

Title	A Qualitative Analysis of Motivation, Self, and Identity of EFL Learners in a Japanese Context
Author(s)	Goharimehr, Nooshin
Citation	大阪大学, 2019, 博士論文
Version Type	VoR
URL	https://doi.org/10.18910/72477
rights	
Note	

The University of Osaka Institutional Knowledge Archive : OUKA

https://ir.library.osaka-u.ac.jp/

The University of Osaka



Goharimehr, Nooshin (2019). A Qualitative Analysis of Motivation, Self, and Identity of EFL Learners in a Japanese Context. Ph.D. Thesis.

Department of Critical Studies in Transformative Education Graduate School of Human Sciences Osaka University

#### **RESEARCH THESIS BY:**

Nooshin Goharimehr 21A16842 ngohari2014@gmail.com Date of submission: 2018/12/14

## TITLE: A Qualitative Analysis of Motivation, Self, and Identity of EFL Learners in a Japanese Context

## SUPERVISORS: Prof. Beverley Yamamoto Prof. Scott North Prof. Tomohide Atsumi

I declare that the work I am submitting for assessment contains no section copied in whole or in part from any other source unless explicitly identified in quotation marks and with detailed, complete and accurate referencing.

Nooshin Goharimehr..... Signature

## I. Abstract

Drawing on Gardner's model of motivation, Dörnyei's motivational self system and Norton's identity framework, this qualitative study explored the impact of contextual and cultural factors on English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' motivations and negotiations between the self-identity and target language socio-cultural practices. Data were collected through conducting ethnography and online surveys among 70 undergraduate EFL learners in a public university in Kansai. The descriptive statistics revealed a high level of learning motivation and orientation toward all the factors measured by the motivation battery adopted from Gardner (2004). However, although EFL learners appeared to be highly motivated, they were not equally invested in learning the foreign language. Furthermore, it appeared that international orientation was the main motivational factor for learning English as opposed to integrative motivation in its strongest sense which refers to a strong desire to identify with the target culture. Learners' ideal self was associated with instrumental orientations which were Learning English for international communication, accessing to knowledge, and obtaining better academic and career positions revealed from the thematic analysis. The ethnography rendered several facts about teaching practices and learning approaches. While the learning outcomes were satisfactory, several participants expressed a desire to improve the teaching methods. The improvement could be achieved through an increase of interactions in English, a decrease of the teacher talk time, and the introduction of topics which are in line with the learners' portable identities and incorporate their life histories. Finally, those learners whose ideal self was associated with English learning had a higher investment in learning and speaking practices. However, few participants showed traces of identity changes as a result of English learning. Most of the participant didn't mention a specific affinity with the English culture or a desire to join English communities for integrative purposes. In terms of inhibitory factors operating against English learning motivation, identity construction and speaking

practices, the variables of anxiety, low linguistic self-confidence, lack of speaking opportunities, and identity conflicts resulted from the interference of cultural traits such as ethnocentrism, silence, and conformity were among the effective factors. In sum, the research findings revealed that the participants constructed their identities as situated and multiple within their immediate and imagined learning communities. Their investment in English learning was linked to the cultural and contextual factors, multiple identities, and hopes and desires for the future. The students' learning narratives provided rich descriptions that contribute to a better understanding of the relationship between language and identity in foreign language learning both in Japan and internationally.

Keywords: Ideal self, Motivational self system, Motivation, Identity, Investment, Imagined communities.

# II. Acknowledgments

Firstly, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor Professor Beverley Yamamoto for the continuous support of my Ph.D. study and related research, for her patience, motivation, and immense knowledge. Without her unconditional love and encouragement, I wouldn't be able to go through a transitional stage of my life which was arriving in a completely new environment and dealing with various challenges of cultural adaptation in a new country and meeting the requirements of an international scholar in Japan. She provided me with a fresh worldview and attitude toward learning and teaching which complemented my academic and social experience as a student and educator. Moreover, she cultivated a safe space for me to develop my own identity as a newcomer and researcher and allowed me to progress with my own pace and learning objectives.

Furthermore, I would like to especially thank Professor Scott North for his unconditional support, sophisticated comments and the hard question which incented me to widen my research from various perspectives. I am also grateful to Professor Tomohide Atsumi for his insightful comments and encouragement which complemented the present research on various theoretical and practical aspects. My sincere thanks also go to Professor Gerry Yokota who provided me with extra academic support to develop my research framework without whose precious support it would not be possible to conduct this research. I'm also grateful to Professor Tony Silva for helping me get a better perspective toward English teaching in Japan.

Finally, I would like to thank my fellow labmates in the Education Department for the stimulating discussions, for the sleepless nights we were working together before deadlines, and for all the fun we have had in the last three years.

# III. Table of Contents

I. Abstrac	I. Abstractiii				
II. Acknowledgments					
III. Table	of Contents	. vi			
Chapter 1	L. Introduction	1			
1.1.	The Context of the Study	1			
1.2.	Theoretical Framework	11			
1.3.	The Research Problem	12			
1.4.	The Purpose of the Study	14			
1.5.	The Research Questions	16			
Chapter 2	2. Review of Literature	17			
2.1.	Introduction	17			
2.2.	Identity	19			
2.3.	Identity and Language Learning	22			
2.4.	Imagined Communities	26			
2.5.	EFL Classroom as a Community of Practice	28			
2.6.	English Language Learning Motivation				
2.7.	Affective Factors and Linguistic Self-confidence	34			
2.8.	Gardner's Model of Motivation				
Figur	e 1: Gardner's Conceptualization of the Integrative Motive (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 17)	37			
Figur	e 2: The Socio-Educational Model (Gardner, 2005, p. 6)	38			
2.9.	Motivational Self System	39			
Figur	e3: The L2 Motivational Self System	41			
2.10. Motivation and Investment					
Figure 4: Darvin and Norton's (2015) Model of Investment					
2.11.	Power				
2.12.	ESL/EFL Classroom Interactions	45			
2.13.	Technology and ELT	46			
2.14.	Previous Studies on Motivation and Identity				
2.14	1. Motivational Orientations	48			
2.14	2. Motivational Selves Studies	51			
2.14					
2.14	.4. EFL and Identity Studies in Japan	57			
2.14	5. Conclusion	59			
Chapter 3	3. The Methodology	62			
3.1.	Introduction				
3.2.	Research Design and Analysis	63			
	e (3.1) Qualitative Approaches Applied to the Present Study				
Table (3.2) Phases of Data Coding (Braun & Clarke, 2006)					
Table (3.3) Tabular Representation of the Stages Undertaken in the Project					
3.3. Data Resources					
3.3.1					
	e (3.4) Participants' Information				
3.3.2	2. Other Data Resources	67			

3.4.	Data Collection Instruments	68			
3.4.1	Survey	68			
3.4.2	2. Open-ended Questionnaire	70			
3.4.3	8. Ethnography Notes	70			
3.5.	Data Collection Procedure	72			
3.6.	Ethics				
3.7.	Reliability and Trustworthiness	75			
Chapter 4	Chapter 4. Data Interpretation and Analysis77				
4.1.	Introduction	77			
Table	e (4.1) Summary of Data Collection and Analysis Procedures (N=70)	77			
4.2.	The Attitude and Motivation Survey	77			
Table	e (4.2) Average Scores for the Variables on Motivation and Attitude Survey(N=70)	79			
4.2.1	Positive Attitude Toward English Language and People	79			
Table	e (4.3) Percentage of Personal Attitude Toward English Learning	79			
4.2.2	2. English Class Anxiety	80			
Table	e (4.4) Percentage of English Class Anxiety	80			
4.2.3	International Posture	81			
Table	e (4.5). Percentages of International Posture	81			
4.2.4	I. Integrative and Instrumental Orientation	82			
Table	e (4.6). Percentages of Integrative/Instrumental Orientations (3-likert-scale, N=70)	82			
4.3.	The Open-ended Questionnaire	82			
Table	e (4.7) Frequent Themes Extracted From Questionnaire Responses	83			
4.3.1	English Language Learning Goals and Motivation	84			
4.3.2					
4.3.3					
4.3.4	l. Demotivation	120			
4.3.5	, 8				
4.3.6	6. Classroom Factors	135			
4.4.	The Ethnography	142			
4.4.1	Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)/Academic English Writing	143			
4.4.2	Integrated English Speaking Classes	154			
Chapter !	5: Findings and Discussion	161			
5.1.	5.1. Summary of Findings				
5.2.	Limitations of the Study	165			
5.3.	Pedagogical Suggestions	167			
5.4.	Conclusion and Implications of the Study	169			
IV. References					
V. Appendices					
	1. The Survey				
	2. The Participants' Information				

# Chapter 1. Introduction 1.1. The Context of the Study

English learning and usage is spreading rapidly around the world and English language as a lingua franca is attaining more importance as a major tool in international communication and cooperation. The most common factors accounting for this surge in international usage include globalization, economic and technological development, internationalization, and the expansion of education (Coleman, 2011; Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2012; Hamid, Nguyen, & Baldauf Jr, 2013). Globalization, which is the tendency to worldwide convergence in education and other sectors (Held et al., 1999), is changing the environment in which English is learned as a foreign language (EFL) or second language (ESL). Economic and cultural globalization includes the globalization of language, and in particular the spreading role of English as a universal global lingua franca (Crystal, 2003). Lin (2014) admits that the global spread of English as the medium of the international domain in the late twentieth century has intensified the need for its mastery.

Over the past few decades, the study of English has had to adopt an approach, which regards the broadening global identity that the language has developed. This trend has led to several important developments of the English language throughout East Asia, including Japan. English language education in Japan has become more indispensable because of globalization. The globalization of English coupled with the extension of English education, has accelerated the development of ELT business in Japan (cf. Lin, 2014). As a response to globalization, universities aim to boost their international profiles and adopt policies toward internationalization. Japanese policies are focusing on globalization through student and faculty exchanges, as well as increasing the focus on foreign language learning.

However, there are still challenges associated with English learning and

communication, which are related to the views and attitudes toward the status of the language in the society, and the cultural factors affecting learning the foreign language. Seargeant (2011) asserts that there is a wide range of contexts that show the diverse and complex positioning of English language and identities in social and educational domains throughout Japan. How these diverse contexts and positioning are influencing the learner identities and educational approaches are topics of study, which need more investigation in EFL research. Hence, there is an increasing expectation for research focusing on ELT in Japan with respect to sociocultural views toward the language, which affect the education system, and the learners' social and psychological approaches toward learning.

In order to investigate the contextual factors affecting students' learning, it would be beneficial to briefly review the historical background of English teaching and the degree to which students are exposed to English communication both inside and out of school. English language education as a system started in 1854. It was during the time when the country opened the doors to the West. Since then, the purpose of English language education has changed over time along with the political, social and economic transformations in different historical eras. These changes started with policies toward westernization in the Meiji era (1868-1911) and went through ups and downs as a result of wars and social-political relationships of Japan with the world. The present education system which started as a result of a reform after WWII is similar to the American system which is a 6-3-3-4 system. The length of compulsory education is 9 years from elementary through junior high school (MEXT, 2008). English language education in public schools starts in the first year of junior high school and continues until the third year of high school, for a total of six years.

In 1998 the Ministry of Education, Science and Culture announced that English could be introduced in elementary schools from 2002. It was introduced through "comprehensive learning" program allowing schools to invite foreigners and have English hours. This program

aimed at raising an "international awareness" in kids rather than teaching English speaking skills. In 2008, the Ministry of education increased the duration of English education up to 35 lessons per year. The purpose was to improve communicative skills in children and encourage them to speak to English speaking people. In junior high schools, English is an elective subject. However, in 2003, MEXT encouraged English instruction to be selected as a compulsory topic. In fact, roughly all junior high school students and more than 99% of high school students take English language classes (MEXT, 2010). A lot of high schools teach English mainly because most universities have an English language section as part of their entrance examinations, so all the applicants study English very seriously to pass the tests. In higher education, English is emphasized in most university curricula, and almost all students-even non-English majors-have to take English language classes during their first two years.

In Japanese universities, English is receiving even more attention as not only is it a subject of study to pass exams or international awareness, but also a means toward internationalization of higher education. As Universities around the world are becoming more competitive and diversifying their international activities, Japanese universities are focusing more on English-Medium Instruction (EMI) and launching programs such as G30 (Yamamoto & Bysouth, 2015). The non-language classes taught in English are implemented with various methodologies and attendees include both international and domestic students.

From educational perspectives, it can be claimed that Japanese education system is one of the most successful ones in the world. The high level of scientific achievements and number of international prizes show the uniqueness and success of the Japanese Education system specially at the tertiary level (Yonezawa, et al., 2018). Nonetheless, although there has been much effort to improve English teaching and every day we are witnessing initiatives and progresses in all levels of education, there are still discussions around the challenges that English educators deal with. Despite the fact that Japanese students study English hard and for relatively a long time before and after the university entrance exam, there is a prevailing dissatisfaction with their English proficiency and communicative skills and "it is often observed that students cannot communicate in English no matter how hard they study at school" (Mizuno, 2003, p.247). English learners succeed in mastering writing and reading skills to significantly high levels while they fail to perform similarly on oral and communicative skills. Meanwhile, the ELT (English language teaching) approaches play an important role as well. Consequently, schools are criticized for failing to improve the communicative language skills in Japanese learners (Hosoki, 2013, Ikegashira, et al, 2009). The focus is mainly on grammar-translation method as the main goal is to prepare the students to pass the entrance exam (Mizuno,2003). Another factor concerns the English books which don't incorporate interesting and up-to-date topics taught within communicative methods (Miller, 2014).

Previous studies have investigated various problems in terms of teaching methods, educational policy and also sociolinguistic differences between Japanese and English which result in shortcomings in Japanese ELT system. Miller (2014) identified the main reason why the oral communication fails in Japanese English classrooms as pertaining to the educational policy which focuses on learning English to pass the university entrance exam. While Japanese Teachers of English (JTE) have to teach antiquated grammatical forms through dry topic chapters, English language textbooks used in other Asian countries such as South Korea are full of communicative activities that are engaging, practical, and easy to understand (Yuasa, 2010). Another major problem is the use of Japanese in teaching English and an overemphasis on rote learning and translation. Teachers usually teach the grammar in Japanese, and then check if the students can follow the textbook by translating English into Japanese (Miller, 2014). Furthermore, only a little more than half of English teachers at public high schools are certified with advanced levels of English proficiency tests, and the rate is less than 30 percent for those at junior high schools, according to an education ministry survey" (Japan Times, 2015). English teachers are also pressured by the system as many find it hard to cope with the demands of their teaching load and other responsibilities.

Besides the policies and strategies which are leading to problems in ELT, there are also social and cultural factors which affect teaching and learning in deeper levels. Some problems are rooted in sociolinguistic differences between English and Japanese. For those teachers in the university level who are competent and free enough to apply a more communicative method, getting Japanese students to practice authentic communication in English is still a hard task as it entails the ability to express thoughts, interests, dislikes, and dreams. Helgeson (1993) reports that his learners (in Japanese universities) rarely initiated conversation, avoided bringing up new topics, did not challenge the teacher, seldom asked for clarification, and did not volunteer answers. Typically, Japanese students find it hard to take risks, speak more and express their ideas in the class (Lightbown & Spada, 1999). This may have more to do with the learners' social and cultural codes for speaking. The proficient learners might avoid speaking English or being orally active as it means taking a different stand from the other members of their group. As Anderson (1993) points out, the contexts in which Japanese speak are culturally sanctioned and do not correspond to the cultural codes of the Western world. Consequently, Japanese learners seem reluctant to talk in settings where they will stand out in front of their peers.

Moreover, the institutional policies and approaches toward teaching can limit the teachers as well. In his study on English teaching and language community, Bailey (2004) relates his personal teaching experiences which represent well how the cultural differences might influence learning. He compares North American universities with Japanese ones relating the fact that although they almost look the same in terms of the environment and campus life, there are still some mismatches that might affect good practices in terms of English

5

teaching. He relates a story of a foreign colleague's efforts to motivate students by putting up a number of travel posters in his university classroom while his Japanese colleagues objected the posters as they were not consistent with the atmosphere of seriousness appropriate to university study. This story is an example of how the learning beliefs and culture at the policy level can determine the teaching practices and prevent progress despite the awareness of teachers and students' desire to learn.

Regarding what happens inside the classroom, there are various differences between Japanese and Western settings. As to the classroom culture, we can refer to cultural models such as Hofstede's framework (1986) which has useful implications for the educational settings. Hofstede (1986) proposed a cultural model that attempts to make generalizations about countries and put them in certain categories called cultural dimensions. These dimensions can explain why educators or students behave in certain ways and what motivates them in their learning strategies and approaches. Understanding these in-depth cultural factors can help teachers and learners to find the best strategies to improve education. While the model has been criticized as it is not supported by enough empirical research in terms of the validity of the constructs, these distinctions provide useful insights into general patterns of culture in Japan.

Based on this framework, Japan is a collectivist country with high levels of uncertainty avoidance and power distance. In HPD cultures, the authoritative parent role is transferred to the teacher. An ideal teacher resembles a good parent. This entails the dependence of students on the teacher while the emotional distance is large. The hierarchical roles in the society are often transferred to the interactional patterns in classrooms. In general, the educational system is teacher-centered and self-selected turn-taking is rare among students (Sato, 1990). In English classes at high schools in Japan, students tend to be rarely called on to speak (Dwyer & Heller-Murphy, 1996) and a majority of teachers speak Japanese most of the time (Sakui, 2004). That

is why there are fewer classroom interactions which is a prerequisite for achieving communicative skills. In Japanese classes, there is a perceived lack of verbal participation which in Japanese terms may stem from the traditional *sensei-deshi* dynamic in which silence is not only virtuous but asking questions might even be disrespectful. While foreign teachers expect a more Western dynamic of teaching-learning marked by various forms of extensive dialogue, Japanese students are used to a more passive non-verbal style of learning (Hsu, 2009).

Another distinction Hofstede made in terms of learning was contrasting collectivist and individualist societies according to several parameters such as attitude towards tradition vs. novelty, attitude towards learning, teachers, education in general and behavior within the group. He found more collectivist tendencies among Japanese learners which means the more proficient students tend to support the low proficient ones. This is mostly seen when the learner doesn't understand the meaning of a word or a question and he looks immediately at his peers for translation support. This can also be due to the low levels of ambiguity tolerance, which is another dimension of Hofstede's model meaning that Japanese students tend to avoid ambiguous situations. If a learner doesn't invest the time and effort to respond a question while doing English speaking exercises, his communicative skills will not improve.

Another cultural trait which is often observed in language classrooms is cultural resistance. It is a well-known fact that Japanese students tend to switch to Japanese in English classes and this is not due to a lack of English proficiency as it may sound. Many students with sufficient English speaking skills still speak Japanese to their peers while doing group activities. The resistance can be observed in larger social levels in the society and it's not merely limited to classrooms. This issue is inherent in the native cultural values and signifies the importance of understanding the learning culture and social factors behind the learning process. In a larger scale, how English is viewed as a foreign language and its status in the social context of Japan can contribute to the teachers, policymakers and students' educational approaches toward

learning. Sugimoto (1997) claims that there is a prevailing dichotomous view in the Japanese society, which regards the world as split into two spheres, Japan and the West. The cultural nationalism assumes that the moral, spiritual and cultural life of the Japanese people should not be affected negatively by foreign values regardless of their impact on Japan's material way of living. This view of cultural nationalism develops into the dichotomous view of language; meaning that Japanese culture and language is considered in opposition to language and culture of English speaking countries.

Schneer (2007) found that the images and cultural explanations in high school textbooks endorsed by MEXT represent the cultural aspects of the native and target languages from a standpoint of opposition. Therefore, the more Japanese master English and internalize the cultural traits and ideas associated with it, the more they lose their cultural values or in another word "Japaneseness" as English is considered as a tool that transmits the Western values and beliefs (Fujiwara 2004). Regarding this linguistic cultural conflict which is still relatively present in some Japanese educational settings, it can be expected that Japanese ethnocentric beliefs and values may influence English language learning. Some studies found that ethnocentrism played a negative role in English language learning and performance resulting in low English proficiency of Japanese students which was interpreted as the socio-cultural product (Yashima, 2000, Doerr, N. M., & Lee, k., 2013). Turnbull's (2017) research showed that Japanese participants in his study identified the Japanese language as an element of their national identity and that removing the Japanese language from EFL classes could result in negative attitudes toward English learning.

Regarding the issues around identity construction and resistance in ESL contexts, Morita (2004) investigated how Japanese L2 learners negotiated their membership and identities in new academic communities in Canada. Japanese students tended to position themselves as being less competent than other local students due to the lack of understanding of reading materials, lectures, and classroom participation rituals. Furthermore, some participants constructed these identities with regards to the ways other peers perceived them while others began to negotiate their identities by applying strategies such as self-study or asking instructors questions. Liu's (2002) research on Chinese students indicated that ESL/EFL teachers should be aware of the learners' cultural differences and the various challenges and struggles they experience attempting to develop new identities as L2 learners and becoming members in communities of practice.

We can conclude that an important factor behind the lack of students' classroom participation is the communicative differences rooted in culture. These fixed behaviors or sociocultural identities may act as barriers to L2 identity construction. In order to learn a new language, a learner is supposed to adopt new ways of thinking and expression. English speaking practice requires the learner to be willing to express his opinions which is not an easy task for Japanese students who position their identities as shy, non-speakers and unable to express their opinions. Hence, to improve learning and teaching practices in classrooms, it is important for English teachers to understand the cultural predispositions and differences that have direct implications for English learner identity and learning. To remove the learners' psychological, cultural and affective barriers, instructors should devise teaching methods which motivate and engage learners in constructing new identities and hence improve their learning. Thus, in this study, I will attempt to scrutinize those cultural differences and psychological factors, which affect learner identity and motivation in the context of EFL learning. The nature of learning motivations will be investigated and demotivational factors will be identified. I will attempt to understand how and why EFL learners invest in or imagine certain identities (Ideal selves) and how the cultural and psychological barriers influence them in doing so. The research will be contextualized in a single community of English learners in university undergraduate level.

The study will apply a qualitative approach through conducting surveys and observation of the selected English courses.

#### 1.2. Theoretical Framework

Over the past decades, due to linguistic and sociocultural diversity and fluidity, the topics of language use, ethnicity, identity, and hybridity have become complex controversial issues and subject of study in the field of sociolinguistics and foreign language learning motivation. These changes have shifted the research approaches to motivation studies in additional language learning which previously mainly focused on learners as individuals independent from the social context in which they were learning. There are numerous theories that focus on the social process of learning a second or foreign language. A pioneering framework which focuses on individual differences in ESL/EFL is Lambert's psychological model whose central tenet revolves around the assumption that when learners develop proficiency in a foreign language, they might undergo changes in their sense of self-identity. Those who master the foreign language, there is a possibility of an identity conflict or alienation arising from membership of a new cultural group (Lambert, 1974).

Drawing on Lambert's ideas, Gardner (1985) admits the possibility of changes in L2 learner's self-identity as he masters the new language. He discusses ethnocentrism, learning orientations and motivation as affecting factors in acquiring a second language successfully. Gardner's Socio-educational Model addresses four overarching variables: integrativeness, attitude toward learning situation, motivation and language anxiety (Gardner, 2011). Integrating a new element into the motivation theory, Dörnyei (2005) conceptualizes L2 motivation in relation to the self system in which the ideal L2 self is central to the learner's motivation and progress in a foreign language. Although the element of learning experience links the learner's motivation to the context and depicts how the contextual experiences can motivate or demotivate EFL learners, there is still a need for a more comprehensive model to investigate the learner's self in relation to the social context.

Bonny Norton's conceptualization of identity highlights how learners participate in diverse learning contexts where they position themselves and are positioned in different ways (Norton, 2000/2013). She argues that the SLA theorists have not adequately addressed the reasons into which L2 learners may sometimes be motivated, extroverted and confident, and unmotivated, introverted and anxious on other occasions; why in one situation there is social distance between learners and the target language community, and in another context the distance is minimal; and why learners engage more in speaking practices in some contexts (Norton, 2010).

Norton's concept of investment complements SLA motivation theories arguing that a learner may be motivated but lack investment in the language practices of a given classroom or community. Therefore, while motivation is mainly a psychological construct, investment links the learner's desire and commitment to learning a language to their complex identity which is situated in their social context. Accordingly, while each of these theorists address motivation in various ways and through different conceptual frameworks, bringing the models together will provide a ground for understanding the complex nature of motivation and identity in the context of EFL country. In order to do so, the conceptual terminology of these models will be applied to analyze and describe the students' narratives and categorize the emerging themes from the data.

### 1.3. The Research Problem

Recently, in the field of English learning as a foreign language (EFL), there has been an emphasis on identity-oriented (rather than achievement-oriented) theories of motivation in mainstream educational psychology and a shift from integrativeness approach to the internal self-concept of the L2 learners in motivation research (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; Dornyei & Ushida, 2009).

Scholars in the field of additional language acquisition have struggled to conceptualize the relationship between the language learner and the social world to develop a comprehensive theory of social identity which integrates the language learner and the language learning context. Yet, several studies (Norton, 2000; Bashir-Ali, 2006) indicate that generally there is a lack of understanding of identity issues in bilingual students. Furthermore, most research in this field focuses on quantitative methods and there is a need to focus on more qualitative research to achieve more in-depth knowledge of the learning experiences and life stories of individuals, which is not captured by quantitative scrutiny. Moreover, most studies have been conducted in ESL contexts of immigrant communities in the USA, Canada and Australia and there is a lack of research in EFL contexts such as Japan with regard to cultural and contextual impacts (McKay and Wong, 1996; Pavlenko and Lantolf, 2000).

The relationship between motivation, identity and English language learning in terms of cultural context has not been explored much. Spolsky (1991) proposes that social context is closely relevant to additional language learning in determining both the attitudes and goals of the learner which lead to motivation. Learner identities and motivation in the EFL context may be affected by unique social factors that are dramatically different from learning English as a second language in the English speaking counties. The EFL environment's distinctive geographic location, social values, and ideologies behind the curriculum may be factors affecting learner identities.

Furthermore, in the Japanese EFL (JEFL) context, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) strives to improve students' English language skills, including listening, speaking, reading and writing. Although Japanese students study English for quite a long time, in terms of communicative skills, there seems to be a lack of progress in different levels of academia. Many educators consider silence and lack of interaction in English classrooms, which is often interpreted as lack of motivation, a reason for poor communicative skills. It has also been argued that Japanese cultural identity or different communicative norms might interfere with risk-taking and speaking practices which is a prerequisite for English learning. Ushioda (2013) suggested that L2 motivation researchers in Japan should investigate this issue from the perspective of "how [students] see English as fitting into or not fitting into their personal system of values, goals, and identities" (p. 9).

Accordingly, the investigation of learner motivation and identity in Japan will significantly contribute to the field as there is little academic research into the reasons why Japanese students are particularly afflicted by a reluctance to speak in a second language (Hollingworth, 2017); even those who possess high reading and writing proficiency. Conducting more studies in the field of identity in an EFL context like Japan would be relevant and beneficial to the literature on applied linguistics as well as educators and policymakers' EFL approaches and practices.

### 1.4. The Purpose of the Study

In the context of foreign language learning, attempts have been made to improve the level of competence in Japanese learners of English in response to calls from the government. Many studies have been conducted on the reasons why Japanese students don't achieve the desired English proficiency in terms of communicative skills despite many years of study and the great academic efforts of educators and policy-makers to boost English leaning. Although much progress has been made and reforms have been implemented in the educational system, and Japanese students appear to succeed on many levels in terms of English reading and writing skills, there is still a need for more research in the psychological and social aspects of English learning to address the issue on more basic levels.

Founded upon poststructuralist views over language, culture, and society, this study sets out to examine the EFL learners' motivational orientations in the light of self and identity theories. In other words, the study seeks to explore the context-based relationship among motivation, learner identity and foreign language acquisition in the given context to understand the construction of identities and imagined communities and their effect on learner's motivation and learning. Therefore, through this qualitative socio-psychological analysis of English learning in a Japanese context, the researcher aims to explore the motivating and demotivating factors in Japanese students' learning to provide a better explanation for the challenges and pedagogies in English teaching and learning. The researcher will try to unveil the facets of the relationship among the culture, identity, and motivation in the context of classroom interactions and other social settings, which engage the language learner identity and motivation.

