendance.

Due to an early difference of opinions between Kevin and Seo, Seo effectively withdrew his participation from the activity. In terms of dominance and control, Natsumi and Kevin shared similar levels of participation. Natsumi had 84 turns, while Kevin had 72 turns, and Seo only 31 turns. Similarly, Kevin spoke a totally of 263 words, while Natsumi spoke 220 words, but Seo only spoke a total of 86 words. Kevin's turns were slightly 'denser' at 3.65 words per turn, while Seo's average was 2.77 words per turn, and Natsumi's average was 2.62. However, considering that for long periods, Seo did not contribute, these averages may be a misleading indicator of participation.

In terms of proactive participation, Kevin had a much more proactive stance than Natsumi. His ratio of unsolicited turns to responses to direct questions was 3 compared to 0.4 for Natsumi. Conversely, Natsumi actually had 13 turns of +1TCU compared to Kevin's 9. During her interviews, Natsumi mentioned that her strategic speaking skills "*I'm too slow to speak*" and her grammatical competencies "*I know what I want to say, but I don't know how to say it in English*" both negatively impacted her participation. Interestingly, while Seo's reticence limited the quality of the conversation, both Kevin and Natsumi saw this as a factor in increasing their WTC. Kevin: "…it is an opportunity and I can practice my English." Natsumi: "*So I had to speak at this time, because nobody was speaking…*".

Finally, during this conversation, perhaps due to the students' difficulties in thinking of topics to discuss, each participant records a high level of backchanneling: Seo 55% of turns, Kevin 52% of turns, and Natsumi 62% or turns. In previous conversations, while one or two participants may realise close to 50% of turns as backchannels, for all members of the group to do so is atypical of this study.

Overall, Kevin was disappointed and, therefore, glad when the activity finished, Seo felt unsatisfied with his English practice, as did Natsumi who described how this feeling reminded her how much harder she needed to try in the future.

Conversation 3.2 (25:14 minutes)**: Type: Unscripted task, dominated and controlled by Japanese Male student**

Tad
Intercultural Experience: Short overseas vacations, lives in multicultural dormitory,
WTC Ratings: Class 6.9, Trait 6.4, variable mean 0.77; SD 1.55; Mode 0

Michael
Intercultural Experience: Lives in multicultural dormitory, has international friends on the rugby team, traveled with family to Hawaii for vacation.
WTC Ratings: Class 5.0, Trait 3.67, variable mean 0.57; SD 1.31; Mode 0

Chi-Chi (Japanese Female): TOEFL Score 480
Intercultural Experience: Homestay in the USA three times; lives in multicultural dormitory
WTC Ratings: Class 4.9, Trait 6.0, variable mean 7; S.D; 1.47; Mode 7

Keo
Intercultural Experience: Lives in multicultural dormitory, but uses Japanese only.
WTC Ratings: Class 5.2, Trait 4.8, variable mean 0.2; SD 1.7; Mode 0

The Japanese department cancelled the exchange class at the last minute; however, as arrangements for recording had already been made, the scheduled activity went ahead with only the Japanese students from the English language department in attendance.

This conversation is the starkest example of WTC ratings having little bearing on actual participation. In this conversation, Chi-Chi records high mean and mode WTC ratings of 7, yet was dominated both quantitatively and qualitatively by Tad and Michael who recorded much lower mean WTC ratings of 0.77 and 0.57 respectively, and a mode score of 0 for both.

In spite of these low WTC ratings, Tad recorded 172 turns, and Michael 175 turns. Chi-Chi realised 131 turns, while Keo only recorded 38 turns. Similarly, Tad recorded 756 words, while Michael recorded 581 words, but Chi-Chi only recorded 241 words, and Keo reported even fewer (99) words. As a result of these scores, Tad's average words per turn was 4.4, and Michael's was 3.32; but, due to an extremely low number of turns, Keo actual had a higher number of words per turn (2.6) than Chi-Chi (1.84). Similarly, in terms of TCUs, Tad had 39 turns of +1TCU and Michael 27 turns of +1TCU. As reflected in their low words per turn score, Chi-Chi only had two turns of +1TCU and Keo only 6.

In addition to low turn density, one of the key characteristics of Chi-Chi's conversational actions was her extreme passivity: 92% of her turns were backchannels (Tad = 33%, Michael = 49%, Keo 42%), leaving her with only 8 statements and one topic question during the rest of the conversation. This was explained by Chi-Chi during her interview: "I'm not used to be like surrounding surrounding many boys."

Chi-Chi describes Tad and Michael as funny and enjoyable to listen to, but she also explains that their presence as a group of boys has a negative influence on her WTC. Keo, conversely, puts his lack of participation down to his own personal characteristics rather than being a function of his relationship with group members. In his interview, Keo describes himself as "extremely shy" in both English and Japanese. During the interview, he frequently describes how he allows others to speak before him and then has nothing left to add to the conversation.

Comparing Tad and Michael, Tad clearly takes the lead role by asking the initial question (line 09) when the discussion begins. He then immediately follows up with his own unsolicited opinions of the topic of school festivals (line 15).

→	09	T	do you have ever been there (*points to M*)
	10	M	how about you
	11	T	i think AAA festival is *tenkusaidai*
	12	M	uuh AAA festival
	13	T	i think AAA festival s
	14	M	ah uh favorite festival
→	15	T	i think .. [AAA week i like AAA week but i don't like AAA festival [ah (*looks at C*)
	16		*tenkusai* [i think eh i joined Vietnam week because my RA is from Vietnam [so he [
	17		he (*indicates pulling towards him with two hands*) how to say so [i agree to join
	18		vietnam week so i joined [so it's this week makes me friends [a lot [yeah so i like
	19		vietnam week that's the reason how about you (looks at M)

Tad's proactive stance in the conversation is also reflected in his asking 31 topics questions compared to Michael's 16 questions. He also has a ratio of unsolicited statements to responses to direct questions of 2.3 compared to Michael's ratio of 1.5. While Chi-Chi and Keo's low instances of participation are reflected in very passive stances with a ratio of 0.3 and Keo a ratio of 0.19. Tad's proactive stance and leadership are intriguing because in previous conversations (conversation 2.3A and 2.3B) Tad was dominated by international students. This phenomenon requires further investigation; but, a priori, it can be guessed that the task design and level of sophistication of the questions being asked by international students in previous activities may play a role.

Keo was relieved the activity was over, Chi-Chi was unsatisfied with her participation, and Michael felt he had spoken more than usual so was satisfied.

Conversation 4.1 (14:30 minutes)**: Type: Semi-scripted, dominated and controlled by international male student**

Harry
Intercultural Experience: One year in Iceland as a volunteer activity, some short trips overseas with family, previously lived in multicultural dormitory,
WTC Ratings: Class 5.66, Trait 6.41, variable mean 0.517; SD 1.66; Mode 0

Michael
Intercultural Experience: Lives in multicultural dormitory, has international friends on the rugby team, traveled with family to Hawaii for vacation.
WTC Ratings: Class 5.5, Trait 2.75, variable mean 0.067; SD 1.15; Mode 0

Rafi (Bangladeshi Male)
Min-Seo (Korean Female)

This conversation is controlled and dominated by the Bangladeshi student, Rafi. During the conversation, the students pick pre-written questions that are distributed by the teacher to generate talk and follow-up questions. In terms of control, not only does Rafi initiate the first substantive act of the conversation; but, in an early critical incident, in contradiction to the perceptions of the other members of the group, Rafi initiates a 'new question per person' rather than 'same question for each member' policy. As shown below, Michael has finished responding to the first question picked (*if you could go anywhere, where would you go?*) when Rafi directs him to ask a new question (line 60). The other members of the group disagree (lines 61 and 63), but Rafi forces them to continue the "new question per person" policy (line 64), which Michael and Min-Seo subsequently do.

	58	M	yeah if i can go (*points up*) space i can die
	59	KF	[ok cool ok
→	60	BM	[ok ok so now the next [question
→	61	KF	[no no (*indicates that they should also ask H the same question*)
	62		what about him
→	63	M	no how about you (*indicates H with hand*)=
→	64	BM	=no no no YOU can ask the next question to her
	65	M	ah ok (*reads*)so what make you sad
	66	KF	(*reaches for paper to read it*)
	67	M	what makes you sad
	68	KF	what makes me sad
	69	M	yeah

This critical incident not only affects the ensuing communicative behaviors of all the participants in the conversation, but also impacts the WTC of both Michael and Harry in both the current conversation *and in the following activity with new partners.*

As the conversation continues, Rafi maintains control of the activity by both holding the conversation prompts and distributing them when he sees fit, and then by dictating to whom the question is then asked. This pattern of behavior allows Rafi to initiate 14 of the 15 topics discussed in the conversation. Beyond this controlling behavior, both Rafi and Min-Seo ask more topic related questions (18 and 21 respectively) than Michael and Hiyori (9 and 4 respectively).

Not only did Rafi control the conversation, but he dominated in terms of quantity and density of speech. Rafi used 916 words over 113 turns, while Min-Seo spoke 551 words also over 113 turns. In contrast, Michael had a similar number of turns (118) but only used 315 words, while Harry took 82 turns and used 289 words. Rafi's dominance is also reflected in the

density of the turns each interlocutor took. Rafi had an average words per turn count of 8.1 while Min-Seo used an average of 4.87 words per turn, while Harry used an average of 3.5 words per turn, and Michael used 2.67 words per turn. Similarly, Rafi had 52 turns of +1TCU, Min-Seo had 27, and Michael and Hiyori had only 16 and 17 turns, respectively, of +1TCU.

Perhaps, the relative differences in passive and pro-active behaviors of the interlocutors can also help account for Rafi's dominance. Rafi's ratio of unsolicited turns compared to direct responses to questions was 33 / 16 = 2.06, while Min-Seo's ration was also above 1 (21 / 13= 1.62), indicating a more pro-active stance to information giving. Conversely, Harry had a ratio of 6 / 14 = 0.43 and Michael a ratio of 7 / 30 = 0.23, indicating both Japanese students had similarly passive stances. One question that arises from these ratios is related to the fact that while all speakers fielded a new topic in turn and should, therefore, have had similar opportunities to talk, Michael received more than double the number of direct questions that Harry received, 30 as opposed to 14. This phenomenon merits further attention because if students are able to tailor their responses or their behavior to generate a greater number of questions, then they will have more opportunities to practice communicating.

Conversation 4.2 is reported on pages 99—101, section 5.1.3.