The study addresses questions concerning language learners like what are their goals of language learning? To what extent do their goals and ideal selves are in line with English language learning? To what extent do they have integrative goals and which kind of goals are more motivating? Do they have a positive attitude toward the target language? Are they motivated? What kind of motivation? Do they have self-confidence or anxiety and what cultural reasons are behind it? How can we overcome these learning inhibitors? How may current L2 learning experiences and classroom practices interact with the development of possible future selves? What identities do the students construct through language learning and are there socio-psychological factors affecting their identity construction? What is the relationship between identity and language learning?

The outcomes of this study are aimed at enabling teachers and learners to understand the psychological and social processes of identity formation and their effects on English learner motivation. Furthermore, the research may help teachers to have a better understanding of how individual dynamics and constructs of motivation and identity, influence the language learning process and consequently help them remove the psychological barriers and demotivational obstacles in the process of learning. Thus, teachers can address the individual learner needs better. Finally, it's hoped that this study would contribute to the theoretical debate around the issues of identity and motivation in EFL studies and clarify the nature of English learner's psychological and sociocultural incentives which determine their learning hence providing pedagogical feedback and deeper understanding of this particular EFL context of the Japanese education system. Finally, the study can be of great help for educators to design or improve language learning programs supporting the developments of individuals in all manners targeted, while enhancing our knowledge of learning as a socially constructed activity.

## 1.5. The Research Questions

- 1. What are the motivational orientations of Japanese EFL learners from the lenses of the motivational self system and identity theories?
- 2. Are there any conflicts between students' cultural identity and L2 identity?
- 3. What are the affective and contextual barriers to EFL learning perceived by Japanese students?

# Chapter 2. Review of Literature

#### 2.1. Introduction

Learning a foreign language has become a necessity in today's globalized world, which acknowledges the importance of how knowing a different language implies knowing a different culture. The relationship between identity and language learning is of interest to scholars in the field of foreign language learning (EFL), language education, sociolinguistics, and applied linguistics. Norton (1995) points out the need for teachers to accommodate English learner dynamic identities in the classroom. Identities form in relation to a context. Research shows that the construction of learners' identities in real life is a complex interplay of many factors. The construction and adoption of identities depend upon the social setting, while there are relationships between our different selves (Gee and Crawford, 1998). Luke (1996) argues that learners have multiple social identities that help them take on different positions in daily interactive behaviors and that those positions "offer possibilities for difference, for multiple and hybrid subjectivities that human subjects make and remake..." (p. 14).

Attaining L2 competency inevitably involves the issue of social identity and the development of an L2 self. L2 identity and motivation provide powerful means to explore the learners' sociocultural context and to study language learning and discourse giving power to speakers (Miller, 2014). As Richards (2006, p. 72) notes, engaging the learners' identities in the classroom will necessarily involve "an investment of self, with all the emotional, relational and moral considerations this entails". Through this experience of expressing themselves in the target language, they are thus enabled to engage directly with their future possible selves as proficient users of this language but within the scope and security of their current communicative abilities, interests and social contexts (Ushioda, 2013).

Due to the importance of identity and social context in EFL, recently, there has been a theoretical shift in the field towards the internal domain of self and identity which has important

implications for how we as language teachers engage the motivation, interests and identities of our students (Ushioda, 2013). The link between identity, self and motivation can be understood by the motivational self system and self-theories. Ushioda (2013) emphasizes the importance of concepts of self and identity in current theories of L2 motivation, and the importance of engaging students' personal voices and identities in their L2 interactions in the classroom. Moreover, he states that the notion that students themselves can take the initiative through their creative use and understanding of digital technologies and virtual environments to transform L2 learning raises interesting questions about identity roles and relations in the L2 classroom. Although the advances of technology and media have helped English learners to improve their learning, EFL classrooms as sites for socializing learners into an imagined community of English speakers are still major sources of input for English learning. The role of classroom interaction, motivation, investment, and technology use in additional language learning and identity construction is especially important.

Realizing the importance of learners' multiple identities, teachers must look beyond fixed categorizations and listen to how learners negotiate different identities as they employ diverse cultural and linguistic resources to construct knowledge in classrooms. However, little is actually done in the classroom to make learners aware of the identity repertoires available to them when speaking English. If English, a lingua franca of the world, belongs to the people who speak it (Jenkins, 2007; Norton, 1997) and not only to the so-called native speakers, the question needs to be asked as to what extent classroom methodologies and techniques accommodate EFL learners' dynamic and multidimensional identities.

Focusing on the impact that globalization has on identities, one significant development in motivation studies that has been made in consideration of the contemporary, global linguistic environment is Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009). This model provides us with a theoretical framework to deal with the issue of identity in a foreign language context like Japan. Although sociocultural and identity theories like Norton's construct of investment and psychological theories of motivation such as Dörnyei's L2 motivational self system are traditionally used separately, bringing the two together may offer a more comprehensive understanding of learners' variable desire to engage in social interaction inside and outside the L2 classroom. In the L2 motivational self system, the ideal L2 self refers to 'the L2-specific facet of one's ideal self'. Specifically, 'if the person we would like to become speaks an L2, the ideal L2 self is a powerful motivator to learn the L2 because of the desire to reduce the discrepancy between our actual and ideal selves' (Dörnyei 2005:105). The construct of investment and the construct of L2 motivational self system yield recommendations for classroom practice.

Accordingly, in this chapter, I will start with clarifying the important terms and concepts of the study. First, the construct of Identity will be explained in the context of English language teaching and learning. The application of this construct to the field will be considered through the lenses of Norton's seminal work on Identity and Language learning. Next, the Construct of motivation in ELT will be scrutinized focusing mainly on the work of major scholars in the field. The major theories underlying this research project will be determined and previous related research will be reviewed. I will argue that there is a need for more research and theoretical construction of identity and motivation in the field of English learning as a foreign language especially in the context of Japan.

#### 2.2. Identity

When Walt Whitman wrote in his famous poem (Song of myself), "I am large, I contain multitudes..." (Section 51), he was not talking about the highly contested diagnosis of dissociative identity disorder but to the fact that we have a radically different perception of ourselves in different contexts. Everyone struggles with the existential question of "Who am I?". This struggle is acute for people who are overly concerned with other people's impressions,

or who feel a core aspect of themselves, such as gender or sexuality, is not being expressed. Identity is fragmentary and in flux. People change identities to suit the needs of the moment. The word identity is frequently used across disciplines, but it is not easy to define. The meaning attributed to it also changes throughout time. Many scholars have tried to define the term identities. Although there are a number of similarities among studies across disciplines, there is a lack of conformity of what it means by identities. The meaning of the term identities has evolved from seeing them as synonymous to a "stable core self" (Hall, 1996) which refers to stable features of a person that exist prior to any particular situation, to dynamic, contradictory, multiple dimensions of a person and situated accomplishments, enacted through talk, and changing from one occasion to the next. (Block, 2006, 2007; Pavlenko, 2002).

In another word, identity has two contradictory meanings. In one sense, it is the stable sense of self-hood attached to a physical body which, although it changes over time, is somehow the same; in a second sense, it refers to what we do in a particular context, and of course we do different things in different contexts. According to Ha (2008), there are different conceptions of identities comparing the West and the East. Western scholars tend to perceive identities as "hybrid and multiple" (p. 64), whereas Eastern scholars see identities as related to a sense of belonging. Norton (2013) defines identity as "how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how that relationship is structured across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future".

Weinreich (1986) states that "A person's identity is defined as the totality of one's selfconstrual, in which how one construes oneself in the present, expresses the continuity between how one construes oneself as one was in the past and how one construes oneself as one aspires to be in the future"; this allows for definitions of aspects of identity, such as: "One's ethnic identity is defined as that part of the totality of one's self-construal made up of those dimensions that express the continuity between one's construal of past ancestry and one's future aspirations in relation to ethnicity". From a psychological, social and anthropological perspective, identity is the conception, qualities, beliefs, and expressions that make a person "self-identity" or group "particular social category or social group" (Rummens, J, 1993).

The formation of one's identity occurs through one's identifications with significant others who are primarily parents and other individuals during one's biographical experiences, and also "groups" as they are perceived. These others may be benign—such that one aspires to their characteristics, values, and beliefs (a process of idealistic-identification), or malignwhen one wishes to dissociate from their characteristics (a process of defensive contraidentification) (Weinreich & Saunderson 2003: 54-61). A psychological identity refers to selfimage (one's mental model of oneself), self-esteem, and individuality; the persisting characteristics and idiosyncratic things that make a person unique. Personal or Individual identity is understood as the situated outcome of a rhetorical and interpretive process in which interactants make situationally motivated selections from socially constituted repertoires of identificational and affiliational resources and craft these semiotic resources into identity claims for presentation to others (Bauman, 2000: 1). A "social identity" is the collection of group memberships that define the individual. With regards to language use and acquisition, identity is an important social factor because not only do linguistic patterns signal social and individual identity, but people's conscious awareness of their personal identities appear in language use (Schmitt, 2010).

Hence, while identities are ways of relating the self to the world and are in this sense personally valued constructions, they are socially forged and negotiated through our relations and interactions with other people. The description or representation of individual and group identity is a central task for psychologists, sociologists and anthropologists and those of other disciplines where "identity" needs to be mapped and defined. How should one describe the identity of another, in ways which encompass both their idiosyncratic qualities and their group memberships or identifications?

In sum, there are different definitions of identity and each discipline may consider it differently or combine various concepts when approaching a person's identity. Thus, this study approaches identity as a combination of concepts including social identity in the sense of self as socially constructed and constrained, the psychological identity which represents self-esteem and self-image and the individual identity as motivated selections from socially constituted repertoires of identificational resources.

### 2.3. Identity and Language Learning

It is often assumed that language plays a significant part in identity construction and there is a link between language, origin, culture, and identity. When we use language, we represent a particular identity at the same time that we construct it. According to Belsey (1980), "It is through language that people constitute themselves", it is through language, then, that people define and redefine who they are and who they might become. It is a medium of self-expression and communication which helps us create our identity and sense of self to perform in different contexts and expand our perspectives (Ushida, 2013). As Weedon (1997) said, "Language is the place where actual and possible forms of social organization and their likely social and political consequences are defined and contested. Yet it is also the place where our sense of ourselves, our subjectivity, is constructed". Just as, at the level of relations between groups, a language is worth what those who speak it are worth, so too, at the level of interactions between individuals, speech always owes a major part of its value to the value of the person who utters it (Bourdieu, 1977, p. 652).

Identity, derived from post-structuralism, is a comparatively new theory in the process of language learning (Block, 2007). It is not merely theoretical and abstract but also has a direct influence on motivation and learning. The relations between motivation and identity can be

22

best phrased as the relations between a person's goal-directed action and the kind of person he or she is or may become. In other words, a desired future identity can motivate a person to take action toward its realization. Learning a new language can be a life-changing event which necessitates adopting new ways of constructing connections between the self and a new language and worldview which implies adopting new ways of self-expression and constructing new identities; we also need to develop relationships with new people and seek to establish who we are and aspire to become (Van Lier, 2001).

One major contribution to identity studies is Norton' work on identity in the 1990s, which has made it a major construct in language learning. Ever since there has been a growing emphasis on issues of identity-oriented (rather than achievement-oriented) theories of motivation in educational psychology and language learning. There has also been a shift from a predominantly psycholinguistic approach to a greater focus on sociological and cultural dimensions (Firth, A. & Wagner, J., 1997, Morgan, B., 2007, Norton, B., & Toohey, K., 2011). The view of learners as being either motivated or unmotivated, introverted or extroverted has being questioned as affective factors are frequently socially constructed in inequitable relations of power, changing across time and space, and possibly coexisting in contradictory ways within a single individual.

In traditional views of language learning, learners were considered poor copies of native speakers and identity was originally realized as stable and fixed, hence it was assumed that in the process of second/foreign language learning, the learner should let go with the past identities to adopt the new ones. However, in contemporary theories, it is considered that learners may not only cross the borders between cultures, but they may re-position themselves and modify their previous identities/selves without having to completely lose their old personalities (Marx,2002). Post-structuralism of language learning treats language as the site of identity construction (Block, 2007; Huang, 2007; Norton, 2008; Ortega, 2009) and regards

the construction of learners` identities in real life as a complex interplay of many factors.

As the new identity comes in, the earlier one stays there and the learner, engaged in negotiation in the target language, constructs a new identity, a combination of past, present and even imagined-future identity. Hence, the identity of a language learner is understood and theorized as multiple, a site of development and modification, and subject to change. Learners can be members of multiple ethnic, social and cultural communities changing and permeable over time. Therefore, language learners are legitimate owners and users of the second language, who perform their own representations of the language and have identities in their own right.

Accordingly, identity is understood through a learner's relationship to the socio-cultural contexts, how that relationship is developed across time and space, and how the learner understands their reflections for the past and possibilities for the future (Norton, 2000). Wang (2010) also, maintains that in learning a new language, the identity includes how one positions oneself in relation to the existing background (native culture) and the new settings (target culture). Therefore, the native and target cultures can play important roles in shaping the identities as they are socially constructed and situated, always "dynamic, contradictory, and constantly changing across time and place" (Block, 2007; Norton, 2006).

Thus, current research on learner identity focuses more on the constantly changing across time and place. In this way, the various conditions under which language learners use (including speak, listen, read, or write) the second language (L2) are influenced by different attitudes and environment; therefore, it is possible that learners can be highly valued in one setting/environment, while they may be marginalized in another, referring to the idea that learner identity is changeable based on inner and outer factors. However, factors such as attitudes, conditions, and social contexts are not entirely determined. Therefore, language learners who struggle to speak from one identity position may be able to reframe their

relationship with their interlocutors and claim alternative, more powerful identities from which to speak, thereby enhancing language learning (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000).

In short, developing L2 identities entails an adoption of a new culture and identifying with the sociocultural aspects of speaking in a different language. In this sense, the learners' motivation to learn English is integrative; to mingle with the native speakers or to provide the possibility of future joining of imagined communities of practice. Integrative motivation is a powerful motive as the learner forms an affinity with an imagined community of English speakers. However, some learners quit ESL/EFL programs without advancing due to a "disjuncture between the learner's imagined community and the teacher's curriculum goals" (Norton, 2001, p. 170).

On the other hand, some continue to learn English while choosing to exercise nonparticipation in a community of practice in order to resist dominant narratives of being positioned into certain identity roles (Miller, 2014). So, we need to understand learners as people (Pavlenko & Lantolf, 2000) and approach research on English Language Learners with an "increased 'emic' sensitivity" (Firth & Wagner, 1997, p. 285). According to Sylvester (2002), learners' investment and participation in ESL/EFL programs can be best understood by examining the relationship between learners' identities, the contexts of their lives, and the social space of the classroom. Similarly, Wang (2010) emphasizes on the role of learner identity in study-abroad contexts and maintains that identity has to do with the degree of belonging to a certain discourse community, that is, membership as perceived by the new member and the existing members. Hence, the quality of interactional encounters with native speakers, along with learners' identity, plays a major role in language acquisition in the SA context.

In the EFL context, the situation is relatively different. L2 learners usually have little access to native English speakers and hence membership of a community of English speakers

will lose its literal meaning. Since in EFL contexts, the space to use English actively is somewhat limited, the classroom becomes an important place to "validate learners as interlocutors in the new speech community" (Boxer & Cortes-Conde, 2000, p. 203). Thus the English class is a community of practice in which the L2 learners might develop their L2 identities or resist to participate as some learners have an ambivalent desire to learn English especially in a university context where English is an academic requirement. In an English classroom, there are different variables which influence identity construction such as teaching approaches and textbook. Lack of participation and discouragement might be caused by the mismatches between what students imagine to be an English class in which they can develop their desired identities and a curriculum which is inflexible, teacher-centered or designed to only achieve academic purposes.

However, communication in the English classroom is a highly complicated and elusive phenomenon: a 'problematic medium' (Cazden, 1986: 432). If we consider the L2 classroom as a social context to be examined independently of other contexts, to understand the nature of classroom discourse, we should emphasize quality rather than quantity focusing on the important relationship between language use and pedagogic purposes. In this regard, ethnographic approaches would help researchers to analyze the benefits and shortcomings of EFL classes as the main sites of membership and identity construction. The degree to which learners participate and express themselves in English classes could be a criterion for measuring their motivation and identity development.

### 2.4. Imagined Communities

Wenger views imagination as a process of expanding our self by transcending our time and space and creating new images of the world and ourselves" (1998, 303). Appadurai (1997) defines imagination as "a collective social fact" (p.5) that, unlike fantasy, "can become the fuel for actions" (p.7), so imagination should not be perceived as an escape from a harsh reality.

26

Imagination plays an important role in learning a new language. Second/foreign language learning is a relational activity that occurs between specific speakers situated in specific sociocultural environment or contexts (Huang, 2007). Generally, these contexts are viewed as "imagined communities". The concept of imagined community is referred to a group of people who are not immediately tangible or accessible and we connect to them with the power of our imagination.

The term "imagined community" was originally coined by Benedict Anderson (1991: 6). The notion of imagined communities is applicable in a myriad of possible senses from our personal individual aspirations to become members of some specific community of practice (Wenger, 2000) to a broad understanding of nations as imagined communities (Anderson, 1993). Imagined communities/communities of practice are also applicable in learning English as a second or foreign language when ESL/EFL learners seek membership in a new imagined (EFL) or real (ESL) community of English speakers.

The idea of imagined communities inspired Norton (2000) to look into how it may influence the understanding of language learning and learner identity. Although students have many incentives to learn a language, their membership in an imagined community is probably one of the most important reasons behind their language investment. She argued that in many language classrooms, the targeted community may be, to some extent, a reconstruction of past communities and historically constituted relationships, but also a community of the imagination, the desired community that offers possibilities for an enhanced range of identity options in the future.

Although the imagined communities might be far different from the real community of native speakers, the learners` images and motivation to be part of these communities can significantly influence their investment in learning and their commitment actions. The important point is that their investment in the target language, be it Japanese or English, can be

27

best understood in the context of future affiliations and identifications, rather than prevailing sets of relationships (Kanno and Norton, 2003). Therefore, an imagined community assumes an imagined identity, and a learner's investment in the target language can be understood within this context.

Meadows (2010) notes that "language learning involves at its very core a process of appropriation of others' voices" (p.98). In the context of his study, by "others' voices" he referred to the participants who relied mostly on legitimate native speakers in order to construct the national image of the country. In general, novice language learners have to "borrow" native speakers' intonation, expressions, body language, pronunciation etc. in order to acquire more or less legitimate peripheral status in a new community. Some learners may be quite successful in this process of imitation, while others may be less fortunate, but the bottom line is that native speakers should be patient and ready to offer their help and provide patterns for non-native speakers of English. The concept of imagined communities is not addressed much in EFL contexts like Japan. Little research has been done on Japanese' motivation in the light of identity and imagined communities of practice, can have a crucial influence on their motivation, investment and language learning. Therefore, it might be useful to understand how Japanese EFL learners identify with and invest in English language learning (Yoshizawa, 2010).

### 2.5. EFL Classroom as a Community of Practice

In the study of motivation and identity, it is necessary to consider the learning context. In an EFL setting where students have little chances to speak English out of the classroom, English class becomes the community of practice. There are several factors that may affect learners' motivations namely, the students, the teacher, the curriculum, and the teachinglearning processes which develop when implementing it. Japanese students in English classes have been perceived as passive or even apathetic by many EFL teachers and authors (Burden,2002 and McVeigh, 2001). This can cause problems as interaction and class participation is important for effective learning. Language classrooms can be seen as sociolinguistic environments (Cazden, 1988) and discourse communities (Hall and Verplaetse, 2000) in which interaction is believed to contribute to learners' language and identity development.

According to a review of studies in the area of classroom interaction and language learning presented by Hall and Verplaetse (2000), interactive processes are not strictly individual or equivalent across learners and situations; language learning is a social enterprise, jointly constructed, and intrinsically linked to learners' repeated and regular participation in classroom activities. Thus, the role of interaction in additional language learning and identity construction is especially important as it helps teachers and students work together to create the intellectual and practical activities that shape both the form and the content of the target language as well as the processes and outcomes of individual development (Hall and Verplaetse, 2000, p.10). Allwright (1984, p.158) claims that classroom interaction is "inherent in the very notion of classroom pedagogy itself". This view of teaching as interaction is in line with other researches (Boyd and Maloof, 2000; Ellis, 1990; Tsui, 1995; Wong-Fillmore, 1985) which support the belief that the quality of observable interactive patterns of student participation in classroom discourse correlates with learning outcomes.

The interactions in classrooms are closely related to the experiences of learners in every day's life, and how they communicate with others and perceive or are perceived by them. This fact implies that the interactions developed and constructed by teachers and learners should result in effective learning and teaching. According to Tsui (1995), such interactions must promote meaningful communication in the target language, probe learners 'prior learning and interpretations of new concepts about language and culture, engage learners with texts and resources that reflect language and culture in context, engage learners in tasks that deepen their

29

experience and understanding of the target language and culture and above all, promote reflection on language and culture learning and use (p.81).

However, this is an ideal scenario which differs across contexts and learning cultures. In reality, classroom interactions are usually adjusted or accommodated to a specific learning situation. According to Tudor (2006), it is hard to specify what teaching is, what it involves, and what the most effective way to teach a foreign language would be. The classroom culture depends on the vision of language and the vision of learning that both teachers and students hold. Who participates in the interactions and in which way should lead to effectiveness in the language learning process. These interactions are represented in two layers: the visible one in which the roles of students and teachers are clear, and the invisible one, in which what is reflected in attitudes, behaviors and language usage says more about the learning process as "classroom teaching is strongly negotiative in nature" (Tudor: 181).

Furthermore, teachers' practices and attitudes may strongly influence the learners' performance. Many traditional language teaching techniques such as use of explicit teaching of phonology, grammar, and vocabulary, are not very effective. Also, a positive teacher is an essential element in creating a supportive classroom (Combs,1965). A self-confident teacher manages the class in a way that promotes positive pupils and motivates them towards learning. Teachers who don't attend to the balance between the usage of L1 and L2 in classrooms, may inappropriately encourage non-directive behavior and decrease the learners' motivation and investment in the foreign language identity. Also, teachers who prefer student-centered methods of teaching are more likely to possess a more positive environment rather than those who apply traditional approaches. Some teachers restrict students' talking while others allow free expression of ideas and even interpretation of emotions. Finally, instructors who talk more provide less opportunity for their students to talk and practice their tasks on the hand (Combs,1965).

### 2.6. English Language Learning Motivation

In psychology, motivation is considered as an internal process that gives behavior energy, direction and persistence (in other words, it gives behavior strength, purpose, and sustainability) (Reeve, 2013). In foreign language acquisition, motivation is connected to intrinsic goals and is one of the main driving factors in learning, yet there is no agreement on the precise definition of the term (Oxford, 1992). Researchers still do not agree on its components and the different roles that they play—individual differences, situational differences, social and cultural factors, and cognition (Renchler, 1992; Belmechri & Hummel, 1998).

Motivation in EFL can be driven by various goals such as mastery of the language or communicative competence that vary person to person. Gardner (1985) considers motivation as the extent to which the individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction. Motivation has been studied from different aspects and the researchers have postulated language learner motivation in fields such as linguistics and sociolinguistics, with relations to second-language acquisition in a classroom setting.

Social psychologists were the first to initiate serious research on motivation in language learning because of their awareness of the social and cultural effects on L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2003). However, the long history of research in motivation traces back to the seminal work of Gardner and Lambert (1959) which predates the initiation of SLA research in 1960s and developed independently of SLA's primary psycholinguistic tradition during the last decades. Gardner's research showed that motivation played a bigger role in driving people and that cultural and educational contexts play distinct roles in boosting the learner's L2 performance. Several complementary or alternative theories of motivation have been proposed to specify different types of motivation. Harmer (1991, p. 3) uses the word 'goal' to categorize the motivation in second language learning into two types: 1. The short-term goal refers to when students wish to succeed in doing something in the near future, for example, students who want to pass their examination or to get a good grade or high scores. 2. Long-term goal refers to a wish of students or learners who want to get a better job in the future or to be able to communicate with people who use the language that they study or the target language.

Krashen (1988, p.22) classified motivation into two major categories: 1. Integrative motivation is defined as the desire to be a part of or recognized as important members of the community or the society that speaks the second language. It is based on an interest in learning the second language because of their need to learn about, and associate or socialize with the people who use it; but sometimes it involves emotion or affective factors as well (Saville-Troike, 2006, p. 86). 2. Instrumental motivation, on the other hand, involves the concepts of purely practical value in learning the second language in order to increase learners' career or business opportunities, give them more prestige and power, access scientific and technical information, or just pass a course in school (Saville-Troike, 2006, p. 86).

Furthermore, motivation is divided into two main categories of Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivations. Extrinsic motivation is based on external outcomes such as rewards and punishment. The learner needs an external motive to inspire his learning (Arnold, 2000, p. 14), such as homework, grade, or being praised by his teacher. This motivation could have a negative impact on learning as the students do not learn with their strong intention or will but rather due to rewards or punishment. Both integrative and instrumental motivations are grouped under the branch of the extrinsic motivation (Harmer, 1991, p. 4). Extrinsic motivation is also similar to the construct of "ought-to self" by Dörnyei, which will be discussed in the next sections.

2)Intrinsic motivation refers to learning as having its own reward (Arnold, 2000, p. 14). It means the learners are willingly and voluntarily trying to learn what they think is worthy or important to them. When students have intrinsic motivation, they have the internal desire to learn and they do not have the need for external outcomes. There are no negative impacts associated with intrinsic motivation. In addition, intrinsic motivation pushes the student to learn without rewards, because the need is innate and depends on their own will. Lightbown and Spada (1999: 56-57) mentioned that teachers do not have many effects on students' intrinsic motivate students are from different backgrounds and the only way to motivate students is by making the classroom a supportive environment.

Gardner awards great importance to the learners' orientation or integral motivation. His socio-educational model seeks to interrelate four aspects of L2 learning: 1) the social and cultural milieu in which the learner grows up; 2) individual learner differences such as a) intelligence b) language aptitude c) motivation and d) anxiety; 3) formal or informal learning contexts; and 4) final learning outcomes. In short, the socio-educational model is made up of four aspects (Gardner, 1985: 146 - 149):

 Cultural beliefs. Gardner posits that L2 learning takes place in specific cultural contexts.
 The learners' beliefs regarding learning together with their attitude towards the community of L2 speakers exerts an important influence on English language learning.

2) Individual learner differences. Gardner highlights the direct influence of four personal features on final performance in the L2. These differences are determined by the degree of: a) Intelligence, which establishes the efficiency and rapidity with which subjects perform tasks in class. b) Language aptitude. It includes several verbal and cognitive capacities which facilitate learning, such as the capacity for phonetic codification, grammatical sensitivity, memorization of linguistic elements, inductive capacity, verbal intelligence, auditory capacity, etc. c) Motivation, which involves the subjects' degree of commitment to L2 acquisition. It

integrates three basic components: Desire to learn, Effort towards a goal (L2 learning) and Greater or lesser satisfaction in learning (affective component)

3) Learning contexts: Formal; when L2 learning takes place in the classroom, Informal; it occurs in more spontaneous and natural situations where there is no formal instruction.

4) Outcomes: Linguistic: they refer to linguistic competence: knowledge of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc. Non-linguistic competence: this involves the affective component, that is, the subjects' attitudes and values.

In sum, the aforementioned models of motivation approach foreign language learning from different perspectives and with regard to both psychological and social factors. While all these classifications overlap in content to some extent, Gardner's model seem to be the most comprehensive of all as it takes into consideration the individual, psychological and social aspects of language learning (Gardner, 1985).

## 2.7. Affective Factors and Linguistic Self-confidence

Different psychological factors affect learning a second language and among those factors, linguistic self-confidence plays the most important role in motivation in learning a second language (Dörnyei, 2005). Linguistic self-confidence or a person's perceptions of their own competence and ability to accomplish tasks successfully is established through the interaction between the language learner and members of the language community and strengthened based on the quality and quantity of these interactions. In participating multi-linguistic communities or imagined communities, self-confidence fosters language learners' identification with the language community and increases their willingness to pursue learning that language.

Other psychological states affecting motivation pertain to affective factors. They are emotional factors which influence learning. They can have a negative or positive effect. Negative affective factors are called affective filters, which are the focus of theories about second language acquisition (Chastain, 1988). According to Krashen's affective filter hypothesis, emotional states such as tiredness, depression, boredom, etc., obstruct the learning process of the students. Anxiety is a factor that influences the affective filter. Low anxiety is more helpful for second language acquisition (Krashen, 1998). Krashen (1998) distinguishes three affective variables interacting with the affective filter.

1. Motivation, which is beneficial for language acquisition 2. Self-confidence, which is also useful for acquisition 3. Anxiety that is good in the case where it is at a low level.

Therefore, if the learners are highly motivated but lack linguistic self-confidence and have high anxiety, they might avoid speaking English, which makes them sound as being low motivated or low proficient in the English language. Foreign language learning anxiety has been combined with a large number of negative outcomes and these can be classified as physical, psychological or social (Yarahmadi, 2011). Yashima (2006) suggests that Japanese EFL learners are more likely to be anxious about using L2 compared to learners in other countries. In a study of Japanese university students, Kondo and Yang (2003) found that classroom anxiety was associated with three main factors: low proficiency, fear of negative evaluation by classmates, and speaking activities.

Caprio (1987) also found negative reactions to being called on in class and speaking English in his research on university students. Females reacted more negatively than males to calls for class participation, perhaps attributable to cultural factors in conjunction with their minority status in the groups studied. Burden (2002) found that about half of the Japanese students (n = 289) in the understudied university conversation classes suffered from some level of anxiety. Hashimoto's (2002) study of 56 Japanese students at a university in the United States revealed that anxiety exerted a strong influence on perceived competence and negatively influenced their willingness to communicate. The results of Yamashiro and McLaughlin's (2001) study of 220 Japanese junior college and university students suggested that higher levels of anxiety tend to indicate lower levels of proficiency.

Thus, anxiety is a major factor affecting Japanese learners' willingness to communicate. If the L2 learners have high linguistic self-confidence and low anxiety, they will still make more attempts to speak English not being afraid of making mistakes as successful communication does not rely only on words. Communication strategies may compensate for lack of linguistic skills. If the learners focus on conveying the meaning rather than being linguistically correct, their affective filters will be lowered and their learning facilitated.

### 2.8. Gardner's Model of Motivation

Although instrumental motivation was proved to be important for language learning, Gardner and Lambert proposed a theory emphasizing the socio-psychological attitudinal dimensions to the motivation factor. Language learners are not merely learning a new communication code, rather, in order to learn a new language, adopting or identifying with the target culture and communication norms plays a crucial role in motivation and successful learning. At the heart of the socio-educational model is the construct of integrative motivation, which refers to the degree a learner is open to the target culture and identifies himself with the target community (Gardner, 1985, 2001). This construct consists of integrativeness, attitudes toward the learning situation, and motivation (quantity).

Integrativeness is "a genuine interest in learning the second language in order to come closer to the other language community" (Gardner, 2001, p.5). In other words, the extent to which learners position themselves in relation to the L1 and L2 community and culture determines their integrativeness and similarly the integrativeness or the intensity of the learner's desire to be closer to the target community members, determines the degree of L2 acquisition and motivation to learn the target language (Gardner & Lambert, 1959).

Integrativeness is measured by three scales: attitudes towards the target language group, interest in foreign languages, and integrative orientation. Motivation is also measured by three

scales: motivational intensity (the amount of effort invested in learning the language), attitudes toward learning the target language and the desire to learn the target language. Attitudes toward the learning situation which refer to the individual's reactions to anything associated with the immediate context in which learning takes place is measured by two scales: attitudes toward the teacher and attitudes toward the course. Therefore, in Gardner's socio-psychological system, Integrativeness and Attitudes toward the Learning Situation play an essential role in support of Motivation; and Motivation is the key element to support an individual's essential behaviors to learn the target language. This relationship is shown in Figure 1.

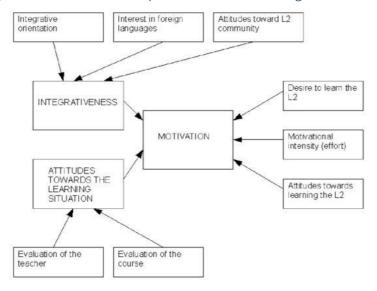


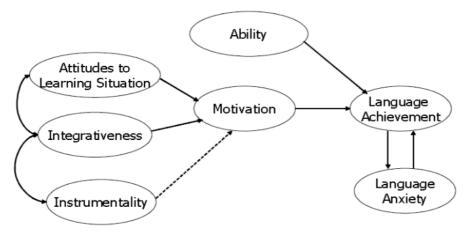
Figure 1: Gardner's Conceptualization of the Integrative Motive (Dörnyei, 2001, p. 17)

As mentioned earlier, Gardner and Lambert's (1959) research was the first study to demonstrate the importance of social psychology to language learning as well as one of the first pioneers to use the methodology to do research on motivation and intergroup processes. To explain the motivation factor, Gardner introduced three measures of intensity, desire to learn and attitude towards learning. Accordingly, he proposed an evaluation model called Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to quantitatively measure the four main factors and their sub-units and to predict L2 performance/outcome of the learning (Gardner, 2011).

There are four overarching variables measured in the AMTB: (1) 'Integrativeness' refers to the cultural context of L2 learning and attempts to measure how open a learner is to the other culture that primarily uses L2. This is assessed by evaluating the extent to which the learners are interested in foreign languages, and their attitudes towards the community of L2. (2) 'Attitude toward learning situation' accounts for the education context of L2 and the affective factors associated with it. It can be measured by asking the individual to evaluate the teacher and the EFL course. (3) 'Motivation' in the AMTB is assessed through the combination of the desire to learn, attitude towards learning, and motivational intensity. While integrativeness and attitude toward the learning situation target each site of learning, motivation accounts for both contexts as well as the affective and individual variables that influence the two contexts and (4) 'Language anxiety' is measured by determining how anxious the learner feels in the classroom or other contexts when he uses the language.

Other variables such as the instrumental orientation and parental encouragement in the AMTB are used in different settings or as needed. The Socio-Educational model is presented in Figure 2.





Although Gardner (2001) argues that integrative motivation is one of the most important constructs closely related to L2 achievement, his model is popular mainly because of a contrast it makes between integrative and instrumental orientations. Various empirical studies have been conducted based on the socio-educational model (e.g., Gardner, 1985; Gardner, Tremblay, & Masgoret, 1997). However, researchers have realized the limitations of integrativeness in EFL contexts. Since the 1990s, the impact of globalization and the dominant status of English as a world lingua franca have provoked critical discussions in the L2 motivation field. Researchers have been struggling to find new ways to explain motivation and identity in EFL contexts (e.g. Ushioda, 2013; Yashima, 2000). In EFL or international settings, the target community with which the learners identify English is quite obscure (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009, Lamb, 2004, 2009; Norton, 1997; Shimizu, Yashima, & Zenuk-Nishide, 2004).

Therefore, integrative motivation in its strong form as identification with and a desire to integrate into the target language community loses its explanatory power as English is fast becoming a basic educational skill in primary curricula (Graddol, 2006). There is no clearly defined target language community into which learners of English are motivated to 'integrate' in a world where the boundaries are blurred by cyberspace and online communication networks. Moreover, in an EFL country, integration does not seem a realistic reason for many learners to acquire English proficiency (Csizér, & Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009; Shimizu, et al., 2004; Yashima, 2000, 2009). Therefore, the application of the socio-educational model in EFL contexts, including Japan, has led to the recent propositions of a motivational model as well as other surrounding variables, including the L2 motivational self system (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009) and the variable of international posture (Yashima, 2002, 2009).

### 2.9. Motivational Self System

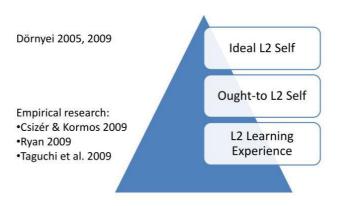
Markus and Nurius (1986) identified three main types of possible selves: ideal selves, expected selves, and feared selves. They asserted that "possible selves are the ideal selves that we would very much like to become. They are also the selves we could become and the selves we are afraid of becoming" (p. 954). Higgins and his associates' (e.g., Higgins, 1987; Higgins,

Klein, & Strauman, 1985; Higgins, Roney, Crowe, & Hymes, 1994) extensive research demonstrated that learners' ideal selves act as academic self-guides. Founded upon the theory of possible selves, Dörnyei (2005), suggested a new L2 motivation construct, the L2 Motivational Self System (Higgins, 1987; Markus & Nurius, 1986). He attempted to re-conceptualize the theory of learner motivation and identity by proposing the concept of L2 self. Dörnyei's system shifted the focus of integration to the internal self-concept of the L2 learners suggesting that a learner is motivated when challenged to achieve a desirable self-image using the target language, the "ideal L2 self" which is a central component of the construct of L2 Motivational Self System and "ought-to L2 self" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009).

In other words, the theoretical shift is regarded as a move from the traditional conceptualization of motivation with an integrative/instrumental dichotomy to the recent theorization of motivation as being part of the learner's self system, in which the motivation to learn an L2 may be closely associated with the learner's ideal and ought-to L2 self. Specifically, the heart of this movement is the complex interplay of current and imaginative self-identities and its impact on purposive behavior (Yowell, 2002).

The model consists of the three following dimensions: the ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and L2 learning experience. The possible selves are perceptions the person hold of himself in the future, they include images and in this way are related to the vision which is the target of integration. The *ideal L2 self*, according to Dörnyei (2005), is "the L2-specific aspect of one's ideal self" (p.106). This ideal L2 self promotes motivation by inspiring the present self to strive to become the ideal self, which is the kind of L2 user one aspires to be in the future. This imaginary picture promotes integrative and internalized instrumental motivation in language learning. The ought-to L2 self includes the attributions that one believes one *ought-to* possess as a result of perceived duties, obligations, or responsibilities (Dörnyei, 2005). The L2 learning experience concerns the situational and environmental aspects of the language learning process

as well as one's subjective learning experience and attitudes toward second language learning. A representation of the model can be seen in figure 3:



# L2 Motivational Self System



The L2 Motivational Self System has been widely tested and validated in a number of different countries such as Hungary, Saudi Arabia, China, Japan, and Iran (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Ryan, 2009). Based on a study by Taguchi et al. (2009) in Japan, China, and Iran, it was found that in all the three countries family influences and the prevention-focused aspects of instrumentality (e.g. learning the language to avoid failing an exam) impinged upon this variable, but its overall effect on learners' motivated behavior was considerably less than that of the ideal L2 self .

Suzuki (2011) found that the ideal L2 self was influential for the high- and midmotivated learners in his study, but not for the low-motivated learners. Also, the learners' immediate learning experience was an effective indicator of motivation for all the groups. He concluded that in Japan where access to English speakers is limited (Yoshida, 2003), this experience would be principally gained in the EFL classrooms. His research also indicated that compared to the high-motivated learners' ideal L2 self, the low-motivated learners' ideal L2 self was incompetent and unskilled. Finally, the difference between high- and low- motivated learners' ideal L2 self seemed to originate from the learners' linguistic self-confidence, or beliefs in their ability to master English. While low-motivated learners had lost their confidence through test-oriented EFL classes in high schools, the high-motivated learners developed their confidence through boosting their communicative practices. Suzuki (2011) recommends EFL teachers to provide the learners with various communicative activities and expose them with role models who demonstrate effective English communication skills.

### 2.10. Motivation and Investment

Inspired by the work of Bourdieu (1991), the construct of investment signals the socially and historically constructed relationship of learners to the target language and their sometimes ambivalent desire to learn and practice it. Along with her contribution to theories of identity, Norton (1995) contributes more by her construct, i.e. the notion of investment. She was concerned that most psychological theories of language learning motivation did not do justice to the often inequitable relations of power learners negotiate in different sites. She proposed the idea of "investment" to replace the role of motivation by claiming that the amount that learners invest in language learning may affect learner identity. The concept of investment signals the socially and historically constructed relationship of learners to the target language and their sometimes ambivalent desire to learn and practice it (Norton, 2000). It offers new perspectives on language learning and teaching.

Investment recognizes that the language learner has a complex social identity which changes across time and space and that learners often have different investments in the language practices of their classrooms and communities (Norton, 2000: 17). Norton argues that a learner may be a highly motivated language learner, but may nevertheless have little investment in the language practices of a given classroom or community, which may, for example, be racist, sexist, elitist, or homophobic. Thus, while motivation can be seen as a primarily psychological construct (Dörnyei, 2001), investment is framed within a sociological

framework, and seeks to make a meaningful connection between a learner's desire and commitment to learn a language, and their complex identity. The construct of investment has sparked considerable interest and research in the field. Darvin and Norton's (2015) model of investment in language learning locates investment at the intersection of identity, capital, and ideology. Responding to conditions of mobility and fluidity that characterize the 21st century, the model highlights how learners are able to move across online and offline spaces, performing multiple identities while negotiating different forms of capital.

Through learning a second language, students "invest" based on the imagined, desired community and identity to obtain in exchange, the potentials and material resources such as language, higher education, friendship, capital goods, and money which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital and social power. As the value of language learners' cultural capital increases, the learners' sense of themselves, their hopes for the future, and their imagined identities are reassessed. Hence there is an integral relationship between investment and identity, an identity which is theorized as multiple, changing, and a site of struggle. Moreover, the notion of investment, which is a socially constructed concept by poststructuralists, complements the construct of motivation which is a humanist conception with its concern for individual. The model of Investment is shown in figure (4):



Figure 4: Darvin and Norton's (2015) Model of Investment

### 2.11. Power

Closely related to the identity concept is the notion of power. Power is a principal condition of educational context; it is not static but dynamic and is generated as a natural effect of human beings' interactions and circulates among participants (Orellana, 1996; Wodak & Meyer, 2001; Fairclough, 2003; Ramos, 2004). The importance of power in the language learning process goes way beyond pre-established roles given in the classroom where the teacher is the one who holds the power both socially and pedagogically. In an EFL classroom, language is a means of interaction for teaching, learning, classroom management, creating motivation and etc.

Bourdieu (1991) argues that language should be viewed not only as a means of communication but also as a medium of power through which individuals pursue their own interests and display their practical competence. He maintains that linguistic utterances or expressions can be understood as the product of the relation between a "linguistic market" and a "linguistic habitus". When individuals use language in particular ways, they deploy their accumulated linguistic resources and implicitly adapt their words to the demands of the social field or market that is their audience. Hence every linguistic interaction bears the traces of the social structure that it both expresses and helps to reproduce.

Norton (1995; 2000) considers power as an important component in identity theories. She believes that identity is a site of struggle in a way that subjectivity is produced in a variety of social sites. These social sites and contexts are structured by relations of power in which the person takes up different subject positions that may be in conflict with each other. In a classroom, power circulates trough individuals where teachers and students can be in control through words, gestures and even silence in a way that the teacher is no longer the politically powerful figure in the class (Foucault, 1983). In her study of immigrant women in Canada,

44

Norton (2000, 2001) asserted that uneven power dynamics in the social relations mean that identities can become contested, resisted or denied, which may in turn, affect L2 learner' level of motivational investment and participation in the L2. How we engage our students' social identities in their L2 interactions within and beyond the classrooms would seem to have important consequences for how they visualize themselves as users of the L2 in the future.

### 2.12. ESL/EFL Classroom Interactions

Motivating students in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom is often a complex and difficult task that involves a multiplicity of psycho-sociological and linguistic factors (Dörnyei, 2005). But most English teachers will admit to the important role motivation plays in the teaching/learning process. Learner's attitude towards the learned language impacts the learner outside the classroom (Schumann, 1978; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Csizer & Dörnyei, 2005). A favorable attitude would motivate learners to reach their learning goals.

Morell (2004) compared conventional non-interactive methods with interactive classes that used entertainment, and students' oral presentations and interventions. He found that interactive teaching methods for university EFL students improved their comprehension and communicative competence. In interactive classes, teachers were aware of their students' needs to understand and improve their communicative competence and involvement. In noninteractive classes, teachers asserted that more time and preparation would be needed if they were to convert to interactive teaching methods.

In Japan, there seems to be a similar problem as EFL teachers often find it hard to apply communicative and interactive methods due to lack of time and syllabus limits. As it was previously discussed in the first chapter, classrooms in Japan are influenced by certain contextual and cultural factors specific to the educational setting of the country. Classes are mostly teacher-centered and silence is prevalent. Students rarely initiate communication. Yet, there are ways through which teachers can manage to have interactive classrooms despite the limits.

To improve classroom interactions, Udvari-Solner (1996) argues for teaching strategies that extend further than delivering instruction. The curriculum should include content that is relevant to the student's lives. He stipulates corrective feedback as part of teaching strategies and designing a teaching-learning process that can promote meaningful participation for all students within the classroom. Students' previous learning and knowledge should also be considered in selecting the course content. In cases where all students learn the same content, instructors can acquire different modes of responding to the content such as a variety of oral and written activities. Thus, students may select from several options such as written reports, debates, powerpoint presentations, graphic presentation of comparisons and contrasts, and persuasive and personal position essays.

Therefore, to have more interactive classes, cooperative group learning (Ghaith, 2003) and educational technology (Al-Jarf, 2004; Ramachaudran, 2004) can be used to shift the focus from teacher controlled classrooms to student-centered ones. In this regard, technology provides a useful tool to improve motivation and change the modes of learning.

### 2.13. Technology and ELT

With the urge to facilitate effective language learning and providing the necessary educational tools, institutes combine different methodologies with instructional technologies that promise to motivate learners and to respond effectively to their needs. Language learners have unprecedented opportunities for developing second language literacy skills and intercultural understanding, in multimedia computer-assisted language learning environments. By using materials on CD-ROM, DVD's or even Web-based resources, the ESL class (English as a second language) becomes more dynamic, attention-grabbing, offering the students new entertaining ways of practicing their listening and responding skills. One of the contributions of technology to English learning in Japanese universities is computer-assisted language learning (CALL). In the CALL classrooms, computers are important tools in the enhancement of learning skills. The positive aspects of having a digital mediator between the students and teachers and the possibility of submitting and correcting the homework in the most efficient way are evident. If used properly and with clear educational objective, CALL can interest and motivate the English learners. Using the right and appropriate software, it can provide a meaningful communicative learning environment.

Studies have shown the motivational benefits of computers to writing classes. For example, in a study of 167 ESL and EFL students in 12 university academic writing courses in Hong Kong, Taiwan and the U.S., Warschauer (1996) found that the students had a positive attitude toward using computers and that this attitude was consistent across a number of variables, including gender, typing skill, and access to a computer at home. Moreover, self-reported knowledge of computers and amount of experience using electronic mail correlated positively with motivation. Also, a factor analysis of survey questions revealed three common factors of motivation, labeled *communication, empowerment*, and *learning*. Finally, the level of integration of computer-based projects into the overall course goals determined the learners' motivation.

However, although there are many advantages to using a computer, the application of current technologies still has its own limitations and disadvantages. While most of the studies have focused on the benefits of CALL, few studies have addressed the negative outcomes. Computers provide useful tools for autonomous and motivating learning, yet, some aspects of traditional classrooms such as direct eye-contact and teacher-student interaction might be affected negatively. Although in a writing class, computers are beneficial and speaking seems to lose its importance, the lack of casual or structured interactions and speaking activities can hinder the improvement of other academic skills and lead to demotivation especially for Japanese students who don't have many chances to practice English out of the classroom. Finally, CALL courses must be able to harness technology in ways that encourage intimacy with the teacher while at the same time, they promote learner independence. According to Taylor (2009), in the implementation of educational technologies, humans must be considered first, meaning that the human relationship must be prioritized, so that the technology falls into the background while human classroom interactions are encouraged and cultivated (Gleason, 2014).

The question is whether CALL can pave the way for improvement of motivation, identity creation and willingness to communicate in Japanese EFL learners. Nonetheless, there is no doubt that, as Japanese students are known to be shy, less willing to start direct communication and interested in media and technology, it seems that computers could provide a less stressful environment for creative and communicative writing and easy feedback. Hence, to briefly address the impact of CALL on motivation and identity, the attitudes of Japanese students toward CALL and classroom interactions will be incorporated into this study as additional research variables. Meanwhile, the ethnographical study of the selected classes will mostly focus on general aspects of classroom interactions and their impact on the motivations and identities of EFL learners.

# 2.14. Previous Studies on Motivation and Identity2.14.1. Motivational Orientations

A series of factors converge in the educational context; some of them are external factors originating from the social and familiar milieu, while others emerge from the micro-society of the school and the classroom, where teachers and students interact through the implementation of the L2 curriculum. As certain studies have revealed (Ashton, 1985; Skinner and Belmont, 1993; Lorenzo Bergillos, 1997; García Sánchez, 1999; Uribe, 2000), the classroom as microsystem can modify the students' motivation. DeCharms' research (1976) is in line with this idea. Indeed, he varied classroom methodologies in order to manipulate the students'

motivation and found that they resulted in important changes in the learners' autonomy and self-regulation.

Lukmani (1972) found that an instrumental orientation was more important than an integrative orientation in non-westernized female learners of L2 English in Bombay. His investigation revealed that the secondary students had a strong instrumental motivation and that this had a strong correlation with their performance in the English as a Second Language class. These were the instrumental reasons adduced by the students, in order of importance (1972: 271): Getting a better job, continuing university studies, travelling abroad, acquiring new ideas and opening up new horizons, becoming adapted to new times, carrying out advanced reading in field of study, having access to international books and maps, and being in touch with the main opinion leaders in the world.

In general, studies show that two common language learning goals are knowledge orientation and international orientation. knowledge orientation pertains to the use of a language to obtain broader access to information (Csizér & Kormos, 2009). International orientation, refers to the role of English as a tool of communication among people from all around the world. Yashima (2000) called this international posture and claimed that it includes "interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to study or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners and ... a non-ethnocentric attitude toward different cultures" (2000: 57). In previous research, knowledge orientation has been linked to parental encouragement (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Kormos et al., 2011), international posture (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Kormos & Csizér, 2008) and ideal L2 self (Kormos & Csizér, 2008).

Svanes (1987) studied the relationship between students' motivation and cultural distance from the L2 community and concluded that European and American learners had a more integrative motivation than Middle Eastern, African, or Asian ones, who manifested a more instrumental motivation. He equally obtained a low correlation between integrative

motivation and students' grades. In his multiple regression analysis, he found little relation between motivational variables and variance in academic performance. Strong's (1982) results further corroborated the lack of correlation between integrative motivation and level of L2 competence, furthermore revealing that integrative motivation might be the consequence or result – and not the cause – of L2 progress.

Strong reached this conclusion after remarking that higher level students evinced stronger instrumental motivation than beginners, something which might induce us to believe that integrative orientation is resultative and not causative: "... the advanced children showed significantly more integrative orientation to the target language group than the beginners, lending support to the notion that integrative attitudes follow second language acquisition skills rather than promoting them" (1982: 1). A high level of instrumental motivation was found among Hungarian learners of English and German (Csizér & Kormos, 2008b) and Polish learners of Hebrew (Okuniewska et al., 2010). Moreover, instrumental motives were more common than intrinsic ones in a sample of dyslexic language learners (Csizér et al., 2010).

Finally, Csizér and Kormos (2008a) found a link between instrumentality and the ideal L2 self among secondary school students. However, other researchers have found that the degree to which the learner identifies with the TL, and in many cases a positive identification with the target language and culture results in successful language acquisition (e.g. Regan 2013; Norton 2000; Nestor and Regan, 2011), while negative identification results in unsuccessful language acquisition (e.g. Norton, 2000; Block, 2006).

Research into motivations of Japanese EFL learners has revealed varying results in terms of instrumental, integrative, intrinsic and extrinsic motivational orientations, and the effect these have on language learning. Hedge (2000) conducted a study that investigated the motivation of Japanese EFL learners. The findings indicated that the most common reasons for studying English were for communication with people overseas, finding employment in a high

50

profile career, processing international information, and understanding other cultures.

In general, a major motivational factor for Japanese learners has been identified as instrumental orientation in a number of studies (Burden, 2002, Matsuda, 2004) while integrativeness has been found to be stronger in Japanese EAP (English for Academic Purposes) students (Brown, Robson and Rosenkjar, 2001). Since competency in English is tested on the university entrance examination in Japan, many students have a high level of instrumental motivation (McKay & Wong, 1996).

Furthermore, integrativeness correlated with both motivation and "Willingness to Communicate" in Japanese EFL learners (Yashima, 2002). Some studies found a lack of both integrative (LoCastro, 2001) and instrumental orientations in Japanese learners (O'Donnell, 2003; Sawaki, 1997). In short, the results of these studies seem inconsistent, which reveals the complexity of motivational studies. Moreover, the researchers didn't claim that the results applied to all Japanese students in tertiary, rather they were based on a specific sample of leaners (Johnson, 2009).

### 2.14.2. Motivational Selves Studies

Taguchi et al. (2009) showed that the Ideal L2 self was positively correlated with integrativeness, and proved the validity of the Motivational Self System by demonstrating that the Ideal self "achieved a better explanatory power toward learners' intended efforts than integrativeness did" (ibid. p 78). He also found that the relationship between L2 motivation and L2 achievement is not a simple linear cause-and-effect relationship (Taguchi, 2013). Ghapanchi et al. (2011) and Rajab et al. (2012) found that L2 ideal self was the most significant predictor of the L2 language acquisition, while Islam et al.'s (2013) found that national interest milieu, international posture, and cultural interest had much to do in the formation of the L2 motivation among Pakistani students. In a study conducted by Islam et al. (2013), attitudes towards learning English and the Ideal L2 self were the strongest predictors of intended effort.

Meanwhile, the ought-to self factor appeared to have the lowest effect on the EFL learners' motivation in some studies (Islam et al., 2013).

As to Japanese English learners, some studies found a close relationship between ideal L2 self and the intended learning effort implying that "ideal L2 self" exerts a strong motivational power for learning an L2 (Apple, Falout, & Hill, 2013; Ueki & Takeuchi, 2012). Yashima (2009) admitted that the ideal L2 self and motivation showed the highest correlation when the learner was motivated by both intrinsic and extrinsic motivations. The correlation failed when motivation was totally intrinsic. Other studies showed statistical similarities between ideal L2 self and international posture (Yashima, 2002), and identified regulation, an internalized type of extrinsic motivation within the self-determination theory (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Intervention studies, enabling learners to elaborate on their ideal L2 self, also revealed that the learners' ideal L2 selves could be enhanced by those interventions (Sampson, 2012, Munezane, 2013).

In terms of learning experience, which is another component of the Self Theory, anxiety resulting from past language learning trauma, specifically that occurring in junior and senior high school, was found as a recurring theme in the literature on learning experience. Falout and Maruyama (2004) concluded that the negative experience resulted from grammar and vocabulary-based *washback* teaching methods endured in prior studies was a source of university student demotivation. Matsuda (2004) also found that students enter into university with a low self-estimation of their English ability as a result of past negative experiences in high school. Other studies have found that it is a strong motivating component. Taguchi et al. (2009) showed that English learning experience had the highest impact on intended effort, becoming the first predictor of it.

### 2.14.3. ESL/EFL Identity

Fujieda (2012) explored how Japanese English language learners constructed their

writer identities as college students. He found that the participants had constructed their writer identities negotiating their past and present practices of writing in school. Through various writing activities and tasks in higher education, students had formed their positionalities in higher education. Ryan (2009), Ueki and Takeuchi (2012), as well as Kojima-Takahashi (2013) have each examined the linguistic identities of Japanese university students based on Dörnyei's (2005) motivational self system framework. While the aforementioned studies focused on the relationship between motivation and self/identity, other studies focused on the sociocultural impact of the EFL context on L2 identity. A number of studies have examined the role of learners' social and cultural identities in learning English and the role of the English-teaching profession in reconstructing people's identities and roles.

The studies by Fernando (1997) and Gunasekara (2005) conclude that the role of English within the University system and also to a certain extent in the society is very much attached to the social identity of the students as English is the 'privileged' language (Gunasekara, 2005). Researchers (Pierce, 1995; Armour, 2004) assert that negotiating multiple identities is a site for struggle. Most learners experience identity conflicts due to their linguistic inadequacy, contextual limitations, being positioned into certain identities and hence resisting in doing so. Some studies showed that ESL learners were often placed into a subordinate status because they were perceived as racially and culturally different and they did not know the linguistic tools to gain entry into the dominant speech communities (Alim, 2005; Ogbu& Simon, 1994).