Conversation 5.1 (13.26 minutes)**: Type: Unscripted, dominated and controlled by Japanese male student.**

Terry (Japanese Male): TOEFL Score 473
Intercultural Experience: High school trip to the USA, lives and works in the international dormitory on campus, 3rd exchange class
WTC Ratings: Class 4.2, Trait 5, variable mean 5.31; SD 1.43; mode 5

Kobe (Japanese Male): TOEFL Score 380
Intercultural Experience: Trip to UK to meet family friends, rugby tour of Australia, has international friends on the rugby team, uses English with mother who uses English at work.
WTC Ratings: Class 4.6, Trait 6, variable mean 6.09; SD 0.44; mode 6

Daw – (Thai Female)
Anong – (Thai Female)

In this conversation, while Kobe's WTC ratings are higher than Terry's, it is Terry who produces a greater quantity and density of speech, indicating that, perhaps, WTC ratings are not indicative of conversational behavior. In terms of quantity of speech, there is relatively little difference between the number of times each participant speaks. Kobe speaks 101 times, Daw 138 times, Anong 112 times, and Terry 124 times. However, when it comes to words spoken, Terry uses more than double the number of words of any other participant: Terry 882 words, Kobe 414 words, Daw 407 words, Anong 323 words. As might be expected from this data, Terry has a much higher density of speech than the other participants. Firstly, Terry uses an average of 7.11 words per turn, compared to 4.09 words per turn for Kobe, and 2.95 and 2.88 words per turn for Daw and Anong respectively. In a similar fashion, Terry takes 41 turns of +1TCU, while Kobe has 26, Daw 24, and Anong 17 turns of +1TCU.

In terms of controlling the conversation, Terry has the main role. Terry initiates ten topics compared to two each for the other participants. He also asks 29 topic related questions, while both Kobe and Daw ask 12, and Anong 11, topic related questions.

Correspondingly, Terry is a much more proactive speaker than the other participants. His ratio of unsolicited turns compared to direct responses to questions was 14 / 18 = 1.75, while Anong records a ratio of 15 / 21 = 0.7, Kobe a ratio of 6 / 14 = 0.43, and Daw a ratio of 12 / 40 = 0.3. An interesting issue is the fact that Daw responded to 40 or more opportunities to speak (questions and backchannels) compared to 14 for Kobe and 21 for Anong. Again, one important question is what mechanism is creating the opportunities that allow Daw a far greater level of turn-taking opportunities than both Kobe and Anong.

Conversation 5.2 (10.06 minutes)**: Type: Unscripted, dominance shared by international male student and Japanese male student, controlled by Japanese male student.**

Terry (Japanese Male): TOEFL Score 473
Intercultural Experience: High school trip to the USA, lives and works in the international dormitory on campus, 3rd exchange class
WTC Ratings: Class 4.2, Trait 5, variable mean 5.86; SD 0.7; mode 6

Kobe (Japanese Male): TOEFL Score 380
Intercultural Experience: Trip to UK to meet family friends, rugby tour of Australia, has international friends on the rugby team, uses English with mother who uses English at work.
WTC Ratings: Class 4.6, Trait 6, variable mean 7.37; SD 1.6; mode 7.

Ha-eun – (Korean Female)
Aloka – (Sri Lankan Male)

As in the previous conversation, the two Japanese interlocutors both return similar trait- and in-situ WTC ratings. However, while Kobe's ratings are higher than Terry's, it is Terry who produces a greater quantity and density of speech. First, Terry has 108 turns, compared to 98 for Aloka, 79 for Kobe, and 59 for Ha-eun. Similarly, Terry produces 604 words, while Aloka uses 543 words, Kota 459 words, and Ha-eun only 184. Concerning speech density, there is little difference between Terry, Aloka, and Kobe in terms of words per turn (5.81, 5.59, and 5.54 respectively); however, with only 3.11 words per turn Ha-eun clearly has lower speech density that the others. In term of +1TCU, Terry (42) has greater speech density than Aloka (30) and Kobe (22), both of whom have greater density than Ha-eun who only has 7 turns of +1TCU.

Given that Kobe actually returns higher WTC ratings than Terry, but it is Terry who produces more words and more turns one key issue is that perhaps WTC ratings cannot be used to either compare students potential speaking levels or predict actual participation levels. As Kobe points out, developing "how to have a conversation" skills are perhaps a key issue for himself and other students.

A second issue derives from Terry's control of the conversation. Based on all the other conversations observed, perhaps Aloka and Ha-eun, as international students, are expected to have greater English abilities in this conversation. However, the conversation is not only dominated but also controlled by Terry. Terry initiates 9 topics, compared to 3 for Kobe, 3 for Aloka, and 0 for Ha-eun. Terry also asks 33 topic questions compared to 11 by Aloka, 6 by Kobe, and 3 by Ha-eun. Furthermore, for the first 3 minutes of the conversation Ha-eun is unable to join the conversation until she forcefully interjects (Line 140). The mechanism(s) that enable(s) Terry to dominate are unclear, but they may be related to the ethnolinguistic vitality of Japanese, the fact that Terry and Kobe are friends, gender issues, or perhaps some individual differences between the speakers.

One clear point is that while Terry controls the conversation, Aloka responds to 30 direct prompts during the conversation, while Ha-eun only responds to 8 direct prompts. Again, the questions 'Why do some speakers receive more questions than others?' is raised.

Conversation 5.3 (14.35 minutes)**: Type: Unscripted, dominated and controlled by Japanese male student.**

Terry (Japanese Male): TOEFL Score 473
Intercultural Experience: High school trip to the USA, lives and works in the international dormitory on campus, 3rd exchange class
WTC Ratings: Class 4.2, Trait 5, variable mean 5.02; SD 0.55; mode 5

Kobe (Japanese Male): TOEFL Score 380
Intercultural Experience: Trip to UK to meet family friends, rugby tour of Australia, has international friends on the rugby team, uses English with mother who uses English at work.