Kim (2003) explored the relationship between language and sociocultural identities of ESL learners in a multicultural society in Malaysia. Data collected by means of interviews, personal narratives, and questionnaires revealed that in a multicultural postcolonial society, identity issues were far more complex and multilayered and that the aforementioned identity shifts took place frequently in strategic and nonstrategic ways as the participants found their way in society in search of acceptance and belonging.

McKay and Wong's (1996) study, found that their participant "Michael Lee" actively resisted the way he was positioned as an ESL student. He would decide not to write on the suggested topics such as family or school. Rather, he would choose to write about his hobbies and interests which were sports and pets. McKay and Wong concluded that the participant's attempt to "write about his hobbies" depicted the delicate social negotiations to fashion desirable identities. He resisted being a passive learner and being positioned by the imposed identities and hence tried to reposition and utilize discourses and counter-discourses.

In his survey with adolescent Hispanic ESL learners, Ajayi (2006) indicated that learners invested heavily in their native culture identity and valued the importance of retaining their heritage language while acquiring the English language. Hispanic adolescents expected educational systems to help them to be recognized and appreciated as complex social beings. They also believed that their life histories and experiences should be integrated into the school curriculum. Parks (2000), using the sociocultural Activity Theory and Norton's investment theory as the analytical frameworks, found that learners' identities significantly influenced their investment, views, and approaches toward the same task in her research on an ESP (English for special purposes) course in Canada. Although the ESL students in this study were highly motivated, their multiple identities (a team player, a mature, independent thinker etc.) had a significant impact on how they invested in the classroom learning tasks.

Morita (2004) focused on international students' experience of socializing into the academic discourses in a Canadian University. She also discovered that learner identities simultaneously shaped and were shaped by their participation in class discussion. When learners struggled to participate actively, they developed the identity of an incompetent learner, which made future participation more difficult. Morita (2004) also pointed out that behind the learners' silence and reticence represented a complex web of power relations, including issues

54

of culture, identity, curriculum, and pedagogy. The co-construction of the agency, however, was not a peaceful process. When their identities as participants were acknowledged and affirmed, they were often able to renegotiate and reconstruct a more favorable identity. Sometimes the learners were not able to escape the negative identity ascribed to them due to their limitations as second language speakers, especially when the identity was imposed by more powerful members of the community, such as instructors.

Ueno (2001) suggested different views as opposed to the prevailing assumption that the negotiation of EFL identities is a site of struggle. His study of 11 bilingual Japanese middle school students who attended a Japanese Saturday school showed that none of the students interviewed could give a clear-cut definition of their identities. Half of the participants claimed that they would locate their identities midway between American and Japanese. They enjoyed belonging to both communities or in a sense, to neither of them. While the participants accepted American values of heterogeneity and individualism, they did not neglect their Japanese values (homogeneity and collectivism). Ueno's (2001) study highlights that identity formation is fluid and complex rather than clear-cut and solid. However, age was an important factor in this study. As the participants were middle school students whose identities. The negotiation of identity can vary based on age, social and learning status, and other contexts and conditions associated with language learning. Learners who enter the ESL community in older ages might find it harder to adopt new identities and avoid identity struggles.

While most research on language and identity has been conducted with learners in second language settings (Duff & Uchida, 1997; Goldstein, 1995), some researchers have also looked at identity construction of learners in the native language country. In one of the few case studies that focused on foreign language and learner identity, Kinginger (2004) relates a detailed longitudinal study of her student, Alice, who studied French in an American university.

Alice, a lower class, older-than-average student, earned her tuition by working several jobs, in the desperate hope of studying French in her college's study abroad program. Throughout Alice's foreign language study in college, she created a romantic image of France which was rather unrealistic. Her image of France resembled an image of Oz or Wonderland, similar to the images represented in travel brochures and television shows. She also expected the French people to be cultural, friendly and accepting as she dreamed to make friends with the natives and learn their cultures while she shared her own. Hence, Alice had dispositions toward language learning, formed imagined communities of French language users, and struggled to access social networks at home and abroad, and use language learning as a source of coherence (p. 223). The author questions how her dispositions can be characterized in terms of claims to a renegotiated identity, where such dispositions come from and how they change over time. The questions extend to how Alice imagines the communities of French language speakers, her own role within them, and the symbolic capital she will gain through these endeavors. Also, the author is concerned with what kinds of communities of practice offer her membership to and how she gains access to them. Alice's case offers a view of how ethnographic-style case studies may teach us more than faceless, quantitative studies.

Norton and Kamal (2003) report a case study of Afghan refugee children in Pakistan whose investment in learning English was due to the imagined literal community and image of English as a language of possibility. Their participants' attitudes toward language learning and target society were quite different from the identities examined in ESL contexts. There was definitely a positive dimension of identities that was influenced by their positive image of the target language community which they hoped to belong to someday, by speaking the language of the community.

#### 2.14.4. EFL and Identity Studies in Japan

Yoshizawa (2010) suggests that the identity of L2 learners in an EFL context has not been addressed much as opposed to the core circle of English speaking countries. He calls for more research on EFL learner's identities and how they are formed and influenced by learners' imagined community of practice as it is useful in understanding how EFL learners in Japan identify with and invest in English. Kanno's (2003) analysis of policies and practices of four schools in Japan showed that it is not only the individuals that imagine the communities that they hope to be part of but also schools envision imagined communities for their students. Kubota (2004) asserts that in a country like Japan where English is praised as an international language, English is thought to lead to "international/intercultural understanding". An immense value is awarded to English in Japan as a result of the cultural, political, and economical imperialism and colonization by the U.S. whether or not this fact is salient or important to the learners. The English language has become a symbol of internationalization and the language and its proficiency are used as a commodity.

However, due to the cultural factors influencing the learner's identity, the development of L2 learners' identities ultimately involve a conflict between *foreignness* and *Japaneseness* (Hashimoto, 2000). It has been suggested that to be able to speak English, Japanese believe it is necessary to discard their innate shyness and be more outgoing, i.e., 'individualistic' and 'aggressive' (Mouer & Sugimoto, 1986, p. 99). This promotes the idea that in an EFL setting, native-like fluency in spoken English is resisted for the fear of losing cultural identity (see Picken, 1986). The importance of national identity and the use of Japanese in EFL classroom has been the subject of few EFL studies. Turnbull's (2017) study on 97 Japanese tertiary-level EFL students revealed that support for the theories of the Nihonjinron discourse is not as strong amongst the younger generation in Japan. Participants identified the Japanese language as a constituent element of national identity. Turnbull suggests that there is a need to build a positive relationship between the English language as a support for Japanese identity if we are to see an improvement in Japanese students' attitudes toward EFL.

In addition to the effect of national identity on learners' English speaking practices and their resistance to do so, another factor influencing Japanese students' L2 identity development is the product of cultural views toward learning and classroom participation. In Osterman's (2014) case studies on experiences of Japanese university students' willingness to speak English in class, one finding was that students did not like to use English with other students and that their Willingness to Communicate (WTC) was lower with other Japanese students than with native speakers. Through interviews with students, he found one reason for this seemed to be related to collectivism and peer pressure, characteristics that are often said to be apparent in Japanese learners of English, while another theme was fear of feeling embarrassed by not being understood or making mistakes.

With regards to identity construction, Kojima-Takahashi (2013) observed that English was not necessarily related to *who* all of the respondents were aspiring to become or the identity they imagined to achieve: for some, it was merely an extrinsic goal; others saw themselves as future English users and hence felt more motivated to study that language. Furthermore, studies show that although Japanese students resist practicing speaking English and develop their L2 identities as proficient speakers, they manage to construct their L2 writer identities as writing is a skill which doesn't require overcoming affective filters such as fear of speaking or anxiety. As Zhang (2013) notes, the personas that people adopt when writing do not necessarily match how they project themselves in face-to-face interactions.

An example would be Fujieda's (2013) study exploring constructions of writer's identities of Japanese EFL learners. The study showed that the students negotiated their identities of writing in English and tried to construct their writer's identities. In contrast with

58

language practices in high school where the participants worked on more grammatical tasks rather than paragraph writing, in college, students had constructed their writer's identities, taking fully into account the differentiation of writing practices between high school and college. Moreover, students succeeded to form their positionalities in higher education through various writing activities and tasks in the English class.

In brief, studies on identities show that L2 identities are multidimensional, a site of struggle, fluid, and changing over time. In the case of Japanese L2 learners, these studies suggest that Japanese EFL learners often have multifaceted L2 identities which are extensively affected by their national identity and sociocultural factors. However, there not many studies in the EFL context of Japan which have looked at EFL learning through the lenses of Identity theories using qualitative methods. Most of the studies have focused on motivation and self theories. Although motivational self system establishes a link between motivation and identity, Norton's ideas of identity, imagined communities, and investment provide us with new perspectives which haven't been studied as it has been approached by the present study. The interplay of identities and psychological and social factors affecting the Japanese EFL learners need to be studied in-depth by means of qualitative inquiry as opposed to the ample quantitative research which has been conducted in Japan on the subject of EFL motivation.

### 2.14.5. Conclusion

In sum, it can be concluded that motivation is perhaps one of the most important elements in the process of second/foreign language learning with a huge impact on an L2 learner's learning outcome. Researchers have conceptualized various L2 motivation models beginning with Gardner's socio-educational model featuring integrativeness and instrumentality (1985, 2001, 2005). However, in recent years, Gardner's (1985, 2001, 2005) concept of learning a second language in order to get closer to another language community has been questioned. Research shows the importance of instrumental orientation on language learning motivation. Meanwhile, the most recent motivation models have incorporated the concepts of identity and self to explain L2 learners' motivation. Dörnyei's L2 Motivational Self System (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009) proposes that a learner is motivated when he strives to move from his present self toward a future self.

In relation to motivation and self theories, Norton argues that a learner may be a highly motivated language learner, but may nevertheless have little investment in the language practices of a given classroom or community. Thus, while motivation can be seen as a primarily psychological construct, investment is framed within a sociological framework, and seeks to make a meaningful connection between a learner's desire and commitment to learn a language, and their complex identity. Norton is centrally concerned with how learners negotiate and sometimes resist the diverse positions the social contexts offer them. She maintains that through human agency, language learners who struggle to speak from one identity position may be able to reframe their relationship with their interlocutors and claim alternative, more powerful identities from which to speak, thereby enabling learning to happen.

Further, she asserts that the diverse conditions under which language learners speak, read, or write the second language are influenced by relations of power in a different site. She also proposes the concept of *imagined communities* that language learners may aspire to join when they learn a new language. This concept which is similar to Integrative motivation by Gardner provides a better description of learners' motivation which focuses only on integrating with target language communities.

In short, While Gardner provides a useful framework to categorize and define learners' motivational orientations, Dörnyei proposes a more comprehensive model by connecting motivation to self and identity. To get a deeper sociocultural understanding of learners' motivations, Norton goes further and links motivation and self to the diverse social, historical, and cultural contexts where learning takes place. Her research shows how L2 motivation can

60

be affected by various identity positions and how those identities can affect L2 motivation and investment. Hence, applying alternative perspectives to motivation studies including resistance, identity, and imagined communities would allow us to approach the L2 learners' motivation from psychological and sociocultural perspectives and conduct a qualitative research which aims at addressing individual voices and unveiling the process of EFL learning in depth.

# Chapter 3. The Methodology

## 3.1. Introduction

As it was mentioned in earlier chapters, previous studies in the field of ESL/EFL, mostly focused on quantitative methods, especially in motivation studies. Recently, many scholars have approached motivation from the lenses of identity theories and several frameworks have been proposed. Yet, there is not a comprehensive model of research which connects identity to motivation with regard to the various contextual factors specific to the EFL Context. Most of the models have been proposed with regards to English learners in English countries. Therefore, a qualitative approach to the sociolinguistic and psychological aspects of English learning in a homogenous country like Japan will significantly contribute to the understanding of the negative factors influencing English learning and teaching in Japan.

Motivation, identity, and self have their roots in one's psychological traits and cultural traits of the context. Hence, a qualitative method will provide us with a new perspective and an in-depth analysis of the sociocultural practices and identity negotiations of EFL learners. The current study has applied a fresh approach as the number of participants were more than the typical numbers in qualitative studies in order to access a wider range of opinions and perspectives. At the same time, as opposed to the common practice of interview method, the open-ended questionnaire was utilized which let us collect the responses more easily and also in English as Japanese students perform better on writing skills.

Although the main goal was to conduct a thematic analysis of the participants' narratives, a 3-point Likert scale survey was used to introduce the research idea to the participants and prepare the background for answering the further questions. Meanwhile, it enabled us to provide a simple descriptive analysis to obtain a quick overview of their general motivational tendencies. Finally, the observation of two understudy courses helped the researcher gain a general understanding of the educational practices and the participants' performance. It also enabled her to establish rapport with the participants prior to conducting the survey. Accordingly, in this chapter, the methodology of the study will be introduced in detail. First, we will determine the research design and analysis. Next, data recourses and data collection techniques will be presented. Finally, the ethical considerations will be discussed.

### 3.2. Research Design and Analysis

According to Fraenkel & Wallen (2003), quantitative research can be classified as either descriptive or experimental research. The purpose of descriptive research is to become more familiar with phenomena, to gain new insight into the selected phenomena. In contrast, experimental research is to test cause and effect relationships among variables. In descriptive research, researchers do not have direct control over independent variables because their manifestations have already occurred or because they are inherently not manipulable (Kerlinger & Lee, 2000). In contrast, a study based on a qualitative process of inquiry has the goal of understanding a social or human problem from multiple perspectives (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

Hence, qualitative researchers put in use a wide range of interconnected interpretive practices, to get a better understanding of the subject of research. Furthermore, qualitative research is conducted in a natural setting and involves a process of building a complex and holistic picture of the phenomenon of interest as well as being inductive in nature. In other words, qualitative research grows from its holistic exploration of complex social phenomena (Creswell, 2002; Patton 1990). Moreover, Sato (1993) pointed out that the techniques of qualitative research were appropriate when the field of study was not well-developed, requiring the researcher to explore the nature of the target phenomena.

A common method in qualitative research is Grounded Approach. Grounded theory is an inductive type of research, based or "grounded" in the observations or data from which it was developed; it uses a variety of data sources, including quantitative data, review of records, interviews, observation, and surveys. Thus, this study utilized grounded theory applying different methods of data collection including a Likert scale survey, and Open-ended questionnaire and Ethnography. Thus, as it is one of the basics of the Grounded Approach, the results of this study helped the researcher to arrive at better theoretical explanations of the constructs addressed by the research. The characteristics of the research design were naturalistic and phenomenological with an inductive approach meaning that the research didn't aim at testing a hypothesis. The study began with research questions and the goal was to gain a relatively holistic insight into the studied phenomenon. Ethnography and observation techniques were used to monitor students-teacher interaction and educational practices in a naturalistic setting which was not manipulated by the researcher.

Although the quantitative data analysis in this research was descriptive, it helped to provide a more comprehensive overview of the participants' motivational orientations. The sample of participants was purposive rather than random since the aim was to "gain insight" into the selected phenomenon which was the EFL learners' motivational orientations, and the interplay of self, identity and learning practices (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2003). Table (3.1) represents a summary of qualitative approaches that have been considered in this study. It is difficult to draw a line between these approaches as the traces of each approach can be found in the present research. In sum, the present study made use of a combination of qualitative approaches to enable a thorough understanding of the participants' learning practices.

Approach	Analysis method
Grounded theory	An inductive method of developing theory grounded in data
Phenomenology	Study of the perceptions, feelings and lived experiences of the participants
Ethnography	Description and interpretation of a cultural/social group or system based on an extended period of observation
Thematic analysis	Pinpointing and examining patterns (themes) within data to describe a phenomenon

Table (3.1) Qualitative Approaches Applied to the Present Study

To analyze the data, the thematic analysis approach was applied. Thematic analysis

(Braun & Clarke, 2006) is a method of identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006: 79). This approach goes beyond identifying and analyzing to interpreting various aspects of the research topic (Boyatzis, 1998). The procedure of thematic analysis was conducted based on the following framework:

Phase	Process	Result	Reflexivity Journal Entries <sup>[34]</sup>
Phase 1	Read and re-read data in order to become familiar with what the data entails, paying specific attention to patterns that occur.	Preliminary "start" codes and detailed notes.	List start codes in journal, along with a description of what each code means and the source of the code.
Phase 2	Generate the initial codes by documenting where and how patterns occur. This happens through data reduction where the researcher collapses data into labels in order to create categories for more efficient analysis. Data complication is also completed here. This involves the researcher making inferences about what the codes mean.	Comprehensive codes of how data answer research question.	Provide detailed information as to how and why codes were combined, what questions the researcher is asking of the data, and how codes are related.
Phase 3	Combine codes into overarching themes that accurately depict the data. It is important in developing themes that the researcher describes exactly what the themes mean, even if the theme does not seem to "fit". The researcher should also describe what is missing from the analysis.	List of candidate themes for further analysis.	Reflexivity journals need to note how the codes were interpreted and combined to form themes.
Phase 4	In this stage, the researcher looks at how the themes support the data and the overarching theoretical perspective. If the analysis seems incomplete, the researcher needs to go back and find what is missing.	Coherent recognition of how themes are patterned to tell an accurate story about the data.	Notes need to include the process of understanding themes and how they fit together with the given codes. Answers to the research questions and data-driven questions need to be abundantly complex and well-supported by the data.

Table (3.2) Phases of Data Coding (Braun & Clarke, 2006)

Phase 5	The researcher needs to define what each theme is, which aspects of data are being captured, and what is interesting about the themes.	A comprehensive analysis of what the themes contribute to understanding the data.	The researcher should describe each theme within a few sentences.
Phase 6	When the researchers write the report, they must decide which themes make meaningful contributions to understanding what is going on within the data. Researchers should also conduct "member checking". This is where the researchers go back to the sample at hand to see if their description is an accurate representation.	A thick description of the results.	Note why particular themes are more useful at making contributions and understanding what is going on within the data set. Describe the process of choosing the way in which the results would be reported.

In this study, we aimed at providing "descriptive accounts of the phenomenon under investigation. While occurrences of themes were counted, the quantitative information was rather descriptive and kept to the minimum (Smith, 2008). The paradigm of qualitative research follows that even the template of codes is evolved in the process of interpreting the data (Charmaz, 2008), while another approach would be to allow the template to 'emerge' from the data based on a theoretical framework (Fereday & Muir-Cochrane, 2006). However, the role of the researcher will not remain passive as he is the one in charge of identifying patterns and themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Therefore, it is openly acknowledged that this study applies the frameworks of motivation, self and identity theories:

Stage 1: Identification of coding template	Frameworks were determined and key concepts were
	selected based on the 3 research frameworks
Stage 2: Identification of the data set and	Open-ended questions sought responses related to the
devising survey questions	research variables based on motivation, self and
	identity frameworks and allowed the elicitation of
	more information for adding new concepts
Stage 3: Analysis of the data: applying the template	Identification of conceptual and lexical equivalents
of codes to the data set	of self, identity, and motivation.
Stage 4: Examining the emerging themes	Further theoretical exploration and explanation based
(Corroborating or challenging the coded themes)	on the emerging themes

Table (3.3) Tabular Representation of the Stages Undertaken in the Project

### 3.3. Data Resources

### 3.3.1. Research Participants

The participants of this study were 70 undergraduate students of 6 CALL Writing Classes and 3 integrated English speaking courses in a top-ranking public university in the Kansai area, Japan. The CALL classes were selected with regard to the research goals and tools provided in the learning setting such as computer-assisted teaching which provided a unique interactional environment and also online conduction of the surveys during the class time. Speaking courses were selected to broaden the diversity of classroom factors and teaching environment. The reason why this specific university was selected was that its students were assumed to possess a higher English proficiency level and hence a stronger L2 motivation due to the level of English proficiency required to pass the entrance exam. This level of proficiency was necessary to conduct an English survey and also for the students to have reached to some level of identity construction and goal setting. The characteristics of the participants are presented in table (3.4). For more details, see appendix (2).

### Table (3.4) Participants' Information

Grade: undergraduate, first and second year- Age:17- 21(N=69) 22 – 26 (N=1) PNA: Prefer Not to Answer

Gender	Number of Participants
Male	45
Female	24
PNA	1

### 3.3.2. Other Data Resources

The researcher was allowed to participate as an observer and occasional teaching mediator in the classes. The class webpage was also observed regularly as it provided the researcher with the information on the course design, materials, instructions, and activities. It also enabled access to the students' essays and presentation scripts in the CALL classes. The students' writing samples were observed unsystematically to obtain a general apprehension of their identity development and motivation to write or participate in this community of practice. Detailed information and analysis of the students' essays were not included in the research due to time limits and ethical considerations.

# 3.4. Data Collection Instruments

The data collection instruments for this research consisted of a three-point Linkert scale survey [adapted from Gardner's (2004) Attitude/Motivation Battery Test], an open-ended questionnaire, and observation commentaries.

# 3.4.1. Survey

The goals of any second language program are partly linguistic and partly nonlinguistic. The linguistic goals focus on developing competence in the individual's ability to read, write, speak and understand the second language, and there are many tests available with which to assess these skills. Non-linguistic goals emphasize aspects such as improved understanding of the other community, desire to continue studying the language, and interest in learning other languages. Very few tests have been made available to assess these nonlinguistic aspects. The Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (Gardner,2011) has been developed to meet this need. Its development follows more than 20 years of research, much of which has been directed to the investigation of English-speaking students learning French as a second language.

Other investigations have either modified these items or used comparable ones to study French EFL students in Canada (Clément, Gardner & Smythe, 1977), senior high school students in the Philippines (Gardner & Lambert, 1972), students in Finland (Laine, 1977), elementary students in Belize (Gordon, 1980), and American learners of Spanish (Muchnick & Wolfe, 1982). Although these tests often make use of sub-tests with the same names, the validity and reliability data of the original test may or may not be applicable to them. The items in this test were developed for the Canadian context and for English speaking Canadians

68

learning French in elementary and secondary school. Changing the setting, the language or the general socio-cultural milieu in which the language program exists might necessitate major changes in the items to make them meaningful and relevant. At least, researchers should be concerned with the issues involved in transporting items to other contexts.

Furthermore, the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery has been used in many different forms. The original formulations of the major concepts as well as the original items were developed by Gardner (1958; 1960) and extended by Gardner and Lambert (1972). Full-scale item development and concern with internal consistency reliability of the sub-tests which led to the present version was initiated by Gardner and Smythe (1975a). Modifications of this battery for use in a university context has been done by Gliksman (1981) and Lalonde (1982) who have made greater use of positively and negatively worded item.

The survey applied to this study is a shorter form adaptation of the original tests. As the main data collection method is qualitative in-depth open-ended questions, this survey only acts as a warm-up activity prior to the main questions. It also provides a quick overview of the general orientations of the learners. Hence, instead of a five-point Likert scale, a three-point Likert scale was used to achieve this purpose. Most of the statements were positively worded. However, there were some negatively worded statements. These items were worded negatively but later recoded so they could be combined with positively-worded items to form a summated scale. The negatively-worded items were intended to encourage the respondents to read all items carefully rather than use a set pattern of responding (Jozsa and Morgan, 2017). The survey consists of: 1. General demographic and background information of students such as gender, age, major and undertaken English courses, and 2. Twenty-eight questions regarding the students' motivation and attitude toward English language learning and the target culture (see appendix1).

### 3.4.2. Open-ended Questionnaire

The open-ended questionnaire was designed to extract responses which both directly and indirectly served to answer the research questions and complementing the survey findings. This questionnaire consisted of 6 major questions with minor editions to suit two different courses under study. These questions addressed several variables such as: Learning goals, learning barriers, Positive and negative learning experiences, Anxiety and linguistic selfconfidence, Identity changes, and Imagined communities. In addition to these constructs, the students' detailed and spontaneous responses were sought to provide extra information on other variables pertaining to motivation and identity research.

### 3.4.3. Ethnography Notes

Recent tendencies in language education show that language learning is becoming largely determined in cultural terms. The culture of learning and teaching can have significant effects on the way we research and interpret the results in the ELT field. Over the last decade, ethnography as a method for studying some aspects of social and cultural life in the field has been adopted as a research method in language education. The primary methods of an ethnographic study include intensive fieldwork in which the investigator is immersed in the culture under study (Patton, 2002). Ethnography research and classroom observation play a crucial role in understanding the challenges that learners and educators face in Japanese university courses. According to Damen (1987: 57), "In the past, the terms ethnology and ethnography have been applied respectively to the study and description of the so called "primitive societies". Indeed, dictionary definitions still reflect early ethnocentric biases. Today, ethnology and ethnographies (written descriptions) are no longer concerned exclusively with the far-away and exotic but also examine the near, the more familiar and the modern."

According to Watson-Gegeo and Ulichny (in Nunan, 1992, p. 57), the implementation of a grounded approach is one of the key principles of ethnographic research. It is a 'data first' approach and 'data then theory' is preferred over 'theory then data' (ibid). This approach not only encompasses descriptions but also involves wide rationalization (ibid). Here, wide rationalization is important, because it suggests the necessity of taking into account all of the factors as those may have an outcome on the phenomena under investigation (p. 58). Goodson and Walker (in Nunan 1992, p. 58) rightly say that the focal point of an educational research must be the depiction, even if it hampers the analysis and explanation.

Participant observation method is used as it is the process enabling the researcher to learn about the activities of the learners under study in the natural setting of an EFL classroom through observing and participating in those activities. It provides the context for the development of sampling guidelines and interview guides (Dewalt & Dewalt, 2002). According to Fine (2003), ethnography is most effective when one observes the group being studied in settings that enable him/her to "explore the organized routines of behavior". Based on Critical Ethnography principles, the researcher should approach data analysis and findings through an inductive and recursive process: expect patterns, categories, or themes to evolve as data collection proceeds rather than imposing them a priori (Canagarajah, 1993). Hence, through participant observation, the researcher aims to check definitions of terms that participants use in interviews or narrative surveys, observe events that informants may be unable or unwilling to share when doing so would be impolitic, impolite, or insensitive, and observe situations informants have described in interviews, thereby making them aware of distortions or inaccuracies in description provided by those informants (Marshall & Rossman, 1995).

Through observation, the researcher sought to check for nonverbal expression of feelings, determine who interacts with whom, grasp how participants communicate with each other, and

checks for how much time is spent on various activities (Schmuck, 1997). In this sense, the observation provided a rich source of data of what is actually happening in English classrooms, the teaching methodology, and learning process. It also enabled the researcher to develop an understanding of how and to what extent students are motivated in interacting and communicating in English and if new identities and imagined communities are negotiated during these interactions. Therefore, by attending this learning community, the researcher hoped to get familiar with the context of learning and different factors that contributed to students' motivation and identity negotiation. Finally, building rapport with prospective research participants and observing them act in the context paved the way for more insightful interpretation of data.

An ethnography method usually includes participant observation, interviews, and analysis of site documents (Skilton-Sylvester, 2002). In this research, only the observation technique was applied. The class homepage, schedule, students' homework, and activity records were reviewed but not analyzed systematically as the main focus of this research was the participants' responses to the questionnaire. Ethnography was used to complement the survey data. The researcher was merely an observer who did not intervene in the teaching and learning process.

### 3.5. Data Collection Procedure

Thus, the data interpretation procedure consisted of an ethnographic analysis of classroom events and writings, a descriptive quantitative analysis of motivation surveys and a thematic analysis of students' responses to the open-ended questions. In order to collect data on actual practices of teaching and learning in a specific sample of Japanese university classes and on the other hand building rapport and recruiting participants to answer the questionnaires, observation method was applied. First, six undergraduate CALL (Computer Assisted Language Learning) writing classes and three Integrated English speaking courses at a public

University in Kansai were selected. Although the students were different, the same teacher taught the classes for each subject and the curriculum and schedule were completely the same. The researcher attended these classes on a regular basis for two consequent semesters from November 2016, to December 2017. Reflective field notes were collected during weekly visits. As Norton (2001) has noted, "The methods that the teacher uses in the classroom will engage the identities of the learners in diverse and sometimes unsettling ways". The analysis tried to consider some of these "diverse and unsettling ways" in which learners engaged with the ideal English speaker identities into which teachers endeavored to socialize them.

According to Duff and Talmy's (2011) observation, language socialization "is a necessarily contingent process, and can thus lead to unanticipated outcomes" other than the full appropriation of target language norms and values that are often assumed to be its aims. Hence, in this study, the CALL writing classroom was considered one of the social academic sites where new identities could be created and students` motivation and attitudes can be altered. Thus, different classroom factors such as technology use, interaction, and teaching practices were investigated with regard to the variables of motivation and identity.

Second, an online survey was designed by the researcher based on Gardner's motivation battery and was integrated into another set of questions to obtain data on other research questions. In a pilot study, the online version of the survey was conducted among various Osaka university students, researchers and professors to adjust the questions and the timing. After the revisions were made, the survey was arranged to be distributed among the students of the writing and speaking courses. The questionnaires were given to the participants at the last session of each course. The aim was to gain a more detailed understanding of the ideas and attitudes of the students about their learning experiences to complement the course analysis and observation data. Finally, the classroom's homepage and online records were used in order to analyze the classroom materials and methodology.

### 3.6. Ethics

Ethical considerations were attended to through obtaining approval to conduct the study in the English language classes at the university. Once the approval was granted, the data collection tools were prepared and adjusted accordingly. The participants were informed of the purpose of the research and that the collected information will be confidential, anonymous and voluntary. Confidentiality was ensured by using fictional names, and integrity was upheld in dealing with the participants and data.

First, an informed consent form was designed for the purpose of conducting a research in the field of English language learning which necessitated observing English classes and recruiting participants who were attending or had taken English courses in university. The consent form and surveys went through ethical review processes in the Graduate School of Human Sciences and the permission for data collection was granted on the 23<sup>rd</sup> of September, 2016. For the purpose of observation, the researcher attended the classes as a teacher assistant and facilitator and the students were clearly informed of the purpose of the researcher. The role of teacher assistant was not to intervene the teaching activities. In the present university, TAs attend the classes as an observer and usually help the teacher with the paperwork.

As to the observation, the students' activities and performance were referred to in general and the identities were not revealed. For the online survey, only those who have read and confirmed the online consent form answered the questions and submitted the surveys. There was no risk associated with this study and students were allowed to freely choose to participate or withdraw their consent. There was no effect on the course grades and outcomes associated with this research. Data were used anonymously, stored in the researcher's personal computer, and a portable hard disk and would be archived for 10 years. Biographical information and names of the participants and institutions were stored on a portable hard disc.

### 3.7. Reliability and Trustworthiness

A final consideration in this study is the credibility concern as it is an issue in any research study which aims to present the most valid and reliable results. However, there is a disagreement among researchers on the relevance of validity and reliability notions to the qualitative research. While some scholars emphasize the consideration of reliability criteria in all kinds of research, others question its applicability to qualitative studies. Patton (2002) believe that validity and reliability are two factors which any qualitative researcher should be concerned about while designing a study, analyzing the results and judging the quality of the study. Creswell & Miller (2000) suggest that the validity of a qualitative research is affected by the researcher's perception of validity in the study and his/her choice of paradigm assumption. As a result, many researchers have developed their own concepts of validity and have often generated or adopted what they consider to be more appropriate terms, such as, quality, rigor, and trustworthiness (Davies & Dodd, 2002).

However, some researchers believe that no criteria of validity are necessary for a qualitative research. It is a post-modern position that rejects the need for criteria to be stated by a researcher in relation to the trustworthiness of a qualitative research or its product. The rationale for this position is mostly related to the findings in qualitative research, which are 'both a process and a product in which the researcher is deeply and unavoidably implicated' (Sandelowski & Barroso 2002). Therefore, the findings are a subjective construction in which the knowledge, beliefs, and activities of the researcher have a significant impact. The findings are 'unique social interactions' and, for this reason, qualitative research can never be truly 'generalizable'. Thus, the research and its product are rejected or accepted by the reader of the study report or user of the product according to their own subjective criteria. As Stenbacka (2001) stated, "the concept of reliability is even misleading in qualitative research. If a

qualitative study is discussed with reliability as a criterion, the consequence is rather that the study is no good" (p. 552).

Hence, the present study takes the aforementioned post-modern position in not selecting specific criteria of reliability as the nature of this research necessitates. The study is both a process and a product resulted from the interactions of the researcher's subjectivity with the participants' narrative experiences and classroom practices. The researcher makes meaning of the participants' expressions, actions, and the underlying socio-cultural factors through a subjective reconstruction of the phenomenon and her own knowledge and beliefs.

# Chapter 4. Data Interpretation and Analysis

4.1. Introduction

In this section, a summary of the process of data analysis will be provided to understand how the survey was designed and how data were summarized and presented. Next, each research variable will be discussed in details based on the responses to each survey question, thematic analysis, and ethnography data. Finally, the results will be interpreted to respond the research questions and contrast the findings against previous studies. In order to respond to the research questions, the data were approached by multiple methods to render a comprehensive summary and analysis of the data. A 3-point Likert scale survey and an open-ended questionnaire were combined to enable obtaining a quick overview of the learner's responses and an in-depth understanding of the reasons behind their answers. Finally, the ethnography data provided a more comprehensive understanding of the teaching and learning practices and factors affecting the learners' responses to the questionnaires. A summary of the research collection tools and the volume of data obtained is presented in table (4.1).

Data collection tools	Number of items/courses	Data type	Data bulk	Analysis method
3-point Likert scale survey	28	satisfaction scale	N(70)x28 responses	Descriptive statistical analysis
Open ended questionnaire	6	Detailed comments	9075 words	Thematic analysis
Class observation	2 courses (9 classrooms)	Field notes	2960 words	Ethnography, Grounded approach
Class homepage	_	Curriculum and activates	2 homepages	Ethnography

Table (4.1) Summary of Data Collection and Analysis Procedures (N=70)

# 4.2. The Attitude and Motivation Survey

Data were collected through a motivation and attitude survey created based on Gardner's (2004) Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB). It included 28 positively worded and negatively worded items which measured satisfaction on a three-point Likert scale. Moreover, in order to gain more information on the nature of students' motivations, the questions were divided into five categories as follows:

1.Positive attitude toward English language learning (11 items)

2.English Class Anxiety (3 items)

3.International Posture (6 items)

4.Integrative Orientation (4 items)

5.Instrumental Orientation (4 items)

These categories were not revealed in the survey and were only considered by the researcher in data analysis.

The data analysis in this section is merely a descriptive statistical presentation of averages of responses to each statement. In this manner, we were able to understand how many participants agreed or disagreed with a statement. The next step was to calculate the mean score of total responses in the three sections to obtain the mean score for levels of tendency toward each variable. Therefore, it was possible to measure the number of students who were motivated by calculating the mean score of all the percentages for the Agreement sections. Next, the mean scores for agreement with the statements in the 5 sections were calculated separately.

With regard to data interpretation, agreement with the survey statements simply indicated a higher level of motivation. As for negatively worded statements, responses were reverse coded to enable average score calculation. For example, statement 8 was reverse coded as agreement implied a low motivation. Similarly, the questions regarding anxiety were reverse coded as well since anxiety has a negative relationship with motivation. This rendered a quick summary visualized in the table (4.2) which indicates a high level of intensity on all variables.

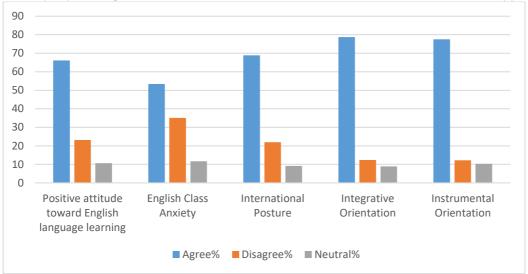


Table (4.2) Average Scores for the Variables on Motivation and Attitude Survey(N=70)

The table (4.2) shows that the EFL learners participated in this study possessed a positive attitude and a high motivational level toward English language learning. However, the level of anxiety was also high, which implied a low linguistic self-confidence. The results are explained in detail in the following sections.

# 4.2.1. Positive Attitude Toward English Language and People

Table (4.3) Percentage of Personal Attitude Toward English Learning				
Statements	A	D	NAD	
1. I feel excited when I communicate in English with others.	72.25	20.95	6.8	
2. I enjoy doing activities in English.	75.95	13.55	10.5	
3. I wish I could speak English fluently.	96.6	1.7	1.7	
4. Knowing English is an important goal in my life.	56.9	29.75	13.35	
5. I like to practice English the way native speakers do	64.3	21.8	13.85	
6. Studying English makes me have more confidence in expressing myself.	79.35	14.7	5.95	
7. I can share some ideas in English better than Japanese.	16.75	75.35	7.95	
8. I prefer studying in my mother tongue rather than any other foreign language.	32.85	45.05	22.1	
9. I cannot apply the knowledge from English subject in my real life.	18.95	64.3	16.75	
10. Frankly, I study English just to pass the exams.	11.85	80.2	7.95	
11. I like my English class and I learn a lot from this class	76.2	13.35	10.5	

Table (4.3) Percentage of Personal Attitude Toward English Learning

A: Agree, D: Disagree, NAD: Neither Agree nor Disagree (N=70)

Most students (96.6) agreed with the statement 3 (I wish I could speak English fluently) which indicates their desire to learn the language, however, only 56.9% admitted that English learning is an important goal in their life. This may be connected to the learner's ambivalent desire to learn a foreign language. Norton (2013) distinguishes between language learner's

motivation and investment arguing that investment is related to the socially and historically constructed relationship between the learner identity and learning commitment. Learners invest in a language understanding that they will gain access to a range of symbolic and material resources, which increases the value of their cultural capital and social power. Hence, although these learners seem to be motivated and have a strong desire in learning, they might not be invested and committed to learning the language as an important life goal. Moreover, 81.05% agreement with the statement 15 indicates the learners' interest in English speaking people and positive attitude toward the target community.

# 4.2.2. English Class Anxiety

Table (4	4.4)	Percentage	of English	Class Anxiety

Statements	A	D	NAD
12. I get anxious and nervous when I speak English with foreigners.	58.05	36.55	5.4
13. I get anxious when I have to answer a question in my English class.	60.05	30.05	9.95
14. Speaking English in class makes me feel worried.	42.15	38.25	19.6
$\mathbf{A} = \mathbf{A} = \mathbf{D} = \mathbf{D} + \mathbf{D} = \mathbf{D} + $			

A: Agree, D: Disagree, NAD: Neither Agree nor Disagree (N=70)

In response to the second research question, a short look at the table (4.4), (statements12, 13 &14) suggests that almost half of the participants have a high degree of anxiety. Moreover, the students' comments also indicate high anxiety and low level of linguistic self-confidence regarding their speaking skills in different situations inside and outside of the classroom. These comments shed more light into their anxiety:

Excerpt 1:

"When I met with my teacher for the first time since few years who do really good for me and I respect him, He sweat a lot and said "Sorry I am stinky." And I said "Ah, Yes" I said that without understand(ing) "stinky" My teacher's face has been bad mood a little then. I could not understand what happen at that time, But I got to know few days later. I regret this thing so much. If the teacher just does not contact so long to me, I feel that he hates me."

The cultural and linguistic difference between Japanese and English can be a source of anxiety and interference for foreign language learning. In Japanese culture, students are not encouraged to stand differently or express their distinct opinions toward a matter of discussion. This lack of expression of ideas and thoughts can be a hindering factor in learning English as it requires adopting the English language communicative styles and direct expression of thoughts. As it can be seen here, for this learner, inability to express his opinions affects his communication skills negatively:

"When I am asked my opinion, I often consider too seriously. I can't find good word for express my opinion and I fall silent. Sometime my conversation partner changes the question to yes-or-no question, and I feel relieved."

### 4.2.3. International Posture

Statements	А	D	NAD
15. I want to make friends with international students or foreigners in Japan.	91.55	2.55	5.95
16. I would like to study or travel overseas.	85.3	11.35	3.4
17. I'm interested in an international job.	55.55	36.85	7.65
18. I often read and watch news about foreign countries	56.7	36.2	7.1
19. I have ideas about international issues, such as environmental issues and north-south issues.	50.15	30.3	19.6
20. I have thoughts that I want to share with people from other parts of the world.	73.95	14.7	11.35

### Table (4.5). Percentages of International Posture

A: Agree, D: Disagree, NAD: Neither Agree nor Disagree (N=70)

According to the survey, there is a relatively high degree of international orientation and intercultural orientation, which is in accordance with previous studies (Yashima, 2000). Most of the participants (91.55%) agreed that they were positive toward international relationships and communications. A high number of students (85.3%) expressed a desire to go overseas. Half of the (55.55%) Learners were interested in international jobs. This can be due to the fact that for most Japanese learners, a long stay in foreign countries is not an option. Rather, learning English is mostly aimed at attending short exchange study programs or working holidays.

### 4.2.4. Integrative and Instrumental Orientation

Table (4.6). Percentages of Integrative/Instrumental Orientations (3-likert-scale, N=70)			
Statements (Integrativeness)	А	D	NAD
21. I'd like to learn about the people and culture of English speaking countries.	82.75	12.2	5.1
22. I wish I could have many English speaking friends.	81.35	11	7.65
23. I would like to practice English out of the classroom with people who speak English.	69.7	15.25	15.05
24. I'm interested in English speaking people.	81.05	11	7.95
25. Learning English helps me become a more knowledgeable and understanding person.	90.35	7.1	2.55
26. Studying English helps me have good relationships with friends.	56.4	18.95	24.6
27. Studying English makes me able to create new thoughts.	72.25	15.55	12.2
28. Being good at English will help me study other subjects well.	91.2	7.1	1.7

A: Agree, D: Disagree, NAD: Neither Agree nor Disagree

Another goal of the study was understanding the motivational orientations of English learners. The summary of percentages in the table (4.6) shows that the learners have both instrumental and integrative motivations and the means are high for both tendencies. In contrast with previous studies which considered Japanese learners instrumentally oriented, the findings of this research show similar levels on both orientations. A lot of students (82.75%) expressed interest in people and cultures of English speaking countries. Meanwhile, 90.35% agreed that English learning will be a tool for the attainment of knowledge and personal development.

#### 4.3. The Open-ended Questionnaire

The second questionnaire consisted of six questions addressing several variables pertaining to motivation, identity, imagined communities, communities of practice, motivational self system, attitude toward English language learning, attitudes toward the target language and culture, the goals of language learning, English class teaching methods, language anxiety, and linguistic self-confidence (see appendix 1). The information on these constructs was obtained directly and indirectly through the questions. The participants were free to write as much as they wanted for each item. The participants collaborated very well and a Word file of 9075 words was obtained after the collection of their comments on the open-ended survey.

A thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) of the responses to the open-ended questions rendered several major themes which are categorized together with the frequency of occurrence in the following table. Some of the themes are related to more than one category. In this section, every category represents one major concept of the study and hence some of the major themes in the category which provide information regarding new aspects of the study will be discussed in detail:

Category	Theme	Freq	Percentage
1. English language	Speaking to foreigners/intercultural communication	59	84%
learning motivations(	Access to information, knowledge and foreign ideas	34	48%
self/imagined identity)	Academic purposes and study abroad	32	45%
	Joining new communities	23	32%
	Expressing and conveying one's ideas in English,	20	28%
	Using English for work and business	22	31%
	More value, power and a better life	14	20%
	Mastering English as an ideal self	14	20%
	Traveling/Living abroad	13	18%
	English is interesting	13	18%
	Improving speaking and fluency	11	15%
	Guiding foreigners	10	14%
	Confidence improvement	10	14%
	International issues	9	12%
	Media: Movies, songs and video games	7	10%
	Learning English as a necessity or obligation	6	8%
	Passing exams	2	2%
2. Change in Identity/Self	Broadening of perspectives and personality improvement	25	35%
	Identity construction	20	28%
	No identity change	19	27%
	Confidence improvement	10	14%
	Becoming more expressive and straightforward	6	8%
	Improving Critical and logical thinking	4	5%
3. Anxiety and self-	lack of proficiency and self-confidence	33	47%
confidence	Linguistic and cultural differences and Inability to express opinions	25	35%
	Teacher interaction is stressful	2	2%
4. Demotivation	No interest in English	12	17%
	Past negative experiences	6	8%
	Lack of opportunity to speak English	4	5%
5. Community of practice	foreigners	59	84%
	Imagined communities of practice	23	32%
	No desire to join communities	12	17%

Table (4.7) Frequent Themes Extracted From Questionnaire Responses

	English community	8	11%
	talking in class	7	1%
	Speaking English with friends	7	1%
	Speaking to foreigners rather than Japanese	5	7%
6. Classroom factors	Interest in English class and technology assisted learning	39	55%
	Improving the English class and interactions	34	48%

# 4.3.1. English Language Learning Goals and Motivation

# 1. Speaking to foreigners/intercultural communication

The most frequent theme appeared in the participants' responses was learning English in order to be able to speak to foreigners and participate in intercultural communications. This shows that most of the participants are motivated toward international communications. For some learners, English learning is a means for communicating with foreigners and also native English people. For instance, Haruka said:

For Haruka, both instrumental and integrative motivations are effective. Indeed, for most of the participants, different goals of language learning are present in their motivational system. The interest in foreign ideas and foreigners is not the only reason for learning. It even shows to be subordinate to their instrumental orientation which can be understood from the table (4.7) where most of the themes are related to instrumental orientation. The interest in international communication can also mean different to various people. For Naoki, learning English is interesting, because she can communicate with people in the world:

Naoki (f): "This is also my positive experience. When telling travelers, the way, English is so useful." Communication in this sense is limited to very short and temporary interactions such as helping a foreigner out. Therefore, it cannot be considered as strong integrative motivation which is a deep interest to mingle with the target language speakers. Several participants mentioned guiding foreigners as their purpose. It seems that the concepts of international communications or integration with the target culture are not deeply rooted in these participants' motivational orientations. Meanwhile, for Kota, communication means a deeper connection with people:

Kota (m): "I went to Singapore, communicated with people there in English, and learn about Singapore. I could touch the real English, and I felt like communicating more. So, learning English is very interesting. In my daily life, I have few chances that I have to use English. So, when I go overseas and meet native speakers, I hope to use English."

Kota's case is an example of the significance of the 'learning experience' component of the 'motivational self' theory in learning enhancement. His positive experience of international communication and real-life application of English has enhanced his motivation. Kota feels that he does not have many chances in Japan to experience this deep connection and communication so he hopes to go overseas in order to use English. It also shows the lack of opportunities for Japanese students to have meaningful linguistic and intercultural experiences in Japan which might be a reason behind lack of integrative motivation and in general low communication skills in some learners. Another example shows how the provision of such experiences can help Japanese students to be more open to international communication:

Naomi (f): "Thanks to English education of my university, I can communicate with foreign people at "English cafe"<sup>1</sup> even if it isn't very good at pronunciation. I want to use English in workplace in the future. I have become more positive student to talk with foreign people. The most important thing, I think, is to manage to make them understand what I want to say even if my English ability such as pronunciation and grammar isn't perfect."

English Cafes are casual educational events organized for Japanese students to meet international students for language and culture exchange. Having English cafes in university provides the students with a chance to be exposed to an international environment on campus. This meaningful communicational experience helped Naomi to understand being perfect is not as important as being able to communicate with foreigners. So often, Japanese learners are assumed to be perfectionist in different social aspects of their lives including learning which entails their fear of making mistakes. Meaningful communication and communicative learning will provide them with a positive learning experience as opposed to their negative experiences of high school classes which were affected by the anxiety of exam preparations and formal teaching methods. However, based on my observation of various courses in the university and talking to the students, many students are not aware of or interested in such English cafes and even if they attend they will be shy about starting communication.

Nevertheless, for those students who are interested in foreigners, sometimes this tendency doesn't necessarily mean an interest in English culture and people. For example, Akira is only interested in learning about foreign ideas; he imagines himself as an English speaker who has foreign friends. However, comparing his negative response to the close-ended survey statements 21 and 24 reveals that he is not interested in English people and countries. Yet it does not mean that he is not motivated since he incorporates the ideal self into his learning, imagining himself as an English speaker with foreign friends. In general, very few learners incorporated a strong affinity with native English speakers into their motivation and ideal self:

Kazuto (m): "I feel comfortable to speak English when calling with my mother. I like to speak English with American. When eating dinner, I hope to talk with my girlfriend."

For this learner, communication in English is mostly aimed at talking to native speakers, which originates from family or romantic relationships. Another similar example would be the case of Rikiya:

Rikiya (m): "In English class, I have studied English. I like to speak English with native speaker in native country. I feel that it is very important to say conclusion firstly. My goal is to speak English in America and make a lot of foreign friends."

For some learners, there seems to be a resistance to non-native English communication: Isao (m): "I feel comfortable to speak English and talk with North American or British people because I have learned American and British way of speaking. I have difficulty to listen to those who have strong accents, such as Chinese or Filipino people." It is evident that this learner has a strong integrative motivation and interest in the target language and people and, a non-native accent is demotivating for him. For these learners, English is associated with an ideal image of people from England or The US rather than communication with foreigners. Later, Isao modifies his attitude and says:

"I hope to communicate not only with native speakers but anyone all over the world; I think English would realize it. I will communicate not only with Japanese people but also those who speak English." This shows that he is trying to be open-minded and willing to communicate with anyone in English despite his interest in native speakers.

# 2. Access to information, knowledge and foreign ideas

The next most frequent theme related to the goals of English language learning was 'access to information, knowledge and foreign ideas'.

Kaito (m): "I don't necessary want to do two-way street communication, but I want to get knowledge, for example reading English books or papers. In my brain, the area of thinking will be Five times bigger than it is now."

For Kaito, communication in English is mostly limited to reading books or news to gain knowledge or access to foreign ideas. It is apparent that he is not much interested in human communication or the target language culture. Rather, he is more interested in the instrumentality of language which is having access to more resources or symbolic cultural capital.

Hisaya (m): "Learning English is useful for me because most of economic texts are written in English. Economics matures in the U.S. and the U.K."

For Hisaya, English is associated with the source of knowledge and he regards it as the language of countries who have power and success in the international scenes.

# 3. Academic purposes and study abroad

A major aim for most Japanese students appears to be pertaining to another instrumental aspect of learning which is English for academic purposes:

Tatsuya (m): "I belong to faculty of engineering science, so I'm going to use English when I study math or physics deeper and deeper... My goal of learning English is communicating with others studying engineering science well."

For some of the students, this means having a desire to go overseas and study abroad. But this is only a temporary goal mostly aimed at benefiting from the scientific innovations and educational opportunities:

Shinzo (m): "I am interested in international jobs. I would like to study Engineering Science with those who have different ideas on the field. I think there are these people not only in Japan. I hope to communicate with those people without any barriers. I will be able to share various ideas with those who can speak English. This ability will enrich my life."

Saori (f): "I want to use English in my study to write my paper.....I want to use English in my study because I want to learn about aesthetics and this field is advanced in Europe. Therefore I think I must study English books and papers to study in this field deeply and I want to study abroad, especially in Europe."

Hisaya (m): "I am satisfied if I learn to read economic texts in English. If possible, I want to study abroad but the U.S. these days is "exclusive"."

### 4. Joining new communities

Accessing to and being part of new communities of English speakers comprises an important goal for some Japanese students. Communities can be academic, work-related or just for cultural exchange.

Kumi (m): "I'd like to join English speaking communities like U.K or U.S.A for a business. Got chance to work oversea. Able to understand directly foreign cultures and peoples."

For Kumi, joining the native English communities of practice is a goal. This enables him to expand his career horizons and also understand foreign cultures and people. For Naoki, joining a community of people who share the same interest determines his motivation: "I like video games, so I want to join a community of games." Kohei and Atsushi follow different goals which is a desire to join the international communities for an exchange of ideas and knowledge: Kohei (m): "I want to join English speaking communities when I can speak better English. I want to join international events because I think I can get many information about foreign countries." Atsushi (m): "I got to the idea that there are many opinions in the world. I'd like to speak English more fluently and join English speaking communities. I can talk with foreign people on more difficult subject."

However, despite the necessity of joining foreign communities, for Tadashi, it seems a bit stressful because he is not confident about his English pronunciation:

Tadashi (m): "I think that it is important to join English speaking communities, but I worry about my pronunciation. If I master English skill, I will become more active and global."

Tadashi imagines a future identity which is an active global citizen and despite his anxiety, this ideal self is motivating him toward learning English.

### 5. Expressing and conveying one's ideas in English

Another factor which influenced the goals of English language learning was a necessity to convey one's ideas in the foreign language. For example, these learners' purpose of learning is being able to express their ideas in English.

Isao (m): "I can state my thoughts briefer than Japanese. My aim of learning English is to share my feelings or thoughts with others that don't speak Japanese."

Daigo (m): "I image what I can express what I want to say, and communicate with foreign people easily."

Yuuki (m): "I want to always express my thinking in English."

Hideo (m): "I want to express my opinion in English especially in business world. I will communicate with foreign people more active."

It seems to be quite a struggle for a lot of learners to express their ideas in English which

clarifies the need for more focus on speaking skills and improving their speaking competence:

Fumiya: "I can't tell all of my thought in English."

Naoya: "when I speak English, I don't have the confidence to tell my thoughts and feelings."

Hence, there should be more focus on meaningful communicative and speaking activities to help students overcome the barriers to expressing their thoughts and ideas. It will also be crucial

to understand the nature of these barriers and the sources of speaking difficulties which will be discussed in the next sections.

# 6. Using English for work and business

A number of Japanese participants in this study included business purposes in their goals. This can be either for expanding their career opportunities in Japan or for working overseas.

Motoko (m): "I think that I must use English on my work. I want to speak it fluent then. I would work in companies for transportation."

Motoko aims to apply English to his career development. He thinks that he must use English for work. So, English learning for him is a necessity which can be expressed well in terms of the Self Theory meaning that for Motoko, the ought-to-self is into play. The significance of 'self' for English learning will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

Miki (f): In the future, I'd like to work in a foreign country, where English might be needed. My life will be more wonderful, where I'll have more broad community all over the world and viewpoints. The more I know foreign world, the less prejudice I'll have."

Miki is clearly determined in learning and has a specific purpose of English learning. She hopes to work overseas because it would provide her with a more exciting life and enable her to access a new community.

Nevertheless, other students have different points of view:

Nozomi (f): "I think I would not live in foreign countries because I like the Japanese life. I think I can talk with famous people in work. I would use English fully to run my business smoothly."

Nozomi clearly does not aim to work overseas. She hopes to use English only in Japan to meet famous people in her business and to be able to manage her work more successfully. Looking at most comments, it can be implied that most of the participants do not have a desire to work abroad or stay overseas for a long time. They aim to broaden their opportunities and horizons but at the end conduct their lives in Japan. This is another evidence of a lack of integrative motivation in its strongest form for Japanese students. Yet, the instrumental motivation is clearly at work for these learners.

# 7. More value, power, and a better life

Another theme which emerged in relation with the learning goals was "becoming a better person and having a better life" as a result of mastering English.

Kenta (m): ".....I can speak it fluently, and tell my opinions to others. My life will be better, and my view will be spread."

Kohei (m): "I can imagine happier life once I Finish advanced English."

Rina (f): "Maybe I will have more confident in myself and enjoy my life more."

Hisaya (m): "Now, the official language is English, so if I learn to speak English, my life will be more comfortable. Maybe, my income would be higher than if I did not learn to speak English."

Daisuke (m): "Listening to music in English might change my life better... Probably my life would be more rhythmic and I will try to express my thoughts in more beautiful way."

Miki (f): "My life will be more wonderful, where I'll have more broad community all over the world and view points."

Eisuke (m): ".....I can't imagine the end of learning English. As we can get knowledge anytime, my learning can be and should be endless. But I can imagine how exciting my life will be when I feel no discomfort in communication in English, which is most widely spoken language, because it means that

I have opportunities to know enumerable things, ideas, and theories about how this world works."

It is remarkable to go through all these comments and see how these participants are picturing their lives different once they can speak English. For them, English is a door to future identities and imaginaries. It will provide them with hope for a better life. They learn and invest in English because it is the language of power; science, technology, and innovative ideas. It takes them to the international scenes and broadens their horizons:

Miwa (f): "If I get only Japanese culture, I cannot imagine idea more. I will be able to read more foreign language books and I will get more values."

Umeko (f): "If I finish advanced English, I will be more powerful and energetic because I will have confidence in myself."

For Miwa and Umeko, English is a means to get power and value. As Norton (1995: 17) has argued, if learners invest in a language, they do so with the understanding that they will acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will, in turn, increase the value of their cultural capital.