Due to time constraints, Kobe was unable to compete a third interview, and thus, in-situ WTC ratings for Kobe are unavailable.

Linh (Vietnamese Female)
Da-eun (Korean Female)

As with the previous conversation, this is a conversation that Terry wholly dominates and controls. In terms of quantity of speech, Terry has 107 turns, while Kobe has 83 turns, Linh has 70 turns, and Da-eun has 58 turns. Similarly, Terry uses 862 words, while Linh uses 366 words, Kobe 324 words, and Da-eun only 175 words. In terms of speech density, the same pattern exists. Terry uses an average of 8.06 words per turn, Linh 5.23 words per turn, Kobe 3.9 words per turn, and Da-eun only an average of 3 words per turn. Furthermore, in terms of turns of +1TCU, Terry also dominates: Terry has 45 turns of +1TCU, while for Linh and Kobe this number is 20, and for Da-eun the number is only 10.

Terry also controls the conversation almost unilaterally. He initiates 6 topics, while Linh initiates two topics, and Kobe initiates one topic. Terry also asks 34 topic related questions, compared to 14 by Kobe, 7 by Linh, and only 2 by Da-eun.

The large number of questions that Terry, and to a certain extent Kobe, ask is reflected in Linh's and Da-eun's ratio of unsolicited statements to responses to direct questions. Linh has a ratio of 7 / 34 = 0.206 and Da-eun has a ratio of 7 / 33 = 0.21. In both respects this reveals a very passive stance during the conversation. Conversely, Kobe's ratio of 15 / 5 = 3 indicates a much more proactive and open stance to giving personal information. Terry maintains a lower ratio than Kobe; although, this lower ratio can be explained by his extremely proactive stance in asking topic related questions.

Similarly, because Terry and Kobe are asking more questions, Linh and Da-eun are, as a matter of course, responding to lots of questions, Kobe and Terry therefore respond with more backchannels: Kobe has 48 turns comprised of only backchannels and Terry 43, compared to Linh's 22 and Da-eun's 15.

During the three conversations that Kobe and Terry participated in, Terry recorded similar WTC ratings and displayed the same kind of conversational behaviors throughout. In each conversation, Terry acts as a kind of facilitator or leader by asking more (double or triple the number of) topic related questions than the other participants, and by initiating more topics (double or triple the number of) than any of the other participants, as shown in the table on the next page:

	Terry 1	**Kobe 1**	**Daw**	**Anong**
Topic question	29	12	12	11
Topic initiation	10	2	2	2
	Terry 2	**Kobe 2**	**Ha-eun**	**Aloka**
Topic question	33	6	3	11
Topic initiation	9	3	0	3
	Terry 3	**Kobe 3**	**Linh**	**Da-eun**
Topic question	34	14	7	2
Topic initiation	6	1	2	0

Two issues arise from this. First, why does he feel cable of doing this and why does he choose to do this? Secondly, does this have some kind of skewing effect on the subsequent conversation in terms of the types of turns that other participants take (e.g., more solicited responses, fewer questions asked) and on the kinds of topics that are discussed.

In response to the first question, Terry himself says "it's my tactic" and "I learnt it from my mother". He also has a large amount of experience of intercultural contact as he works as the dormitory assistant (a kind of intercultural liaison in the intercultural dormitories) at the university. Noticeably, Terry is one of the few participants in this study whose idiodynamic WTC ratings are as similarly elevated as his trait like ratings. Perhaps, his awareness of the tactics required to facilitate conversations and the confidence he has developed from his experiences enables him to dominate and control conversations with a focus on bringing other participants in to the conversation. Investigating this hypothesis further, may enable educators to refocus their efforts on "enabling" students to realise their WTC intentions through raising awareness of conversational tactics and confidence building activities.

As for the second question more questions asked leads to more solicited responses from a partner and, thus, more backchannels while listening to responses.

Finally, it is noticeable that each of the three conversations that Terry and Kobe participate in center on the same topics, namely: country and city of origin, whether the participants live in the dormitories, and participation in the school festival. It is unclear whether these topics are a common amongst other groups during the exchange class or not, and this would make an interesting angle of investigation for a teacher looking to improve the exchange class experience for students: What topics do students select, how do they select them, and why do they select them?

Appendix Twelve: Transcription conventions

Video excerpts are presented in a line-by-line format, and the following conventions, derived from Schegloff 2000 (as cited in Sidnell, 2009, xv - xviii), are used:

158	Line numbers are given in the furthest left column.
TF2	Speakers initials are in the next column.
[	The opening of overlapping sections of conversation with the original talk and the overlapping talk in successive lines.
=	'Latch utterances' where one speaker's turn ends with the second paired sign indicating where another turn begins without any pause.
(.)	Silences of less than half a second between turns
(..)	Silences of roughly half a second between turns
(…)	Silences of between half a second and one second between turns
(2)	Longer pauses. The number indicates the number of seconds of silence.
YES	Capital letters indicate louder than usual sounds.
::	Stretched sounds
. or ..	Indicate short or medium pauses between words in the same turn
((*nods*))	Indicates description of activity rather than conversation
→	points of interest in the text
HHH	Multiple capital letters replace names. The number of letters matches the number of letters in the original name.
sempai	Japanese words are represented in italics

Interview transcriptions do not use these conventions because the relationship between speakers is not evaluated. The following conventions should be noted:

bold italic	Denotes translations from Japanese to English.
[3.1]	For all data, numbers in square brackets denote the number of the conversation from which the example is drawn.
R:	The letter 'R' preceeds comments by the researcher; myself.
<u>Y</u>es	Capital letters, and other forms of punctuation, maintain their traditional orthographic relevance.
…	In cases, where non-relevant comments are removed, the cut off junctures are indicated by three periods in a row.