Itaru (m): "Even if I finished advanced English earlier, my life would not change so much because I didn't and don't have enough money to do something special like studying abroad."

This example depicts that not all learners picture a better life as a result of mastering oral skills. Itaru is not really motivated to invest much in his English learning as he assumes that he won't be able to put it into use due to lack of money. Nevertheless, he mentions later that he "hopes to use English in reading and publishing papers on math." Thus, for him, speaking skill is not necessary for the pursuit of his goals. He supposes that reading and writing would sufficiently serve his academic goals.

### 8. Mastering English as an Ideal self

One component of motivational self system theory by Dörnyei is the ideal self which is the central concept of the Self Theory. Ideal self is an imagined identity that the L2 learner aspires to achieve through learning the language. In response to the research question concerning the motivation to learn English, several participants associated their ideal self with mastering the language.

Rina (f): "My goal is to master academic English and interact with foreign researchers because it will make me professional. Maybe I will have more confident in myself and enjoy my life more."

Rina's ideal self consists of a professional and confident person who can enjoy life. It shows English learning is so important to her that it defines her future identity.

Tadashi (m): ". If I master English skill, I will become more active and global."

Eisuke (m): "And my dream is to be a robotics scientist. I think the best way to realize those two sakes is to work as a researcher in foreign faculties. Especially, ones in America, where the most developed research is always on the way. I can't imagine the end of learning English. As we can get knowledge anytime, my learning can be and should be endless. But I can imagine how exciting my life will be when I feel no discomfort in communication in English, which is most widely spoken language, because it means that I have opportunities to know enumerable things, ideas, and theories about how this world works."

For Tadashi and Eisuke as well, mastering English and being able to communicate effortlessly provide them with an imagined identity/ideal self which is the strongest motivation in keeping them invested in learning.

Kenji (m): "My goal of learning English is to talk with foreign people in English fluently. I will be a good English speaker."

Kenji's imagined identity/ideal self is that of a good English speaker who is able to interact with foreigners. Identity-based motivation or a motivation which has roots in one's desired identity appears to be a factor in the motivational system of these students. This kind of motivation is stronger than extrinsic motivation or ought-to-self which is learning English to fulfill an obligation.

### 9. Traveling/Living abroad

Another objective for learning English was to fulfill a desire to travel or live abroad and communicate with foreigners:

Sakko (m): "When I travel overseas, it's essential to communicate to others in English. If someone can understand what I'm saying, I feel excited."

Takuya (m): "I like traveling, so when I travel abroad, I want to speak people in many countries. Probably, I will live abroad."

Kosuke (m): "I could travel to foreign countries without getting worry about language or culture, I think."

Jinichi (m): "I will have many friends who live in foreign countries and take a trip abroad. I will be able to enjoy my second life in foreign country."

Takishi (m): "I will go abroad without any worries."

For these L2 learners, the possibility of traveling abroad and getting connected to an imagined community of foreigners defines their motivation to learn. Going abroad and interacting with foreigners can act as a very positive learning experience which enhances their motivation.

Kota (m): "I went to Singapore, communicated with people there in English, and learn about Singapore.

I could touch the real English, and I felt like communicating more."

For Kota, the real English seems to exist somewhere out of Japan. It is not necessarily a native English country with typical Western life. It reflects the fact that although Japan is an internationalized country with many foreigners living and studying there, it is still hard for Japanese students to experience meaningful communication in English. So perhaps, it is not only the language, rather it is the atmosphere and communication norms which make it more motivating to use English abroad rather than in Japan. Some students mentioned it clearly that they don't wish to use English in Japan as they fail to be very communicative. This will be discussed in detail later in this chapter. However, for some learners, it doesn't sound like a major goal to use English abroad due to their beliefs about foreign countries:

Yumi (f): "I don't want to go abroad, because many foreign countries are more dangerous than Japan." Yumi seems to be less motivated toward going abroad because she doesn't feel safe in a foreign country. Similarly, Shoko refers to safety concerns in traveling abroad but she is motivated in going overseas. This view of the foreign country as a place associated with danger is not uncommon in Japan. So, this is another example of cultural beliefs influencing motivation.

Shoko (f): "I want to go foreign countries, because knowing other culture is interesting. I want to go to safe country. And the country which is full of interesting creatures."

Nozomi (f): "My goal is to go to many countries which I hope to go by using own English, but I think I would not live in foreign countries because I like the Japanese life."

Going abroad, however, is mostly temporary like as a traveler or student. None of the participants in this study mentioned a desire to immigrate to a new country or live abroad permanently. Living abroad was only mentioned few times in the responses (F=4). This fact also is rooted in Japanese culture and strong ethnic identity. Living in a foreign country necessitates the ability to get closer to the target language identity and community. For

Japanese students, going abroad is limited to attaining intercultural or academic experience and fulfilling their interest in learning about new things (cultures, people, ideas, etc).

Daigo (m): "My goal of learning English is the level that I can live in foreign countries. I don't hope to join some English speaking communities"

Daigo clearly states his motivation to learn English as a vehicle of communication so that he can live in foreign countries which are not necessarily English countries as it is evident from another example:

Chikao (m): "MY goal of learning English is to acquire the enough knowledge to live in foreign countries."

### 10. English is interesting

In response to the question regarding the motivations and reasons to learn English, many participants mentioned that English is interesting to them. This interest reflects the factors that motivate them to develop a positive attitude toward learning. Communication with foreigners is a major motivating factor for these participants:

Akita (m) "It is very useful and interesting, to communicate with other countries is very interesting." Naoki (m): "Learning English is interesting, because I can communicate with people in the world." Kota (m): "I went to Singapore, communicated with people there in English, and learn about Singapore. I could touch the real English, and I felt like communicating more. So, learning English is very interesting."

Umeko (f): "think learning English is interesting. I thought it was interesting to learn roots of English words when I was in the junior high school. When I participated in international party, people in Singapore listened to me very kindly, and spoke using understandable words. I hope use English like them. After learning English and talking to Singaporean, I was not very nervous speaking English."

For Kota and Umeko, the positive experience with foreigners reinforces their motivation significantly. As aforementioned, the L2 learning experience is another component of the motivational self system which includes the situational and environmental aspects of the language learning process as well as one's subjective learning experience. Positive interactions

with foreigners provide a meaningful and positive learning experience and is a major factor in L2 learners' motivation. If the learners are to experience positive interactions, they need to go beyond the formal setting of the classroom and experience English in real life. Several students in this study, however, mentioned that they have few chances or hope to apply English in a non-academic context and have meaningful interactions with foreigners.

Shoko (f): "Learning English is useful and interesting... For example, I can read English newspaper, and talk with foreign people... I want to go foreign countries, because knowing other culture is interesting. I want to go to safe country. And the country which is full of interesting creatures."

Imagination and idealization of the possibilities and opportunities which might be obtained as a result of English learning can also be another motivating factor which is effective even at the imaginary level. For Shoko, there is an integrative aspect to her motivation which inspires her to learn the second language in order to learn about foreign cultures. She hopes to go abroad to a safe place with interesting creatures. Other students also expressed their motivation in terms of interesting aspects of the language and the outcomes of mastering English including understanding different ideas or getting access to more information as well as appreciating the sociolinguistic aspects of the language such as directness of English:

Junichi (m): "Learning English is so useful and interesting, because I can understand the foreigners' thoughts."

Motoko (m): "I feel that English says things directly and this is interesting."

Naoya (m): "I think life will be more interesting because I can read articles online of watch TV programs in English."

For Motoko, English is interesting since it allows him to express herself more directly. This means that English provides him with a new identity which is more direct and free to express. This imagined identity consists his motivation.

# 11. Improving speaking and fluency

96

Developing fluency in English speaking is one of the most fundamental skills that Japanese English learners need to work on, however, most of the students express much frustration when it comes to communicative skills.

Miharu (f): "I'm not good at reading and speaking English, so I do not like studying English. However, learning English is useful because if I speak English well, I can communicate a lot of foreign people."

Miharu strives to improve her speaking skills. Her lack of progress has affected her motivation to study English.

Fumiya (m): "However, when I tried to speak to foreigner, I couldn't think so quickly and I couldn't talk with them. I was mortifying and I thought I have to study English especially speaking and listening"

Fumiya is also specifying his goal as a desire to improve speaking and listening.

Atsushi (m): "It is interesting to be able to read and write English, but speaking so hard that I lost confidence. I cannot speak English well, so I must practice more."

Kohei (m): "Learning English makes me feel happy because I like English. But I sometimes feel worried when I speak English. I'm not confident in pronunciation... but I prefer more interactions with my teacher. It is because I also want to improve my speaking ability."

In these excerpts, the students express their anxiety and also a need to have more interactions with their teacher to overcome their speaking difficulties. They are also striving to improve their speaking skills. This example shows the nature of speaking problems that Japanese learners are dealing with. It can be inferred that psychological factors are playing a major role in their linguistic practices, which will be discussed in detail in the following sections. It is also understood that increasing classroom interactions and speaking opportunities are crucial for Japanese learners.

Isao (m): "In the past I studied English to pass college entrance examinations. I was required to learn reading, listening and writing in English. Thanks to them I was able to get some parts of English skills. But I didn't have opportunity to practice speaking."

As Isao mentioned, many Japanese students have to focus on grammar and reading or writing skills and they fail to improve oral skills because the main goal is preparation for university

97

entrance exams. Hence, when they go to college, they cannot communicate well in English. Indeed, Mizuno (2003, p.247) believes that university entrance examinations lie at the core of the problems inherent in Japan's ELE: "English-language teaching in Japan does not help students develop their communicative abilities, but serves only to help students pass university entrance examinations." Several students in this research expressed an awareness of this issue:

Chisako (f): "When I went to Hawaii, I couldn't speak English well because I had studied reading and listening English, not speaking."

This example also shows that the most necessary linguistic skill which is speaking proficiency is neglected in Japanese educational schedule almost in all levels of academic studies.

Maya (f): "I hesitated to speak English before I studied abroad because I didn't have any confidence with English. But after studying abroad, I try to speak English, because I could notice that speaking English is the best way to improve my English. I like to talk with international students in English. They never get angry with my speaking English; they try to understand what I mean. then they help me with learning English. When I talk in English, I became more positive. I am interested in the issue not only about the world but about Japan.... I think interactions with my native teachers is enough but I prefer more interactions with my teacher who is Japanese in English. I think we need more speaking practice. And we should start it since we start learning English."

In relating her positive experiences of English learning, Maya points out her study abroad experience as a turning point in her learning. She found out that trying to speak English was the best way to improve her speaking. Also, the positive feedback from international students and the informal context of practice has removed her anxiety barriers and paved the way for her improvement. This implies a need to provide more opportunities for English learners to practice speaking in real life situations rather than formal controlled classroom settings. It is also possible to change the classrooms to be more fun, internationally oriented and informal to reduce anxiety. As Maya mentioned too, speaking skills must be taken into consideration ever since the students start learning English in junior high school.

### 12. Guiding foreigners

Ichiro (m): "When I walked in the town, I guided people who don't speak Japanese, to the station. I was very happy to be able to help her."

Takishi (m): "When I was asked to tell the way by foreign visitors, learned skills helped me."

Taku (m): "I became happy when I can tell foreigner the way to their goal. Then I think learning English is important. Since then I have learned English hard. Because of these experiences I think learning English is useful and interesting."

For these students, guiding foreigners is not the main goal of English learning, however, it seems to be a positive experience which motivated them more to invest in English learning. The positive feeling of helping foreigners out reminded them of the importance of being able to speak English. On the other hand, the negative experience of failure can also have positive outcomes:

Etsuji (m): "A foreigner asked me, "How can I go to the station?". I couldn't answer. In that time, it is so important to learn English. I feel comfortable to make others understand what I think about. I want to speak other countries' people."

Chikao (m): "When I visited Osaka at the first time, I was spoken to by foreigners in English. Then I couldn't talk with them because of my poor English. After that, I came to realize how important it is to learn English."

It can be concluded that the more practical experiences the students have, the more they will be motivated to invest in learning.

# 13. Confidence improvement

Linguistic self-confidence is a major factor which affects both teachers and students' English learning in Japan. Amaki (2008) observed that students lose interest in learning English due to the lack of communication in the classroom and rigid structure of the lessons and he suggested that increasing English speaking confidence, is the most important part of any future education reform. Lee (2012) found that linguistic self-confidence was a significant factor that negatively influenced Japanese English learners' English proficiency. Improving one's confidence was another theme which was identified in the responses.

Katsuo (m): "If I had advanced English, it would be my great confidence, and I could help many foreigners."

Akita (m): "Maybe, I will have more confidence about everything than ever."

Umeko (f): "I hope I and they improve English skills. If I finish advanced English, I will be more powerful and energetic because I will have confidence in myself."

For Katsuo and Umeko, Learning English is related to their personality and self-confidence. Through speaking English, they feel that they could become stronger emotionally and intellectually and be able to interact with foreigners better as well. Their imagined identity and ideal self is a person with more confidence in different aspects of life. English provides them with more access to social and cultural capital and hence strengthens their personality. Learning English means they can meet new people and their life is enriched by making new friends from other countries who appreciate their efforts to speak their language and learn about their culture.

# 14. International issues

In the first part of the study, the survey results revealed a 50% agreement with the statement (I have ideas about international issues, such as environmental issues and North-South issues). This theme also emerged in the participants' detailed comments.

Tadashi (m): "After learning English, I came to watch TV news of international problems and examine of it online."

Miki (f): "The more I know foreign world, the less prejudice I'll have."

Kohei (m): "I want to join international events because I think I can get many information about foreign countries."

Maya (f): "I am interested in the issue not only about the world but about Japan."

For Tadashi and Miki, English proficiency enables them to be more internationally minded and aware of what is happening in the world. Miki explicitly says that she has prejudices about foreign countries which she hopes to resolve by learning English and increasing her knowledge.

#### 15. Media: movies, songs and video games

Some participants mentioned watching English movies or video games as their motivation to learn English:

Kishino (m): "I like seeing foreign movies in English, so learning English is interesting."

Chiaki (f): "I just want to enjoy watching movies or reading books in English, not aim to work in international field."

Sakko (m): My goal (or ambition) is watching movies without Japanese subtitles.

Naoki (m): "I like video games, so I want to join a community of games."

Saori (f): "I think it is useful and should continue to use technology in class because in Internet and computer, you can use more English videos which is easy to study for generations who spend much time watching TV or video games."

Knowing the fact that a lot of young Japanese students are interested in technology, media, and video games, it can be advantgageous to apply these tools to English classrooms, especially computer-assisted English classes which consisted part of the focus of this study. Not all students have the same learning styles or benefit from books or routine lectures. Applying more informal and fun ways which match the learning styles of students of a certain age or cultural background can enhance learning and increase motivation.

Kumi (m): "My goal is that I understand every lyrics in English at once."

Daisuke (m): "I feel comfortable when I give presentation in English. I like to speak English with Taylor Swift. I hope to use English in spaceship. English accents are rhythmic and beautiful, so I like music in English. Listening to music in English might change my life better."

In this comment, Daisuke expresses his motivation to learn English which is not void of fantasy. His imagined identity is a person who interacts with celebrities. His interest in music and the rhythmic English accent motivates him to study and hope for a different life and better future. This confirms the power of imagination in learning. It also reminds of how effective these cultural tools can be in improving motivation and reducing anxiety by simply using music in English classrooms.

### 16. Learning English as a necessity or obligation

For some learners, English learning is incorporated into the ought-to-self rather than the ideal self or imagined identities. Learning for them is an obligation, which is not very motivating:

Yumi (f): "I think learning English is useful, because I will be have to read and write research papers in English. However, I don't think learning English is interesting. I don't like to speak English, but I respect those who can speak English. I want to read and write research papers. I write English sentence every week. Thanks to that, I can be familiar to English. My goal is reading and writing papers in English."

Yumi does not like English. It is not interesting to her and she doesn't wish to speak English. But she has to learn it because it is useful and also necessary for her academic success. In response to the question asking how she imagines her life after learning English, she says that she cannot imagine it. This student seems to be lacking a vision or imagined identity of her life after mastery of the target language. She sounds unmotivated consequently. On the other hand, those students who mentioned their future identities and were able to imagine a better life after learning English seemed to be more motivated and invested in English learning.

Motoko (m): "It is useful because I could communicate with my mother's friend in English. I hope to use English to communicate with foreign students...I think that I must use English on my work. I want to speak it fluent then."

For Motoko, as well, English learning is incorporated into his ought-to-self. He has to learn it to be successful in his career so his motivation is mostly instrumentally oriented. But also, he is motivated integratively as he wants to talk to foreigners although this can be explained better using the concept of international posture which is an interest in foreigners rather than a desire to adopt or integrate with the target culture.

#### 17. Passing exams

Some students are not really motivated to study English; their only goal is passing exams:

Ryohei (m): "I don't feel comfortable to speak English. It is difficult to express my feeling. It was to pass the exam. I can't imagine it (future after learning advanced English)."

Masa (m): "When I use English, I'm very uncomfortable because I can't talk what I want to talk. I learn English only to pass the exam. I can't image myself because I can't learn advanced English."

A short look at these comments shows the similarity of attitudes between these two learners. They both fail to express themselves in English and imagine the future after mastering it. The lack of comfort and confidence is observed in their emotions perceived through these comments. This is related to the affective filter and psychological barriers which influence motivation and will be discussed in the next sections in detail. Nonetheless, only 2 students in this study mentioned passing exams as their only objective revealing that almost all students in this study had meaningful goals and motivations to study English.

### 4.3.2. Change in Identity/Self

# 1. Broadening of perspectives and personality improvement

Several participants expressed changes in their minds and perspectives after learning English. They felt they became more open-minded and positive.

Katsuo (m): "I felt that I changed and I can frankly speak."

Kumi (m): "I think I changed. I got to open mind."

Kenji (m): "when I speak English, I become more passionate person."

Wataru (m): "If possible I want to speak English anytime, anywhere I think I became open minded."

Maya (f): "When I talk in English, I became more positive."

In response to the question whether they felt any change of thought, identity or perceptions, a lot of students reported no changes in their thought and personality, while traces of identity change can be inferred from their comments:

Sakko (m): "I think my thought became wider. Also, I've got some confidence in myself, and I can express myself better. I don't feel different when I speak English, but due to my English skill, I have to say many things in very simple way. So the other people would think I'm different."

Sakko doesn't feel any differences in his personality and relates the observed changes to his lack of proficiency. Perhaps he doesn't consider his widening of perspective as an important change in his personality or kind of tries to resist the idea of personality change. Similarly, Kishino doesn't sense any changes in his thoughts but he feels more positive when he speaks English:

Kishino (m): "My thought hasn't changed but I feel a little bit positive when I speak English."

It can be concluded that English learning is associated with open-mindedness, new perspectives and more positive worldview for a lot of students. They also feel more passionate and straightforward when they speak English. It can be connected to the different communication norms between Japanese and English. In the Japanese language, direct expression of thoughts is not much practiced. Moreover, holding and expressing different opinions are not in concordance with cultural conformity. Hence, these participants managed to develop new identities as a result of speaking English as they were exposed to different communication styles. Changing identities and adopting new identity positions to communicate is not an easy task and perhaps this is one of the sources of difficulty for Japanese students. Saori is well aware of the fact that she needs to change her communication style and express her opinions more openly in English which is quite different from self-expression in Japanese:

Saori (f): "After learning English, I think I must tell my opinion more easily and simply and conclusion or position must be said in first. This is change for me because I usually complex my opinion with metaphors and so on in Japanese."

For some students like Eisuke, the change in thoughts and perspectives is felt more strongly and accepted in a positive way:

Eisuke (m): "And I can clearly tell that I got more moderate and open-minded, because English learning has given me good opportunities to realize how ignorant I am and how many varieties of thoughts there are."

It can be concluded that in Japanese culture, conformity and thinking similarly to other people is a value, while in English, having different opinions and thinking differently is a strength. Through learning a foreign language such as English, Eisuke was able to develop a new identity and become open-minded. His high English proficiency, clear expression of goals and motivation in his follow-up comments shows that the students like Eisuke who set goals and adopt imagined identities are abler to develop new identities and hence have higher motivation in English learning.

#### 2. Identity construction

Several participants confirmed the influence of English language learning on their personality and some traces of identity changes. These changes may be the result of different cultures and communication styles associated with the target language:

Katsuo (m): "I felt that I changed and I can frankly speak."

Katsuo thinks that learning English made him more straightforward. As it was discussed earlier, direct expression of thoughts is not practiced much in Japanese while in English, students feel a need to shift their communication strategies and speak more directly. Several participants refer to the linguistic-cultural differences between English and Japanese as well:

Wataru (m): "I can communicate with so many people from other countries. I think the advantage of English is that I don't feel the hierarchy. If possible I wanna speak English anytime, anywhere I think I became open minded. I wanna work with using English like UN. My life will be international and I can connect easily with the people around the world."

Wataru understands that the hierarchical aspect of Japanese is not present in English. Therefore, he imagines his future identity as an open-minded English speaker who can speak free from the limitations of a hierarchical language. He will have a brighter future with more possibilities in an international environment. Sakura (f): "I think English has straight ways to describe things more than Japanese. So I have to say straightly in English."

Isao (m): "In English I should write or say my main topics or opinions first, which is opposite to Japanese. I can state my thoughts briefer than Japanese."

Saori (f): "After learning English, I think I must tell my opinion more easily and simply and conclusion or position must be said in first. This is change for me because I usually complex my opinion with metaphors and so on in Japanese... I think I will be different in that my opinion become more simple and position and conclusion are obvious."

Saori believes that in Japanese, she expresses her ideas differently and she needs to avoid indirectness in English. In English, she needs to speak simply and tells the conclusion first. This is a big shift from her position as a Japanese speaker. She should adopt a new identity and take a different identity position to be able to express herself in English properly.

Yuuki (m): "Yes, English words and Japanese words are not same, so I feel different when I speak English. I want to always express my thinking in English. I will be able to look things from many sides."

For Yuuki, the change is a positive aspect of his learning. It seems that being able to express his thoughts in English is associated with his ideal self or imagined identity. His motivation to learn English is based on this different identity.

Kosuke (m): "Yes, I think that learning English make my thought and personality new. Thought and personality depend on language. And learning English is reading passage or imitate it and writing passage in myself. So the change depends on author in the country. I cannot write the change exactly. My goal is speaking about my experiment in public. I think that what I was then is not very different from what I am."

Kosuke is aware of the fact that there is a link between language and thought. He believes that thought and personality depend on language and through learning English he will have a different personality or thought. This can be interpreted in terms of Linguistic determinism which is the idea that language and its structures limit and determine human knowledge or thought and people who speak different languages as their mother tongues have different thought processes. Linguistic determinism is the *strong* form of linguistic relativity (widely known as the Sapir–Whorf hypothesis), which argues that individuals experience the world based on the structure of the language they habitually use.

However, Kosuke cannot express the change in his personality clearly. He also thinks he wouldn't be much different when he can speak English fluently. While many participants didn't feel any critical changes in their personalities, some expressed a willingness or hope to change:

For other learners, however, the changes are not clearly and consciously perceived:

Sakko (m): "I think my thought became wider. Also, I've got some confidence in myself, and I can express myself better. I don't feel different when I speak English, but due to my English skill, I have to say many things in very simple way. So the other people would think I'm different."

It is obvious that English learning has helped Sakko to widen his perspectives and become more confident. Being able to speak another language helped him to adopt a different identity as a confident open-minded person. However, it seems that he is not aware of this change or maybe he resists to admit it. Finally, the most evident example might be Eisuke's case:

Eisuke (m): "The more I know about a person I'm talking to, the easier it is to make smooth communication. As I develop my English, I have got more and more confident in public speaking, not only in English, but also in Japanese. That's because when I study a non-native language, I can see my abilities more objectively and it helps to rebuilt communication skills. And I can clearly tell that I got more moderate and open-minded, because English learning has given me good opportunities to realize how ignorant I am and how many varieties of thoughts there are."

It is apparent that Eisuke has experienced a fundamental change in his personality and thoughts. He has become more confident and objective of his own abilities. He is a more moderate and open-minded person now as a result of being exposed to various thoughts through communication in English. He has a very positive attitude toward his identity changes.

107

Ryoko (f): "I haven't feel that speaking English changed my thoughts yet because there is huge difference between my English and Japanese. But I wish this would happen in the future."

### 3. No identity change/development

In contrast with the previous participants, some students didn't feel any changes in their thoughts and personality:

Daigo (m): "In terms of my thought and personality, I don't feel any change"

Miharu (f): "I have never speak English without in my English classes, and there, I do not feel comfortable to speak English. I do not feel such any changes."

Kenta (m): "I cannot tell my opinion to others correctly in English... No, I don't. My thought has not changed."

Chiaki (f): "I don't feel comfortable at any time when I speak in English. So I am not willing to speak in English. I usually speak English with a teacher of English class, or other students when a teacher directs to do it. I don't think I did change. I don't feel different when I speak English, because I just use different language to express my thoughts ...I don't think I changed a lot. I got new vocabularies, and some skill for writing. I prefer less interactions because it is less stressed."

From these comments, it can be concluded that there is a connection between a positive attitude toward English learning, self-confidence, Willingness to communicate and identity change. These participants don't feel comfortable or competent in speaking English. They are not so interested in communication with a wide range of people and even one of them prefers less interaction with her teacher. It can be inferred that for some L2 learners, new identities are developed when students are motivated to communicate in English and have more linguistic self-confidence and positive attitude toward their learning.

This is the case even for high proficient English learners. Some students gave long detailed responses to the questions and displayed a high level of writing proficiency. They seemed to have clear goals and be motivated to learn more, yet, they didn't feel completely confident to have interactions and identify with the target language community:

Naoya (m): "I don't feel that much of a change after learning English or talking to English speakers. My goal is to understand every article that is written in English.... I don't hope to join English speaking

communities because now, I don't feel the need to join English speaking communities. I think life will be more interesting because I can read articles online of watch TV programs in English... I prefer less interactions with my teacher because when I speak English, I don't have the confidence to tell my thoughts and feelings."

We can assume that for this learner, despite having enough linguistic knowledge, adopting a new identity and feeling confident to communicate in the foreign language is still a difficult task.

Nobuhiro (m): "Writing English more than a week is positive and I could get much knowledge. Learning English is useful rather than interesting because I can read articles of media like BBC. Not comfortable because I couldn't speak anything I really want to say. That's why I don't like to speak English with anyone. I hope to use English in business and I wish I were a smart negotiator. I don't feel any changes when I learn and speak English, so I can't speak anything I really want to say."

It appears that for Nobuhiro, English learning motivation is related to his ought-to self that is, he has an extrinsic motivation to learn rather than intrinsic. But, he doesn't feel comfortable to practice speaking because he can't express his thoughts and hence he prefers not to speak at all. Therefore, he doesn't feel any changes in his identity. We consider this as an evidence of ability to move between cultures and a negotiation of identity between two languages and cultures. Therefore, he won't be able to develop his L2 identity unless he can express his opinions in English and feels comfortable doing so. Speaking and expressing one's ideas and thoughts in the foreign language is the key to adopt an L2 identity. Nobuhiro has a goal which is using English in business but he thinks that he's not a smart negotiator due to his poor English speaking skills.

Taku (m): "I feel no changes in my thought and personality. Yes, I feel different when I speak English.

When I speak English, I think hard the way to tell my opinion."

Finally, in another excerpt from Taku, we see that he is kind of double-minded on whether he feels different or not when he speaks English. He thinks that his personality has not changed but he feels different when he speaks English in some way. He finds it difficult though to think

in English and express his opinion, which might be the reason why he doesn't feel deep changes. Many Japanese students so often mention the difficulty in expressing themselves despite their high level of proficiency. Therefore, this linguistic and cultural difference between English and Japanese ways of expression, could be a hindrance to identity development and improving fluency and also a demotivating factor for Japanese students.

### 4. Confidence Improvement

Another positive experience which helped L2 learners boost their motivation and selfconfidence was seen in the case of Saya and Maya:

Saya (f): "When I was high school student, my host mother praises my English so much. Then, I could have confidence."

For Saya, receiving compliments from her host mother improved her self-confidence. This positive L2 learning experience played an important role in her future motivation to learn English.

Maya (f): "Studying abroad is my positive experience. I have studied in Canada for one month when I was a senior high school student. I hesitated to speak English before I studied abroad because I didn't have any confidence with English. But after studying abroad, I try to speak English, because I could notice that speaking English is the best way to improve my English. I like to talk with international students in English. They never get angry with my speaking English; they try to understand what I mean. then they help me with learning English. When I talk in English, I became more positive. I am interested in the issue not only about the world but about Japan."

Several points can be noticed in Maya's comment. First, she didn't have confidence in the beginning and second, positive feedback from foreigners helped her build more confidence. Knowing the fact that many participants in this study expressed a lack of linguistic self-confidence, this comment points out the necessity of positive L2 learning experiences and meaningful interactions for improving confidence and motivation in Japanese L2 learners. It is evident that speaking English provides Maya with a new identity which is more positive.

Sakko (m): "Also, I've got some confidence in myself, and I can express myself better."

A similar example is the case of Kenji:

Kenji (m): "In train, I can talk with foreigner in English. It lets me have a confidence about English. I would like to speak English with international student because I think English is the tool which enables people to communicate with each other. Even if we don't know their language well, we can talk with them in English."

These examples show that for a lot of learners, meaningful communication with foreigners is a factor that improves their confidence and motivates them the most. English has changed their identity from a less confident to a more confident learner. This is another example of identity change which has happened during their learning. Moreover, as it was discussed earlier, mastering English is a way for many learners to be better and happier in future as more competent and confident individuals. This reflects the role of teaching practices in building the students' confidence especially for Japanese students who are assumed to be shy and less risk-taking in communication.

### 5. Becoming more expressive and straightforward

Katsuo (m): "It is very nice. I felt that I changed and I can frankly speak."

In response to the question of whether they felt any changes after learning English, Katsuo expressed a positive change which is being able to speak more frankly and directly.

Chisako (f): "I can say my opinion clearly when I use English"

Chisako, also, feels a positive change which is the ability to clearly express her opinion in English. This also shows the trace of identity changes as these learners communicate in English. Similarly, Miwa feels the need to shift her identity due to differences between English and Japanese communication styles:

Miwa (f): "Learning English is useful because most people in the world tend to speak English and we should communicate more people because of getting more inspiration. I feel it when I talk with people who speak English and they get to understand my opinion. In Japan, people do not say everything, so they cannot understand what they mean, but if we speak English, we have to express all of my opinion."

Miwa understands well that she must change when she speaks English and become more expressive and straightforward. This awareness of identity change has helped her to overcome the communication challenges and adopt a new identity. It even shows some kind of preference in her toward her L2 identity as it equips her with better communication skills as opposed to Japanese.

# 6. Improving logical and critical thinking

Another trace of identity change which was observed in participants was adopting a more logical and critical viewpoint after learning. Language is not only the representation of thinking but also influences and shapes how we think. Studies on language learning suggest that a foreign language has cognitive benefits on the bilinguals beyond the acquisition of a foreign language. Cultural differences in thinking styles reveal that East Asian societies are characterized by holistic thinking and Western societies by analytic thinking (Nisbett, et al, 2001). In this study, some participants observed how English learning affected and shaped their self-identity as a critical thinker. In response to the question regarding identity changes, Etsuji admitted that as a result of speaking English, he can think in a more logical and flexible way:

Etsuji (m): "Yes, I do. I think I could think more logical... I think I can consider about something more flexible."

Shinzo also confirmed his improvement of critical thinking after being able to speak English:

Shinzo (m): "I think I get ability to think and speak in English logically."

Sumika is also aware of the way English can change her thoughts and personality if she learns it well. She is imagining her future identity as a more logical and expressive person:

Sumika (f): "I think I will probably be able to explain things clearly and logically than ever before. I will definitely have broadened outlook for studies of both, humanity and science."

These results indicate the positive effect of learning a second language on critical and logical thinking skills, which has been argued to especially need more development in Japanese

students. Thus, in universities, foreign language and EFL/ESL courses are good platforms to begin transformative education and improve learners' critical skills, which is another reason for the improvement of teaching and motivating aspects of such courses (Goharimehr & Bysouth, 2017).

# 4.3.3. Anxiety and Linguistic Self-confidence

Psychological aspects of learning attitudes play an important role in determining learning achievement. Less-confidence, speech anxiety, and low self-esteem are almost common problems in EFL classrooms. Foreign language anxiety can be defined as an experience of a foreign language that can pose potential problems for a learner with their acquisition, retention, and production of the new language (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). Horwitz (1986) theorize that foreign language anxiety in the classroom can be attributed to three performance anxieties: communication apprehension, social evaluation, and test anxiety. First, communication apprehension may be defined as the fear over the real or anticipated act of speaking. It is this type of anxiety that teachers find most prevalent in oral EFL classes in Japan. Second, social evaluation may be defined as the worry over how one's actions will be perceived by others in the social setting. It is this type of anxiety that Zimbardo (1977) reports to be predominant in Japanese society.

Lastly, test anxiety may be defined as the fear of failure, especially when skills are being measured formally as in exams. In addition, some researchers have claimed that students may suffer language anxiety due to cultural inhibitions. Oxford (1992) likens this to the concept known as culture shock. Learners may fear the experience of losing their identities in the target culture (Ellis, 1994). Based on six interviews of Japanese students at the University of Edinburgh, Dwyer and Heller-Murphy (1996) found out that the students were reticent in EFL classrooms due to fear of public failure, fear of making mistakes, lack of confidence, low English proficiency, inability to keep up with native speakers, incompetence in the rules and

norms of English conversation, disorientation, etc. Similarly, Tsui (1996) found out that one of the commonly mentioned causes of reticence in the class is students' lack of confidence and fear of making mistakes and being laughed at.

The results of the current study were in line with previous studies in that the participants suffered from anxiety caused by their sociocultural beliefs and dispositions about English learning and speaking. In addition to what the survey revealed quantitatively regarding anxiety, the students' comments also depicted traces of anxiety and low linguistic self-confidence as major factors inhibiting the EFL learners' motivation to learn or speak English.

# 1. Lack of proficiency and self-confidence

Going through the students' detailed responses reveal that despite having enough English language proficiency, they still suffer from a perception of low proficiency. It can be connected to a lack of linguistic self-confidence or a person's perceptions of their own competence and ability to accomplish tasks successfully. This construct is affective and corresponds to language anxiety, especially the discomfort experienced when using an L2. Linguistic self-confidence is established through interactions between the language learner and members of the language community and strengthened based on the quality and quantity of these interactions. In participating multi-linguistic communities or imagined communities, self-confidence fosters language learners' identification with the language community and increases their willingness to pursue learning that language.

Kohei (m): "Learning English makes me feel happy because I like English. But I sometimes feel worried when I speak English. I'm not confident in pronunciation."

Fumiya (m) "When I trip to Singapore, clerks always try to understand my poor English. I feel comfortable when I talk with the person who listen to me well. I can't tell all of my thought in English. So I feel I become a little stupid when I speak English... Teachers always try to understand my poor English."

Fumiya admits that his English is poor and he is unable to express himself well. So, he feels comfortable speaking when the audience is patient and nice to him.

Chikao (m): "When I visited Osaka at the first time, I was spoken to by foreigners in English. Then I couldn't talk with them because of my poor English. After that, I came to realize how important it is to learn English"

Katsuo (m): "But I anxious about my poor English when I use it. My goal of learning English is when I can be good at talking with foreigner in English."

Chikao and Katsuo understand the necessity to improve and deal with their perceived lack of English proficiency. These students are motivated toward learning but what seems to be hindering their learning is lack of confidence and a presence of self-degradation. This fact is evident in other excerpts from Maya and Saori:

Maya (f): "I hesitated to speak English before I studied abroad because I didn't have any confidence with English."

Saori (f): "Learning English is useful, but for me, it is not so interesting, too. That's because I hesitate to speak English and I don't have enough confidence on my pronunciation. I once could not pronounce "thief" in English class and was made to explain my opinion again and again. I was hurt by experiencing sadness of not telling my opinion smoothly. Therefore, I feel English little hard."

Saori knows the usefulness of learning English. She has instrumental and extrinsic motivations to learn. However, her lack of confidence prevents her from speaking freely and confidently and hence she loses interest and motivation. Sometimes anxiety and lack of confidence originate from peer pressure and Japanese students' fear of being incapable in front of their peers:

Rina (f): "I feel comfortable to speak English when I talk with my Japanese friends who are not so good at English."

Rina prefers to speak to Japanese students whose English proficiency level is lower than hers. This way, she deals with her lack of confidence and tendency to avoid embarrassment in front of her peers due to making mistakes. Tadashi (m): "No. I think that it is important to join English speaking communities, but I worry about my pronunciation."

Sakura (f): "Yes, it is. Because learning English brings me thoughts that I didn't have before. I hope to use English in foreign countries as native speakers do, but I don't have confidence in my English."

For Tadashi and Sakura as well, the lack of confidence seems to hinder their desire to use English overseas. A reason might be that they want to speak English like a native speaker. Being a perfectionist and the wish to avoid any mistakes is a feature of Japanese learning culture which might have both positive and negative outcomes. Perfectionism does not only mean the attainment of perfection but also includes a psychological tendency to strive for perfection. The latter should be emphasized, particularly in language learning, as some studies have reported that such a tendency has negative influences on language performance (Fujio, 2010; Kang, 2006; Pishghadam & Akhondpoor, 2011).

This sense of perfectionism is a source of anxiety for foreign language learners. The pressures inherent in trying to be perfect can undermine learning and exacerbate anxiety in certain students. The cognitive tendencies, as well as social pressures and self-presentational concerns that accompany perfectionism, can exacerbate language learning anxiety. Both qualitative and quantitative kinds of research have uncovered that those who are perfectionism-oriented tend to experience more foreign language anxiety (Dewaele, 2017; Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002). In such situations, it will be useful if teachers introduce the concept of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) which indicates that native-like English does not always have to be the ultimate learning goal (Yasuda, 2018).

# 2. Cultural and linguistic differences and inability to express opinions

Another theme which was related to anxiety and self-confidence was "Inability to express one's thoughts and opinions". Several participants connected their language anxiety to lack of opinions and inability to express themselves. This can be due to sociocultural background of Japanese students and the practice of silence. English and Japanese languages are different in many ways. Apart from linguistic differences, many of the difficulties that Japanese learners have with English are mostly caused by differences in communication styles and culture. The Japanese language is associated with a respect for abstraction and indirect communication which can cause Japanese students to struggle to find the best way to express themselves.

As Kunihiro (1976) put it, "in Japan, language, communication through language, has not received the same emphasis as in the West. It has been considered poor policy to use words as a tool to express one's views, to persuade the other fellow or to establish any depth of understanding. Language as an instrument of debate or arguments is considered even more disagreeable and is accordingly avoided. Thus, in Japanese society, use of words becomes a sort of ritual, not often to be taken at face value. It is only one possible means of communication, not *the* means of communication as is often the case among English speakers" (p.97). The cultural differences are perceived and handled by some learners in both positive and negative ways:

Kaito (m): "I can think many ideas in my brain in Japanese, so I want to speak the ideas, but I can't compile them in English. I've experienced the situation so much. I want to change the situation in English classes."

Miwa (f): "In Japan, people do not say everything, so they cannot understand what they mean, but if we speak English, we have to express all of my opinion; so I can understand what I am thinking and how I am feeling. If I get only Japanese culture, I cannot imagine idea more."

For Miwa, the cultural context seems to be limiting her identity. She is well aware of the fact that to be able to improve her speaking, she needs to express her opinions. She thinks that the Japanese don't express all their opinions so, within the limits of her native language, she cannot imagine new ideas. However, she seems to have a positive attitude toward the new identity of an English speaker who is more straightforward and opinionated.

Masa (m): "...I don't like English, because English is very difficult for me. I'm not good at and don't like remembering. Usually I don't want to use English, but I use English when foreign people ask me to

tell way. When I use English, I'm very uncomfortable because I can't talk what I want to talk. I learn English only to pass the exam. I can't image myself because I can't learn advanced English...."

Masa doesn't like English as he finds it difficult. Also, he considers himself incompetent. For him, learning English mostly aims at passing exams. He cannot imagine his identity as an L2 speaker and he finds it difficult to express his thoughts and opinions. This lack of selfconfidence and inability to freely express his identity in English has demotivated him in doing so.

Naoya (m): "My goal is to understand every article that is written in English.... when I speak English, I don't have the confidence to tell my thoughts and feelings."

Although Naoya has a clear goal to understand English articles, he doesn't feel confident in expressing himself in English either.

Taku (m): "When I speak English, I think hard the way to tell my opinion."

Rina (f): "I feel comfortable to speak English when I talk with my Japanese friends who are not so good at English ...I realize I have less opinions and knowledge than English speakers because sometimes I can't answer to questions asked by them."

Rina and Taku also feel incompetent in expressing their opinions. The anxiety and lack of confidence are evident in Rina's comment as she prefers to speak with low proficient English speakers to avoid tension. She realizes that she does not have much knowledge and opinion compared to the proficient or native English speakers and this might be a reason for her anxiety. As mentioned earlier, Saori also links her lack of confidence and motivation to inability to express her thoughts:

Saori (m): "in English class and was made to explain my opinion again and again. I was hurt by experiencing sadness of not telling my opinion smoothly. Therefore I feel English little hard."

A better example would be the case of Momo which also shows how stressful expressing opinions can be for Japanese students:

Momo (f): "When I am asked my opinion, I often consider too seriously. I can't find good word for express my opinion and I fall silent. Sometime my conversation partner changes the question to yes-orno question, and I feel relieved."

Hideo (m): "I can't communicate with people in English well. Learning English is useful and interesting, but I have no time to study more. I feel comfortable when I express my opinion in English class. English doesn't have the word of respectful, so it is difficult for me to speak with older people in English."

A communication difficulty rises for Hideo due to sociolinguistic aspects of English and Japanese. The Japanese language encodes features such as social relationships and power rankings, while English does not have as many encodings. Therefore, understanding the cultural and psychological reasons behind students' speaking difficulties is crucial for English teachers to help them overcome communication barriers.

# 3. Teacher interaction is stressful

Although this theme only appeared twice in this study, it is worth noting as the study tries to address all types of factors that signal anxiety and low confidence among the learners. Hofstede (1986) proposes a cultural analysis in terms of the four dimensions of Individualism/Collectivism, Uncertainty Avoidance, Power Distance. and Masculinity/Femininity and relates the factors to classroom interaction. One of them, Power Distance, is considered to greatly influence Japanese classroom interaction, especially communicative activities. At school, Japanese teachers are likely to control students and students are expected to obey teachers, and this is assumed to have prevented free interaction in class. These facts are reported in several articles by Japanese teachers and educational researchers, who present critical views on Japanese teaching (Sato, 1993; Ishii, 1993; Watanabe and Wada, 1991). This could be a reason for Japanese students to feel stressed having interactions with their teachers or peers in English which is even more challenging as it is a different language with different communicative norms.

Chiaki (f): "When I was in high school or junior high, it was ridiculous for students to pronounce English so seriously, and if one student tried to do so, everyone laughed. i hated it. I don't feel comfortable at any time when I speak in English. So I am not willing to speak in English. I usually speak English with a teacher of English class, or other students when a teacher directs to do it...I prefer less interactions because it is less stressed."

Chiaki relates her experience of learning English in high school and her frustration to stand out among her peers for trying to learn and speak English seriously. This exemplifies well a presence of L2 identity resistance among Japanese students as well as the anxiety caused by avoiding conformity in a Japanese community of practice. Hence, Chiaki doesn't feel comfortable speaking English as this context limits her from creating her L2 identity. Moreover, the psychological consequences of this situation have developed a fear of interaction even in the university classroom which offers more possibilities to practice English without facing peer pressure.

Naoya (m): "I prefer less interactions with my teacher because when I speak English, I don't have the confidence to tell my thoughts and feelings."

For Naoya as well, speaking English is stressful as he is not confident in expressing his thought and feelings. Again, these examples depict the factors of anxiety and low linguistic selfconfidence that influence students' performance significantly. It is obvious that in contrast with the common misconceptions that Japanese students are unmotivated in speaking English, there are indeed cultural and psychological factors which influence their L2 identity and motivation to communicate in English.

# 4.3.4. Demotivation

Since the focus of this study is identifying the motivational factors and existence of L2 identity among Japanese EFL learners, it is of importance to understand which factors demotivate the L2 learners. Researchers and practitioners in foreign language learning have recently got interested in the "shadow" part of motivation-namely, demotivation-yet there is

still more to be learned about it. Demotivating factors are essential factors which negatively influence the learner's attitudes and behaviors and hence lead to undesired learning outcomes The results of a research conducted by Ikeno (2003) also showed that some of the demotivating factors among Japanese students were the lack of a sense of control over what one is learning, distrust in the ability of teachers, doubts about the character of teachers, a sense of classes being solely exam-oriented, feelings of inferiority about one's English ability and peers' negative attitude toward English learning.

In addition, Tsuchiya (2006) studying the effective factors on demotivation among some unsuccessful English language learners listed nine demotivators: teachers, classes, the compulsory nature of English study, a negative attitude toward the English community, a negative attitude toward English itself, reduced self-confidence, negative group attitude, and the lack of positive English speaking models and ways of learning. In the present study, few students (N=12) explicitly mentioned that they are not interested in English learning. The thematic analysis of the responses revealed several reasons and themes which might shed light on the factors demotivating Japanese students and consequently hindering their learning and identity development.

# 1. Lack of opportunities to speak English

Isao (m): "In the past I studied English to pass college entrance examinations. I was required to learn reading, listening and writing in English. Thanks to them I was able to get some parts of English skills. But I didn't have opportunity to practice speaking."

Ryoko (f): "Though I went to an English school for a long time, when I have to speak English, I was nervous a little. I've had few opportunities to use English after graduated the English school." Miharu (f): "I have never speak English without in my English classes, and there, I do not feel comfortable to speak English."

A factor that may influence students' motivation in English learning is the lack of opportunities to speak English or use it in meaningful communications. Isao didn't have enough

opportunities to use English communicatively due to the focus on passing exams. For Ryoko, despite going to an English school, he still feels nervous and doesn't have opportunities to use it afterward. Miharu as well hasn't spoken English out of the classroom and hence she doesn't feel comfortable speaking in the English class either. One reason might be that in English classrooms, students are often forced to communicate information that they have little interest in transmitting or acquiring simply for the purposes of learning English expressions (Yanase & Koizumi, 2015).

Japanese students are often hesitant to speak English even though they have the ability to do so. That's because they are very shy and afraid to make mistakes. Therefore, they need to be encouraged to speak and told not to worry about making mistakes. Additionally, Japanese learners of English need a lot of encouragement to maintain motivation. Learning English is a big challenge for Japanese people because of the major linguistic differences between English and Japanese. Research suggests that hundreds of hours of study are necessary before anything approaching fluent speaking ability can be reached.

The reason why Japanese people (think they) are unable to communicate in English is probably that they have not had (many) experiences of "situations in which communication can only be carried out in English." As long as somebody remains in Japan, it is unlikely that he or she will come across many such situations. To put this simply, it is alright for students not to be able to use English in Japan because they never need to communicate in English (Wakabayashi, 2016).

### 2. Past negative experiences

In a context where English language education is viewed as problematic and where there are dissonances and tensions between 'English for exams' and 'English for communication' at different stages of education, it seems important to try to understand what learning English means to students, and how they see English fitting into their system of values goals and identities. Negative experiences can significantly affect motivation in foreign language learning. Regarding the students' earlier experiences of learning English in school, it seems that the quality of these initial learning experiences may function as a litmus test for students' long-term motivational trajectories and self-regulatory processes. If students' first encounters with English in school are negative, the long-term motivational and self-regulatory prognosis is not good (Apple, Da Silva, & Fellner, 2013).

Shoko (f): "In my high school days, I practiced Speed reading. Speed reading was hard because I couldn't concentrate on any part which I felt hard to understand. I disliked it... Training for entrance exams was hard and boring."

Shoko's resentment with her learning experiences is originated from the fact that the teaching methods in high schools in Japan mostly focus on preparation for entrance exams. Thus, the teaching mostly concentrates on improving reading and grammatical knowledge rather than communicative skills.

Chiaki (f): "When I was in high school or junior high, it was ridiculous for students to pronounce English so seriously, and if one student tried to do so, everyone laughed. i hated it. I don't feel comfortable at any time when I speak in English."

Chiaki's negative learning experiences are related to the cultural aspects of learning in Japan. In general, Japanese high school students don't think speaking English, especially in a nativelike accent, has much application in their real life. It is also connected to the ethnic identity of Japanese and cultural conformity which cause identity resistance in EFL learners. Moreover, as it was mentioned earlier, standing out among peers is not favorable either. This negative experience seems to be preventing students like Chiaki to be motivated to speak English from a different identity position other than Japanese. In a country such as Japan, which values conformity and group feelings over individual expression, trying to inspire some kind of rigorous challenge or competitive interaction can sometimes prove frustrating. Japanese students tend to value consensus rather than confrontation, resulting in activities such as discussions that require active involvement, appearing somewhat passive and orderly (Burrows, 2008, p.29-30). A relevant example would be that of Saori:

Saori (f): Learning English is useful, but for me, it is not so interesting,too. That's because I hesitate to speak English and I don't have enough confidence on my pronunciation. I once could not pronounce "thief" in English class and was made to explain my opinion again and again. I was hurt by experiencing sadness of not telling my opinion smoothly. Therefore, I feel English little hard."

Saori's example also shows the shortcomings of teaching methods in her past English classes. Being in the focus of attention and having the chance to express herself turned to a negative experience for her as she felt embarrassed, insecure and incapable.

## 4.3.5. Communities of Practice/Imagined Communities

Norton (2001) applied the idea of "imagined community" to SLA theory, arguing that "a learner's imagined community invites an imagined identity, and a learner's investment in the target language must be understood within this context" (p. 166). The role of imagination and languages in creating real and imagined communities of practice for non-native speakers of English is another focus of this study as it can be a major motivational factor and affect students' identities. Many students learn a foreign language with the hope to become members of numerous imagined and real communities; while some of them are crucial in their identity formation and life goals, others may be just fragmented and insignificant.

The dual nature of a human imagination may either empower or marginalize learners of English as a foreign language. The concepts of imagined communities and identities provide alternative platforms to scrutinize students' goals of learning besides other motivation theories. The results of the thematic analysis in this study revealed that most of the students have some sort of imagination or desire to join an imaginary community of practice. It is not necessarily a community of native speakers, rather, it is mostly an international or professional community which provides the learners with a better future and more possibilities for progress. Several themes appeared in relation to the type of communities the EFL learners wish to join or interact with.

### 1. Speaking to foreigners

In response to the questions concerning learning motivation and the people or situations where the EFL learners wish to use English, most of the students mentioned a desire to interact with foreigners and make foreign friends.

Haruka (f): "If I can speak English fluently, I want to talk with foreign people, so I think learning English is useful. When I can communicate with foreign people fluently, I feel comfortable."

Haruka imagines her ideal self and future identity as being a fluent English speaker who can talk with foreign people. Being able to communicate fluently gives her a sense of satisfaction and relief.

Noriko (f): "By using English, I can make many friends from overseas... After talk with English speakers, I can get the different thoughts from mine."

Fumiya (m): "I want to be able to communicate with foreigner with no difficulty to know foreigner's real thought."

Kenji (m): "In train, I can talk with foreigner in English. It lets me have a confidence about English.\*I would like to speak English with international student because I think English is the tool which enables people to communicate with each other. Even if we don't know their language well, we can talk with them in English."

Shinzo (m): "I would like to speak English with foreign people. I don't care whenever, wherever, and however."

Similarly, Noriko, Fumiya, Kenji and Shinzo are highly motivated in communication with foreigners and this is what builds their confidence.

Tomoki (m): "When I talk with people from other countries with English, I tend to be excited. Honesetly, Learning English in Japan is bored for me... I want to use English in foreign countries."

Tomoki's motivation is speaking with foreigners and he prefers to use English abroad. He finds English learning in Japan boring. It means that the educational or social setting for speaking English is not motivating for Tomoko and he doesn't have a positive attitude toward the learning setting. It could be due to English teaching methods in classrooms which don't focus much on communication or are teacher-centered. As reported by Kramer and Korn (1996), it has been established that during class discussions teachers dominate the discussion; they talk up to 86% of the time, even if this monopoly of talk-time is not intentional. One common misconception is that university language learning is fundamentally a linguistic exercise. In fact, learning to truly communicate in a foreign language has little to do with the study of how sentences work. More cultural components should be introduced to education as students are mostly interested in getting to know foreign people and cultures.

# 2. Imagined communities of practice

The analysis of the comments revealed several aspects of the learners' imaginaries and the kind of communities they want to join. For a lot of participants, an imagined or actual community is mostly an international one rather than a native English community. For example, Umeko's positive encounters with Singaporeans has reinforced her confidence and motivation:

Umeko (f): "think learning English is interesting. I thought it was interesting to learn roots of English words when I was in the junior high school. When I participated in international party, people in Singapore listened to me very kindly, and spoke using understandable words. I hope use English like them. After learning English and talking to Singaporean, I was not very nervous speaking English. I don't hope join English speaking communities because I don't acquire English well. So, at first I want to study English with people from non-English speaking communities and in that community I hope I and they improve English skills."

However, she still doesn't feel confident enough to join a native English community and prefers non-English ones at this point. Therefore, a lack of interest in the native community doesn't originate from a lack of motivation, rather, it is due to a lack of self-confidence. This can be observed in other students' comments as well:

Tadashi (m): "I feel comfortable to do so, when I could express my feeling in English. I like to speak English with my foreign friends. I want to use English in my dairy life. Yes. After learning English, I came to watch TV news of international problems and examine of it online. My goal of learning English is talking with foreign people in English fluently. No. I think that it is important to join English speaking communities, but I worry about my pronunciation. If I master English skill, I will become more active and global."

Tadashi's desired community of practice consists of an international community of foreign friends. He thinks it is important to join English communities but he also doesn't feel so confident with his pronunciation. Like other participants, a mastery of English is required for him to feel the confidence to become more active in communication. Yet the existence of an international community in most of the participants' motivational goals depicts the concept of the imagined community as a major factor in Japanese students' motivational system. Imagined communities, as well as the real ones, have their own roles in influencing learners' goals (Kanno & Norton, 2003) and opportunities of legitimate peripheral participation. For some participants, however, the desire to participate in a future community seems more complicated and vague and their motivation is more complex:

Taku (m): "I became happy when I can tell foreigner the way to their goal. Then I think learning English is important. Since then I have learned English hard. Because of these experiences I think learning English is useful and interesting. My goal of learning English is to be able to speak English fluently with native. No, I don't hope to join English speaking communities. Probably I will be able to have relation with foreigner. It is too unfortunate. My goal of learning English is to be able to speak English fluently with native. No, I don't hope to join English speaking communities. Probably I will be able to have relation with foreigner. It is too unfortunate. I prefer using technology in the English classroom, because it is beneficial."

Taku enjoys interacting with a foreigner. Although it is not a deep interest and it is mostly a sense of duty to help foreigners find their way in Japan, it still has motivated him to learn English hard. His next comment stating his goal as talking to native English speakers depicts a more integrative motivation. However, in the next sentence, he expresses no desire to join an English speaking community. But again he hopes to interact with foreigners. Therefore, it can be understood that for him, interactions with foreigners are motivating while he doesn't want

to be part of an English speaking community. Perhaps, he hopes to interact with foreigners who visit Japan. Meanwhile, some participants have very strong and clear imaginaries of future communities and it is evident that they are more motivated and clear on their goals of language learning:

Miki (f): "When I went to Australia in my high school days for two weeks to study English and the culture, I could enjoy the culture very much, but I couldn't have much time communicating with the same years old students. The last year's English class I took was really valuable, because I could discuss with foreign students a lot. Learning English is important because I can make myself understood to foreigners, or understand revolutionary ideas from them. I haven't ever felt comfortable to speak English, because I can't still express myself fluently in English. I'd like to communicate a lot with foreigners. I felt I had little ideas of mine. I thought learning the way to think in English was necessary to discuss in English. Now I'm trying to be able to do so. I'd like to be able to negotiate in English. In the future, I'd like to work in a foreign country, where English might be needed. My life will be more wonderful, where I'll have more broad community all over the world and viewpoints. The more I know foreign world, the less prejudice I'll have."