Appendix Thirteen: Table of WTC ratings

Activity	SPEAKER	Trait WTC	Class WTC	Immediate MEAN	Immediate S.D.	Immediate MODE
1.1	Natsumi	6.83	5	2.71	2.81	0
3.1	Natsumi	7.67	5.56	2.1	2.49	0
1.1	Seo	4.17	5.3	1.75	2.66	0
2.1 A	Seo A	5.5	5.4	0.19	0.9	0
2.1 B	Seo B			0.21	0.83	0
3.1	Seo	5.5	5	-0.1	0.63	0
1.2	Michelle	5.33	9	-0.62	1.91	-1
2.1 A	Michelle A	4	5.3	2.145	1.09	2
2.1 B	Michelle B			3.63	0.61	4
1.2	Kevin[4]	5.5	7.4	3.9	2.89	0
3.1	Kevin	5.8	7.4	5.09	2.09	4
1.3	Annie	8.3	6.16	0.875	1.6	0
2.2 A	Annie A	8.1	8.8	1.33	2.14	0
2.2 B	Annie B			0.57	1.36	0
1.3	Hermione[5]	-	-	-	-	-
2.2 A B	Kerry	-	-	-	-	-
1.4	Terry	4.92	3.4	1.78	2.61	0
5.1	Terry			5.31	1.43	5
5.2	Terry	5	4.2	5.86	0.7	6
5.3	Terry			5.02	.55	5
1.4	Steve	3.83	2.9	0.46	1.32	0
2.3 A	Chi-Chi	6.42	5.9	7.57	1.76	9
2.3 B	Chi-Chi			Time ran out		
3.2	Chi-Chi	6	4.9	7	1.47	7
2.3 A	Tad	6.7	6.2	-0.44	1.44	0
2.3 B	Tad			0.33	1	0
3.2	Tad	6.4	6.9	0.77	1.55	0
3.2	Michael	3.67	5	0.57	1.31	0
4.1	Michael	2.75	5.5	0.07	1.15	0
4.2	Michael			0.33	1.02	0
3.2	Keo	4.8	5.2	0.2	1.7	0
4.1	Harry	6.41	5.66	0.52	1.18	0
4.2	Harry			0.37	1.66	0
5.1	Kobe			6.09	0.44	6
5.2	Kobe	6	4.6	7.37	1.6	7
5.3	Kobe			Time ran out		
6.1	Aki	2.7	5	1.7	2.44	0
6.2	Aki			0.12	0.96	0
6.1	KiKi	1.25	4	1.2	2.64	0
6.2	KiKi			0.92	2.63	0
6.3	Hide	6.75	4.78	1.59	3	0
6.4	Hide			1.91	2.5	0
6.3	Taka	6.42	7.22	1.41	1.6	0
6.3	Taka			0.59	1.06	0

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[4] Kevin is a non-Japanese participant; his comments are removed from the analysis of Chapter 8.
[5] Zakahi & McCroskey (1989) consider non-attending participants as displaying low WTC.

Appendix Fourteen: Example of idiodynamic-WTC charts

Chart [1.4]. Volatile WTC ratings with high intensity changes for both participants.
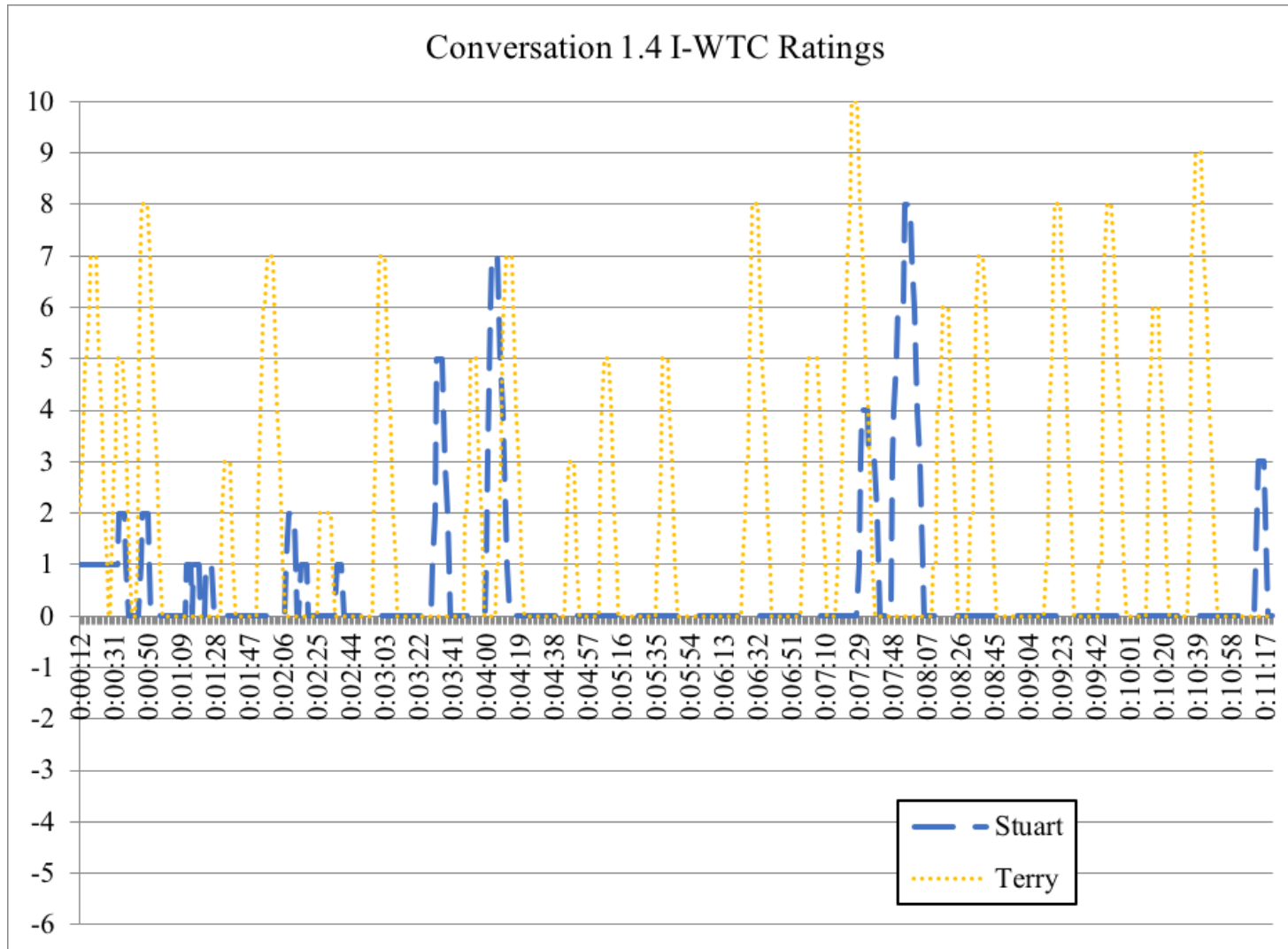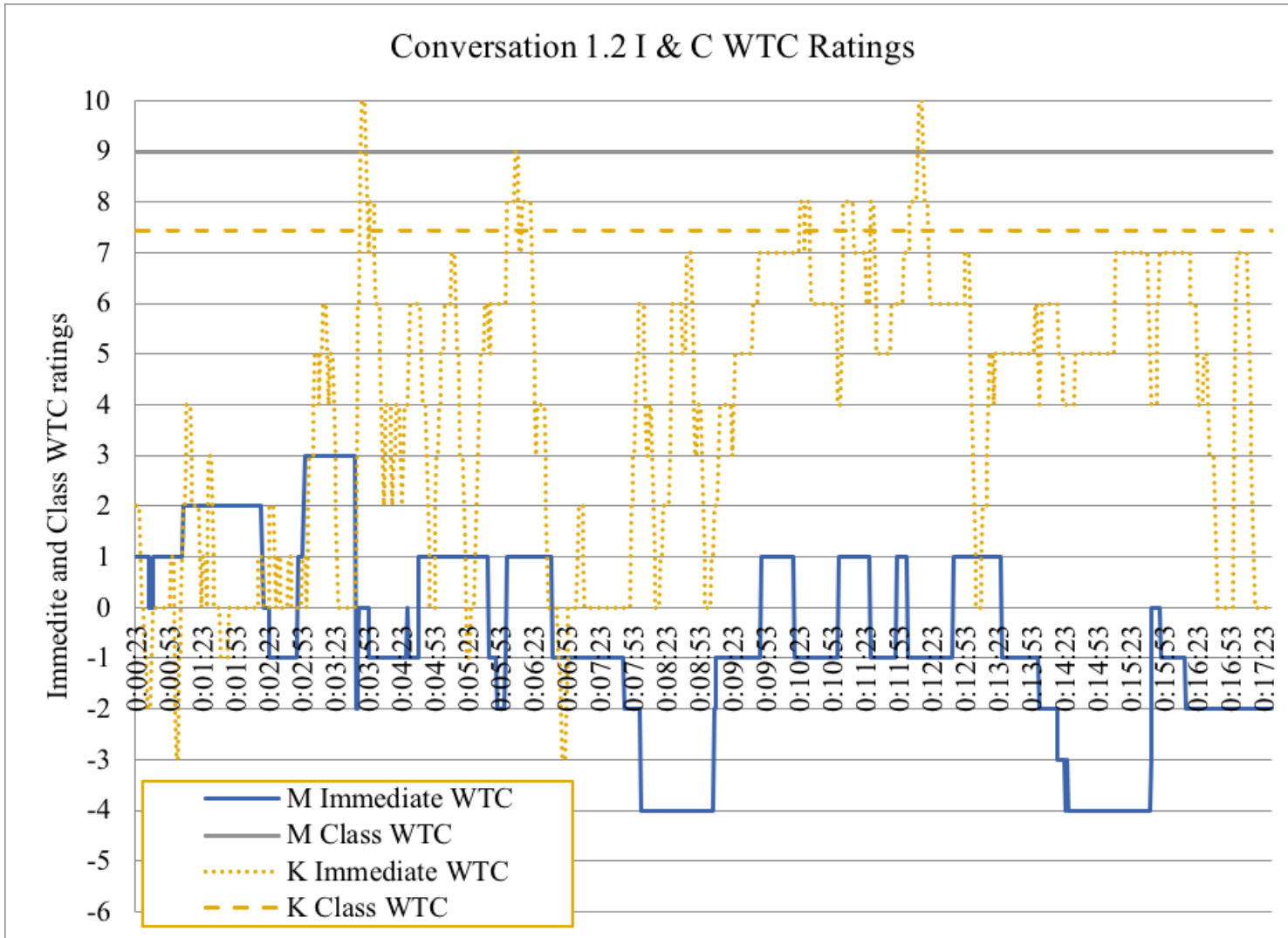
Chart [1.2] Depressed and limited variability for Michelle. Highly aroused with high intensity changes for Kevin

Conversation 1.2 I & C WTC Ratings

Appendix Fifteen: Example of primary coding for Ch. 7

Time	WTC	WTC Explanation	Type	Sub reason	Main Group		
		Increasing WTC	**Talk**				
3:10	1	Asked direct q so invited into the activtiy?	Simple answer "I like / I don't l	Direct asnwer to question	Communicative need for task fulfilment		
3:13	4	Already successfully communicated, some laughter so perhaps warm feeling	Laughter		affective involvement		
3:38	0 - 6	Increasing WTC as next topic is raised and direct Q is asked, pe	Simple answer "I like / I don't l	Direct asnwer to question	Communicative need for task fulfilment		
4:19	0 - 7	Loves this topic	Laughter		affective involvement		
4:41	0 - 5	Loves this topic	Simple answer "I like / I don't l	Direct asnwer to question	Communicative need for task fulfilment		
5:36	3	Strange topic so WTC up & can feel G & B friendliness	Helps with vocabulary item	Helps complete the turn	Communicative need for task fulfilment		
7:00	0 - 7	Enjoys B's jokes	Laughter		affective involvement		
7:00	0 - 7	Rising WTC as talk picks up again	Backchanneling	Shows understands topic	affective involvement		turn taking
8:22	0 - 4	as q becomes clear he knows the answer	answers direct question		Communicative need outside of task		
8:44	0 - 4	Knows this topic so WTC rises	answers direct question		Communicative need for task fulfilment		
8:54	4 - 6	as knowledge and interest increase wtc	offers unsolicted information	Freely communicates aro	Communicative need outside of task		
9:12	10	knoweldge, interest, common knowledge	discusses freely	Freely communicates aro	Communicative need outside of task		
9:42	0 - 2	Rising WTC as converstaion is directed at him	Simple answer "I like / I don't l	Direct asnwer to question	Communicative need for task fulfilment		
9:58	0 - 4	Has topic knowledge and can answer a question	answers direct comprehension	Helps	Communicative need for task fulfilment		
11:09	1 - 3	Is invited to share his opinion, easy to answer Q	answers direct question		Communicative need for task fulfilment		
11:23	0 - 7	Has topic knowledge is asked direct questions about favourite t	Answers multiple direct Questi	Direct asnwer to question	Communicative need for task fulfilmen	Communicative need outs	
12:18	0 - 8	V high WTC due to shared (insider knowledge) of the topic	Responds to B's recommendati	Direct asnwer to question	Communicative need outside of task		
12:44	2 - 10	Comes to understand B's difficult pronunciation relief and excit	answers direct question		Communicative need outside of task		
13:06	0 - 5	Receives B's recommendation,	Backchanneling to show confus	Comprehension issue	Communicative need outside of task		
13:25	0 - 7	Knowledgebale about topic and perceives chance to talk	offers information freely		Communicative need outside of task		
14:04	0 - 10	Enjoys Bs talk and joke	Laughter		affective involvement		
		Increasing WTC	**No talk**				
		International studets are talking and making jokes with each ot	Just listening in, no direct questions to answer		Lack of communicative need for task fulfilment		
3:50	0 - 6	WTC rises as he listnes to internationalstudents kind talk	Just listening in, has already answered the question		Turn taking	Lack of communicative need for task fulfilment	
4:18	0 - 7	Loves this topic	Just listening in, no direct questions to answer		Lack of communicative need for task fulfilment		
4:40	0 - 5	Likes this topic	answers direct question	shakes head	Non-verbal		
5:19	3	Probably agrees with G idea to speak only English	silent agreement		Lack of communicative need for task fu	Non-verbal	
5:33	5	Strange topic so WTC up & can feel G & B friendliness	Just listening in, no direct questions to answer		Lack of communicative need for task fulfilment		
6:25	5	suceesful communication on topic he likes just finished	Just listening in, no direct questions to answer		Lack of communicative ne	Turn taking	
7:09	6	High WTC maintained as good atmosphere listens to B & G	Just listening in, no direct questions to answer		Lack of communicative ne	Turn taking	
8:40	2	Interest peaked as topic is confusing?	Just listening in,declines to answer or respond		Lack of topic knowledge?		
11:37	7	Enjoying talking about favourite topic but feels responsibility to	Unbale to extend due to responsibility		Responsibility to group		
11:50	5	Sharing information on phones	Responds to request	non-verbal	free commu	Communicative need outside of task	
12:33	0 - 8	Invited to write something	Writing instead	non-verbal	Non-verbal		
14:25	0 - 6	Finally able to share names	already discussed so just listneing in		Turn taking issue		
		0wtc	**Talk**				
0:00	0	Lack of preparation causes lack of confidence in quality of talk	reads his script to produce talk	His turn to show homewo	Task completion and turn taking		
		Beginning of conversation, no cirect Q to S or N	Laughter		affective involvement		
3:05	0	Beginning of task	Responds to open question		Communicative need for task fulfilment		
3:21	0	Doesn't like topic	Responds to direct questions		Communicative need for task fulfilment		
3:28	00	Unclear why no WTC	Responds to direct questions		Communicative need for task fulfilment		
3:44	0	Unclear why no WTC	Responds to direct questions		Communicative need for task fulfilment		
4:06	0	Unclear why no WTC	Responds to direct questions		Communicative need for task fulfilment		
4:37	0	favourite topic is ending so wtc returns to 0	Responds to direct (open) questions		Communicative need for task fulfilment		
4:57	0	Unclear why no WTC	Responds to direct (open) questions		Communicative need for task fulfilment		

Appendix Sixteen: Example of secondary coding for Ch. 7

Time	WTC score	WTC explanation	communication?	Reason to engage	Comprehension	Topic K / I	Perceived opportunity	Interlocutor value	Strategic Competence	Structural Competence	Time / effort	Emotions	Intervention	Communicative activity	
1:10	0 - 8	her turn	yes	Reading aloud T	Yes	Hmwk prep	designated turn	gets feedback	yes	yes	yes	confidence	none	task completion	
1:11	8 - 0	turn finishes	yes	Turn finishes	Yes	prep	listening time	gets feedback						listening to feedback	
1:15	0=	listening	yes	Listen to instructions		?	listening time	?	?	?	?	?		listening to instructions	
1:56	0=	listening finishes	no	Beginning of task	no		no							Froze	
2:01	2	anticipation	no	Beginning of task	no	no	yes		No						
2:15	0	confusion	yes	Listen to instructions	yes		no							listening to instructions	
2:34	0	listen / confusion	yes	Listen to leader	Yes	understands	listen to leader	yes						backchanneling	laughter
2:45	1 - 4	xcitement / securit	unsatisfactory	task completion	Yes	weak knowledge	responds to question	yes	lack of expansic	japanese	effort	ok	none	task completion	single word r
2:48	4	xcitement / securit	unsatisfactory	task completion	yes	weak knowledge	conversation focus on her	yes	yes	vocabulary	time	ok	interrupted	task completion	single word r
2:52	4	xcitement / securit	yes	task completion	Yes	weak knowledge	conversation focus on her	yes	yes	yes	time	ok	none	task completion	Single word
2:53	4	xcitement / securit	no	task completion / self correction	yes	yes	conversation is moving on	no	no	no	effort	give up	next person speaks	no speech	
2:59	4	xcitement / securit	japanese	task completion	yes	weak knowledge	pause in talk	yes (coz of pause)	lack of expansic	japanese				task completion	single word r
3:04	7	xcitement / securit	non-verbal	task completion	yes	yes	partner points to her	yes	lack of expansic	non-verbal	effort			task completion	non-verbal re
3:08	8	xcitement / securit	normal yes	task completion	yes	yes	listening time	yes	lack of Q	minimal				backchanneling	comprehensi
3:14	8	xcitement / securit	unsatisfactory	task completion	yes	yes	listening time	yes	lack of Q	minimal				backchanneling	surprise
3:16	8	xcitement / securit	unsatisfactory	task completion	yes	yes	responds to question	yes	lack of expansic	japanese				task completion	single word r
3:18	8	xcitement / securit	unsatisfactory	task completion	yes	yes	responds to question	yes	lack of expansic	minimal				task completion	single word r
3:20	8	xcitement / securit	yes	task completion	yes	yes	responds to interlocutor co	yes	yes	minimal	minimal	ok	none	task completion	follow-up qu
3:22	8	xcitement / securit	unsatisfactory	task completion	yes	yes	responds to interlocutor co	yes	yes	japanese	effort	ok	none	task completion	follow-up qu
3:24	8	xcitement / securit	yes	task completion	yes	yes	interjects	yes	yes	yes	yes	ok	none	procedural issue	
3:26	8	xcitement / securit	japanese	task completion	yes	yes	responds to question	yes (it's a question	Yes	japanese	effort			procedural issue	
3:30	8	xcitement / securit	unsatisfactory	task completion	yes	yes	responds to question	yes (it's a question	lack of expansic	minimal				task completion	single word r
3:37	8-3	topic	yes	task completion	yes	falling interest	yes	yes (it's a question	lack of expansion					task completion	single word r
3:39	8-3	topic	yes	task completion	yes	falling interest	yes	yes (it's a question	lack of expansion					task completion	single word r
3:42	3 - 5	agreement	no	task completion	yes		no								
3:46	5 - 1	omprehension dow	yes	task completion / request for hel	yes	knows what she doe	yes	yes	yes	minimal	yes	wtc down	none	task completion	request for h
3:52	1 - 5	comprehension up	japanese	task completion	yes	yes	yes	response to help	yes	japanese	effort	ok	none	backchanneling	comprehensi
3:54	1 - 7	comprehension up	japanese	task completion	yes	yes	yes	yes (it's a question	lack of expansic	japanese				task completion	single word r
4:02	7-0	unclear	unsatisfactory	task completion	yes	yes	yes	yes	lack of expansic	minimal				backchanneling	agreement
4:08	1-3	vants to self correc	no	task completion / self correction	yes	yes	conversation is moving on	no	no	no	no	give up	next person speaks	no speech	

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