As it was discussed earlier, study abroad and meaningful interactions in English can act as positive experiences that reinforce the students' motivation in English learning. Miki seems to be very positive about her experience abroad and highly motivated in communicating with foreigners. Traces of identity change are perceived from her understanding of switching to new identity positions when she speaks English as she is aware of thinking differently in English. She hopes to work in a foreign country in future to access a broad community which is international not necessarily native English. Her ideal "self" consists of a life in another country where she can speak English. She understands the wider horizons she can reach through learning the language. This comment alone shows the power of imagined community and identity in motivation to learn a foreign language. Comparing this comment with those of the students' who don't feel any changes in their identities nor have a desire to participate in

international communities, reveals different levels of investment in language learning. For few learners, however, joining a native English community is also part of their motivational system:

Kumi (m): "Hanging out with English speaking friends. I think I changed. I got to open mind. After change, I'm same when I speak both language. My goal is that I understand every lyric in English at once. I'd like to join English speaking communities like U.K or U.S.A for a business. Got chance to work oversea. Able to understand directly foreign cultures and peoples."

Kumi is interested in joining foreign communities overseas. His interest includes both integrative and cultural aspects of English and also instrumental goals related to his business aspirations. Koehi expresses his motivation in a similar way:

Kohei (m): "Now, I like to speak English with Japanese, but in the future, I want to speak with foreigners. If possible, I want to use English as a tool of studying science. Before I began to study, I don't want to have relationships with foreigners because I couldn't understand what they said. But now, I want to talk with foreigners and improve my English. I think I can speak English better than ever. My goal of learning English is to speak with foreigners without hindrance. I want to join English speaking communities when I can speak better English. I want to join international events because I think I can get many information about foreign countries. I can imagine happier life once I Finish advanced English."

It is obvious that learning English has led to changes in identity for Kohei and made him a more internationally oriented individual. He is interested in interacting with foreigners and joining English speaking and international communities. His ideal self is associated with finishing advanced English. His imagined identity is a happier person as a result of English learning.

### 3. No desire to join communities of practice

We not only produce our identities through the practices we engage in, but we also define ourselves through the practices we do not engage in. Our identities are constituted not only by what we are but also by what we are not. To the extent that we can come in contact with other ways of being, what we are not can even become a large part of how we define ourselves (Wenger, 1998: 164). Another theme identified in the data pertained to students' lack of desire to join imagined future communities of practice.

Kazuto (m): "I feel comfortable to speak English when calling with my mother. I like to speak English with American. When eating dinner, I hope to talk with my girlfriend. No, I don't change, but I have enjoyed making English sentences. I want to read books in English about science fluently. I don't want to participate in such communities. I will be proud of my great English skill. It is good. Because she is kind to us, I like interactions with my teacher. Opinion about English class is so so."

Kazuto explicitly mentions that he has no desire to join English speaking communities, however, it can be inferred from his previous sentences that he still has imaginaries about talking to Americans or his girlfriend. His imagined community is sort of limited to a certain nationality that is American and special people such as his family.

Ichiro (m): "like studying English because I want to communicate with others in various people. When I walked in the town, I guided people who don't speak Japanese, to the station. I was very happy to be able to help her. I want to use English with people who don't look down on me, even if I use English by mistake. No. I can get same thing in Japanese and in English. However, I can get wider chance to learn. Until I can read English news. I don't have hope that I want to join the English speaking communities. To become a smarter person thanks to the good command of English and much information from other world. I like it. I can get to connect with others' opinion or information through the Internet. I think it is good to use computers to learn English. I can write it more fast."

For Ichiro, learning motivation is a combination of goals such as communicating with a wider range of people, helping foreigners and becoming a smarter person. His motivation is mostly instrumental and he doesn't have a desire to join any English speaking communities.

Hiroya (m): "Learning English is useful to some extent. When I research, I can access to more sources. Relatively, I feel comfortable to speak English when I speak to my friends. I hope I will be able to speak more fluently in an academic situation such as presentation. No, I do not change, being able to speak, listen, write, and read at an adequate level is my goal. I am not planning to join in any specific community. wherever. I think I will not different."

Hiroya's motivation is also merely instrumental. He hopes to achieve academic purposes and

gain access to more resources. He is invested in achieving more academic recourses rather than an interest in the English culture, people and communities.

# 4. Native English speaking community

Few participants in this study expressed a desire or showed an integrative motivation toward native English people and joining English communities. This result revealed a lack of desire to specifically identify with the native English culture and communities.

Kazuto (m): "I like to speak English with American. When eating dinner, I hope to talk with my girlfriend."

It is obvious that for Kazuto, the interest in Americans is mostly related to his romantic relationship with his girlfriend rather than joining and identifying the American communities.

Isao (m): "I feel comfortable to speak English and talk with North American or British people because I have learned American and British way of speaking. I have difficulty to listen to those who have strong accents, such as Chinese or Filipino people."

For Isao, an imagined community of native speakers is well into play in his motivation and there seems to be a resistance toward non-English people because of their background or foreign accent.

Kumi (m): "I'd like to join English speaking communities like U.K or U.S.A for a business."

For Kumi, the desire to join English communities is related to his career rather than integrativeness. Overall, it appears that an imagined identity of being a member of English communities doesn't exist in the participants' motivation system. As it was discussed in the previous sections, many students expressed explicitly that they don't want or feel a need to join such communities.

### 5. Talking in class

Wenger's (2000) social theory of learning emphasizes the process of learning based on the extent of social participation. That is to say, participants are involved in a community to engage in certain activities, thus establishing their identity to interpret the world around themselves. For some participants, the community of practice consists of classmate and friends and wouldn't go beyond that. This is their comfort zone and connects them to their Japanese community.

Sakko (m): "With my classmate and friends who also learn English."

For other learners, speaking to their Japanese classmates provides them with a feeling of confidence but still they have hopes to speak to foreigners in the future when they finish advanced English." Hideo (m): "I can't communicate with people in English well. Learning English is useful and interesting, but I have no time to study more. I feel comfortable when I express my opinion in English class. English doesn't have the word of respectful, so it is difficult for me to speak with older people in English. I want to express my opinion in English especially in business world. I will communicate with foreign people more active, (English class) It is good. I prefer interactions with my teacher because they talk to us in easy English. I don't know other English class, so I can't compare with anything. I think CALL class is very useful."

Hideo doesn't feel confident about his communicative skills. He seems to be interested in English but he is not invested in learning as he doesn't have enough time or maybe the desire to invest in English learning. He has several sociolinguistic difficulties with English speaking due to cultural differences. So he feels comfortable to express himself in the English class. He hopes to also be able to use English in business in the future. He feels comfortable to speak to his teacher because her English is easy to understand and he won't have to face the stress of misunderstanding or making mistakes.

Miharu (F): "I'm not good at reading and speaking English, so I do not like studying English. However, learning English is useful because if I speak English well, I can communicate a lot of foreign people. I have never speak English without in my English classes, and there, I do not feel comfortable to speak English. I do not feel such any changes. My goal is understanding and writing reports which written about my Feld of study. I cannot imagine such my life."

For Miharu, although the English class is the only community of practice, she doesn't even feel comfortable speaking English there. Her lack of motivation and investment can be a result of her low linguistic self-confidence. She doesn't feel any identity changes and is unable to

132

imagine future identities and communities of practice. This lack of imagination and participation seems to be a resistance to learning, which is partly related to the learner's lack of confidence. As Norton (2000) put it, in order to understand a learner's investment in English, it is crucial to understand how that learner views herself now (her current identity) and who she sees herself as becoming (her imagined identity). Investment in an imagined identity as a proficient speaker of English very clearly leads to an investment in learning English.

Rina (f): "The lesson about reading I had before was very boring. In the class, the teacher just translated English into Japanese. Usually I like learning English, but the lesson was not useful to me."

Sometimes, the learners' lack of desire to participate in a community of practice, which is mostly the English class for EFL learners, is influenced negatively by a disjuncture between the learner's expectations and the classroom practices. Although translation has benefits for language learning, using it as opposed to communicative methods might be demotivating for some students. Even though Japanese high school teachers have attempted to develop communicative-oriented methodologies that would fit their teaching contexts (Nishino, 2008), English classes are mostly found to be teacher-centered and not incorporating motivational teaching practices even in the university level. In an EFL context, sometimes, English classes are the only community of practice that students access or feel comfortable to join. Therefore, one main reason for some Japanese learners to be less motivated or not participating in speaking activities is the lack of opportunities to develop their desired identities and be a member of the community due to the non-communicative nature of English classrooms.

### 6. Speaking English with friends

For some participants, the community of practice consists of friends. It can be implied that these participants don't feel comfortable or confident enough to speak English in other contexts:

Sakura (f): "I hope to use English in foreign countries as native speakers do, but I don't have confidence in my English. So I feel comfortable when I speak English with friends." Sakura hopes to use English in foreign countries. Her imagined community is a foreign community and her ideal self is a native-like English speaker. But she admits her lack of confidence in her proficiency and consequently, she prefers to speak English to her friends for now. Similarly, Rina feels confident to practice English with her friends while her imagined community exists in foreign countries:

Rina (f): "I feel comfortable to speak English when I talk with my Japanese friends who are not so good at English. However, in the future I'd like to use English not only in Japan but also in foreign countries."

Rina's community of practice is a group of friends whose English skills are not so good so that she can feel confident enough to speak English to them and not be judged or embarrassed.

### 7. Speaking to foreigners rather than Japanese

For some learners, however, the imagined community or community of practice consists of foreigners as opposed to their Japanese peers:

Naoya (m): "I feel comfortable speaking English with foreign people rather than speaking with Japanese people. It feels very weird when I have to speak English with Japanese students in English class."
Naoya finds it weird to speak English with his Japanese classmates. Therefore, he prefers to speak to foreigners. This shows that he is aware of his identity changes when speaking English. His identity as an English speaker is in conflict with his identity as a Japanese. It might be due to cultural and communicative differences between English and Japanese which might cause anxiety for Japanese students. As Li and Lui (2011) put forward, one of the causes of reticence and reluctance in the EFL classroom may be cultural differences because certain cultures forbid or strongly discourage individuals from speaking up in classroom settings. Therefore, talking to foreigners is associated with a sense of freedom and less anxiety for such learners:

Sumika (f): "I feel comfortable speaking English with my foreign friends. I think foreign people don't mind how well people from other countries pronounce, they want to know what they think, their opinion."

Chiaki (f): "When I was in high school or junior high, it was ridiculous for students to pronounce English so seriously, and if one student tried to do so, everyone laughed. i hated it. I don't feel comfortable at any time when I speak in English. So I am not willing to speak in English."

It can be understood that like a lot of participants, Sumika is afraid of making mistakes or mispronounce words and she feels that foreigners don't mind her mistakes. So, she wants to speak with them. As it was aforementioned, Chiaki, also had bad experiences of being ridiculed by standing out and adopting her L2 identity in Japanese classrooms. Hence, she didn't feel comfortable speaking English. Finally, another example of a preference to speak to foreigners would be Takuya's comment:

Takuya (m): "I don't know any English words so I cannot speak smoothly but I like learning English and I thinks it is good to know a language other than the mother tongue. I feel comfortable not in Japan, but in foreign countries. I like to speak English with my friends. in the future, I hope to use English when I work in foreign countries."

These examples confirm the contextual limitations of the native culture on students' willingness to communicate and the reasons into which some Japanese students feel reluctant to speak English in Japan. Moreover, these comments show the evidence of identity change for these students. As they speak English, they adopt a new identity which is not fitting the context of their native culture. Therefore, they hope to participate in imagined communities of foreigners where they can manifest their L2 identity.

# 4.3.6. Classroom Factors

# 1. Improving the English class and interactions

When teachers and students use L2 in English classes, it is important to understand what kind of interpersonal roles they perform, and what this means for the development of L2mediated identity. One of the most important features of a motivating language classroom, which fosters development of identities is that the lesson is an arena of human interaction with different personalities, motives, and expectations at play. The learning atmosphere, emotional climate, group cohesion, and enjoyment of being in the group are fundamental issues for motivation.

Prabhu (1992:225) notes that behind the ritualistic, routinized aspect of lessons giving a certain role to the teacher and another to the students are a group of learners with different personalities, aspirations, motives, all of which make the classroom a real arena for human interaction. Then it is best to transform a classroom into more of a small community group in which the teacher and students behave more like the way they do outside the classroom. The teacher should never lose sight of the make-up of the classroom population. Recognizing the differences and the importance of interaction, she can make the classroom a real learning ground with certain un-curricular attitudes, techniques, and motivation- raising acts and tasks.

Accordingly, in this study, while the survey results showed the participants' general interest in their English classes, the thematic analysis of their detailed responses to the questions regarding their attitude toward the classes and interactions revealed more in-depth information on their motivation.

Katsuo (m): "However, I think that we can improve this class when we make more chances to express our opinion."

Several students expressed a desire to improve their English classes. As most of the participants were from the writing course, they didn't have many chances to speak during the class. Although students could speak voluntarily during the classes and were free to talk to their peers or the teacher, the reason they didn't do so might be that most of the Japanese students wouldn't start a conversation or speak unless they are called upon. So, probably Katsuo has a desire to be asked by the teacher to answer a question when he says we can improve this class by having more chances to express our opinions. The students in the writing courses, as it will be discussed in detail in the next section, had opportunities to have one-to-one conversations with their teachers. Nevertheless, there were not classroom activates that require students to express their ideas about what they are going to write except for a one-time final presentation.

Naoya (m): "Using computers is a new way of doing class and it has many positive effects. However, using computer will lead to less communication with English speaking teachers and this class is the only chance to speak with English speaking teacher, so we must find a way to use computer more effectively although it is a writing class."

Naoya appreciates using computers to do class activities and understands that it is a writing course. However, he thinks there are not many chances for him to have interactions in English. Therefore, he hopes that the teachers find new ways to apply computers so that students can benefit from verbal communication as well. This can be easily possible through group activities. Students can get engaged in brainstorming ideas or discussing with their peers about what they write. Japanese students are shy and they rarely initiate the interaction. Although the teacher and the researcher of this study announced their availability in answering the students' questions regarding their writing, it seems to be useful to have more guided and controlled communicative activities to help the learners speak English while doing their writing tasks.

Kohei (m): "I think it is useful and effective to use technology in the English classroom, but I prefer more interactions with my teacher. It is because I also want to improve my speaking ability." Maya (f): "I think interactions with my native teachers is enough but I prefer more interactions with my teacher who is Japanese in English. I think we need more speaking practice. And we should start it since we start learning English."

Rikiya (m): "I prefer interactions with teacher, because I can learn true use of English grammars. I enjoyed this class! Thank you!"

Kishino (m): "I prefer more interactions with my teacher because it isn't worth coming to classes if no interactions with our teacher."

Kohei, Maya, Rikiya, and Kishino, as well, expressed a desire to have more interactions with their teacher. Kishino feels that this class won't be worth his investment in learning if there is no interaction. In general, interaction is an important aspect of every classroom even if the purpose is learning writing or other skills. Without interactions, students lose motivation and become more passive or silent. Wataru (m): "I think my teacher's way is enough now and I'm satisfied with it. If we can learn more practical English, it will be better."

Another point regarding class improvement was mentioned by Wataru. He thinks that he needs to learn more practical English. From the researcher's observing standpoint, the topics covered by the course concerned important social issues of the day and the students had chances to write or speak about their favorite topics as well. However, students might have various purposes to learn English. Perhaps it would be better to incorporate more varied activities and topics into the curriculum and get feedback from the students to provide a course which is more motivating and useful to a wide range of learners. Nonetheless, this would be a difficult task on behalf of a university teacher who teaches several large classes per day.

# 2. Attitudes toward the English class and technology-assisted learning

There has been much debate over the use of computer-assisted language learning (CALL) in the ESL/EFL classroom over the past decade. A major goal of ESL/EFL writing pedagogy is to engage students in interactive and social, rather than individual, processes of planning, drafting, and revising texts of different genres that will serve authentic communicative purposes. In addition to developing important writing and other skills in English and learning to work collaboratively on projects, using the Internet for ESL/EFL instruction also advances students' digital literacy. When writing about topics that are relevant to their needs and interests, students are apt to respond enthusiastically and work collaboratively to craft written work in the types of genres that will benefit them in their academic pursuits and subsequent careers. In this study, most of the participants expressed their satisfaction with the English classes and use of technology. As for the speaking classes, the technology use was limited to occasionally watching videos on the topic. However, the main focus of this section is CALL courses as they were the main resources of data collection in this study regarding technology-assisted language learning.

All in all, the participants were happy with the use of computers and the Internet in their writing while some preferred improvement in terms of interactions with their teachers. According to the participants, computers provided several benefits including easy submission of homework, the possibility of seeing the other student's essay and the teacher's feedback on it, a chance to use the Word software and internet to write more essays during the class, a better access to information through the Internet, and an access to various tools of learning such as videos, songs, and other online materials. Nevertheless, there were some negative aspects of technology as cited by the students including having fewer chances to interact with the teacher and practice speaking as Takuya, Haruka and Kohei mentioned:

Takuya (m): "It is good to use technology in the English classroom, because I can hand in the homework easily. I prefer more interactions with my teacher."

Haruka (f): "Using technology in the English classroom is very useful. I prefer more interaction with my teacher, because I want to talk with my teacher in English. I think CALL English writing class is very good."

Kohei (m): "I think it is useful and effective to use technology in the English classroom, but I prefer more interactions with my teacher. It is because I also want to improve my speaking ability. CALL system improved my English."

Meanwhile, there were few participants who preferred fewer interactions or were happy with the number of interactions they had in their classes:

Naoya (m): "I think it is a good idea to use technology in English classroom. I could see what others wrote in their homework and it was very helpful. I prefer less interactions with my teacher because when I speak English, I don't have the confidence to tell my thoughts and feelings. I think it improved my English skill because I had homework every week and I had to write my essay in English. Using computers is a new way of doing class and it has many positive effects. However, using computer will lead to less communication with English speaking teachers and this class is the only chance to speak with English speaking teacher, so we must find a way to use computer more effectively although it is a writing class."

As it can be seen in Naoya's comment, he is sort of dubious on whether he wants more or fewer interactions. It seems that he thinks that logically he needs more chances to speak while he doesn't feel confident about it.

Rina (f): "Technology helped me read other students' essays and know how they should be corrected. I prefer more interactions with my teacher because it will lead to more accurate correction, which interprets my thoughts properly. I like CALL English writing class because it gave me a lot of chances to write essays and reviews in English. Sometimes I felt the topics were too difficult, but that may be why I improved."

Rina is happy with technology use as it enabled her to access other students' essays as well. However, she prefers more interactions with her teacher to get more feedback. Also, she finds some topics difficult. But at the end, she is positive about her learning experience in this course. And finally, other participants also expressed their thoughts on the CALL class and use of technology. It is interesting that they deeply reflected on their learning, the benefits and disadvantages of technology and their interactions during the course. This reveals that these students are invested in English learning, possess autonomy and apply metacognitive strategies to their learning:

Kaito (m): "Using technology is good, because it is difficult to get real English document in Japan. The Internet makes us getting the documents easier. It is good class. I want to use the information I've gotten for me."

Atsushi (m): "I think using technology in the English classroom can make smoother and interaction with teachers is good because we can learn more. I got many techniques in writing and I think it is good." Isao (m): "we can study English smooth through computer and internet technology. Moreover, I was able to communicate with my teacher in this class. CALL English writing class is good for study with computers. But I hope writing or other English classes don't use CALL classroom because of many restrictions: we can't drink water nor eat anything even if we don't have class."

Umeko (f): "I think using technology in English class is good. By using portable tablet, more and more people will get occasion to study English. I think it was hard to express and transcribe in English, but it

was worth to improve my writing skill not only in English, but also in Japanese. I think processes of thinking and searching English words or expressions was best."

Saori (f): "I think it is useful and should continue to use technology in class because in Internet and computer, you can use more English videos which is easy to study for generations who spend much time watching TV or video games. Interactions with teachers is enjoyable but now I have few chance to do that because to talk to teachers needs little courage. I like almost my English class now. However,

I think it is needed to listening to native English."

In sum, the participants had positive thoughts on the benefits of using computers to access more resources while learning. Based on their reflection, the course appears to be very successful in utilizing technology, various online materials, and diverse topics and teaching methods such as effective feedback through process writing and providing access to peers' essays. It is noteworthy though that including more interactional activities which are still aimed at writing practices can boost these classes and bring more satisfaction with the course. The benefits and disadvantages of CALL and ways to improve the motivation and identity development of the learners will be discussed in the next section in detail.

#### 4.4. The Ethnography

In addition to the questionnaires, ethnography method was applied to achieve comprehensive results and enrich the data. In the process of interpreting the field notes based on observation and also informal comments of teachers and students, the grounded approach was used. The data were collected without using a theoretical template and the analysis was data-driven. Although the participants were from various English courses at the university understudy, two of the courses were selected based on the characteristics of the course. First, the English speaking classes were selected due to a large number of students and the interactive nature of the course. However, although the teacher put the survey's link on the class homepage, only 10 participants submitted the surveys.

Thus, in order to collect more responses and widen the range of data, CALL writing classes were selected as the teacher agreed to allow more observation sessions spanning the whole course and also included the survey in the lesson schedule to be conducted in the last session. It should be noted though that as it was the last session, the students' attendance and participation was not mandatory. However, sixty students attended and responded to the questions, which was an indication of their interest in contributing to this research.

During the occasional visits to the speaking courses over 4 weeks and regular weekly attendance in CALL classes over 2 consequent semesters, field notes were taken and informal conversations were made with the teachers and some participants as the opportunity came up. The ethnography included a content analysis of the course online schedules, material, and observation of classroom interactions. The analysis of field notes and ethnography data addressed several variables related to factors affecting motivation and identity development of the learners such as the topics, language use, interactions, student participation, and teaching methods. However, the approach was mostly inductive as the final interpretation of data was

conducted based on the issues that raised and factors that seemed important during the observation.

The aim was not to compare these courses; rather it was to provide more diverse participants from different fields of study who were also exposed to different English teaching methods. The researcher was able to have a general glimpse of the participants' behavior, attitude toward English language learning, motivation, participation and investment in their classes and the teaching methods and interactional patterns of the courses. All in all, the purpose was to have a better understanding of the learning atmosphere to be abler to analyze students' responses with a better understanding and knowledge of the actual learning and teaching environments in Japan. It also provided more motivation in the students to participate and cooperate with the researcher.

# 4.4.1. Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL)/Academic English Writing1. The course characteristics

Students are provided with a small textbook containing some articles on different topics. After reading the articles, they write their own commentaries with reference to similar topics and issues raised around the topic of the articles. One of the articles is about terrorism and Islamophobia. The article contains some important and harsh realities of the today's world which might be associated with some negative feelings raised in the reader, however as the participants are graduates in the field of humanities, the topic is not irrelevant to their studies. The reflection and writing process help the students improve their critical thinking and analytical skills. Reflecting on such topics can result in transformative learning as well. The students in this class seem motivated and focused on their work.

The course is not very formal and structured and students are free to work on their assignments while the teacher holds personal tutorials. I think working with computers helps students save time as they can always do something on their computers and also they see whatever happens with their writings' edition and feedback on the screen. It also removes the anxiety and shyness barriers in Japanese learners. Much of the schedule and data is available on the class webpage which is more useful than giving handouts or oral instructions. The focus is more on the output rather than the input.

The teacher begins with an introduction to the course and the session's schedule. Each student can see what the teacher is writing on shared screens.

The schedule is as the following:

- Follow-up about the compositions that were checked after last week's class: the teacher provides positive and corrective feedback on the highlighted errors and corrections of previous compositions very gently and in details. She provides instructions on grammar and use of APA style for referencing. The students are able to follow all through the process of writing and working with word on their screens, which is very useful. The compositions are about the son of a terrorist, which is a very good topic to improve the L2 learners' analytical and critical thinking skills and motivate them to express themselves and comment on important political issues at the same time.
- Explaining the homework in advance: the teacher explains the next writing project, which is about a review on the "Star Trek" movie from New York Times. She describes the rationale for choosing the topic and asks the students to focus on writing techniques and vocabulary as the author is a reknown writer. She asks them to read it carefully and look for images, symbols, and metaphors. Then, she shows the movie trailer for a better impression of the movie.
- One-to-one tutorials: while other students work on their assignment, the teacher provides a long and detailed feedback on each student's writing.
- Follow-up about one-to-one tutorials: The teacher shares good points coming up in the tutorials with all the students.

The teacher clearly explains what she is going to do in class today. The weekly schedule is shown on a shared screen. The students are all connected to the university website and use a class webpage to see the weekly schedule and assignments. The teacher starts by giving a short introduction and then she provides feedback on previous assignments. She points out some common mistakes in the writing samples as they are shown on the screen. Each writing is corrected precisely and the teacher elaborates on some corrections as she scrolls down the page.

#### 2. Classroom interactions

Despite several positive aspects of the observed course, observations were made about the points to be improved as this study aims to boost English learning motivation in Japanese students. One observation as it can be seen in the researcher's commentary was the students' silence, passivity or even sleeping during the class. The first impression I had as a researcher was that Japanese students are not motivated or interested in speaking or interacting in English. However, their responses to the surveys proved me wrong as it appeared that these participants have enough knowledge of English to speak and are motivated toward learning. Therefore, a question to be answered is while the surveys' responses show a high motivation toward English learning and an interest and investment in English classes, why is it that in a lot of classes under study, the students were silent, passive, and even sleeping during the class, which gave me an impression of demotivation?

As it was discussed earlier, the reasons behind the students' silence and assumed demotivation can be cultural and psychological factors such as conformity, the value of silence, a desire not to stand out among peers, shyness and lack of linguistic-self confidence among Japanese EFL learners. It is argued that Japanese students are passive and despite the teachers' effort to make them speak, there is a prevalent silence in Japanese classrooms. In a typical classroom, some students will be more inactive and quieter than others. They may be labeled as "shy", although some degree of shyness is considered normal (Parent Education Network,

2010). Japanese students are known to be shy when it comes to verbal interaction and communication practices. Moreover, as it was discussed earlier as the central argument of this research, we need to reaffirm that in a country such as Japan, which values conformity and group feelings over individual expression, trying to inspire some kind of rigorous challenge or competitive interaction can sometimes prove frustrating. Japanese students tend to value consensus rather than confrontation, resulting in activities such as discussions that require active involvement, appearing somewhat passive and orderly (Burrows, 2008, p.29-30). This can be even harder for a writing class where there are less or no interactive activities. It would be unexpected to see some students start any kind of interaction on their own. It might be a reason for getting an impression of demotivation in these courses.

While there are several contextual factors affecting students' performance, there are classroom factors that can affect learning and be demotivating for learners of a particular context. Hence, in this sections, I am going to discuss the classroom factors that affect students' identity, motivation and active participation in English classes. To this aim, several excerpts from the ethnography notes and researcher's commentaries will be provided and discussed. Researcher's notes; Excerpt 1(2016, 12, 19):

"A new assignment for today is reading a critical review of the "Star Trek" movie and writing 5 sentences about that. The movie trailer is shown on the shared screen and the teacher explains the reason for choosing this material. The key vocabulary is also provided to the students. While the students are working on their assignments, the teacher holds one to one tutorials with different students to provide more support in line with students' different learning needs.

Although the students are supposed to work on their writing and they have the chance to work together, practice their English, and ask questions from the teacher, they don't seem very active and motivated, some are playing with their mobiles. Three students are sleeping. Others are speaking in Japanese. It might be due to their varied goals of attending this course or the fact that they are not simply motivated to invest more than it's needed to fulfill the requirements for the course. However, the nature of this course doesn't necessitate interactions as it's a writing course,

an opportunity for these students to receive feedback on their pieces of writing. As a student and researcher, this sounds like a new method to me. Students are all sitting at their computers and the class has an informal form. It seems that the class is semi-structured and students are free to do their own work. I think it's a good chance to have some stress-free English time to enhance academic skills while the students have a great chance to talk to the teacher in private and learn more systematically. After 40 minutes, the tutorial stops and the teacher shows the students' writings on the shared screen while explaining the writing samples analytically. She gives positive feedback while some corrective feedback is also provided. Students have the chance to see each other's writings and the corrections at the same time. Now the teacher shows some examples of students' referencing in APA style and explains on that. The students can all see what the teacher is doing on the shared computer screen. She explains again about the schedule and what they are going to do from now."

Although the students' responses to the survey and open-ended questions show an overall satisfaction and improvement in their writing, there are several references to a need for more interactions and speaking practices in their comments. A look at the excerpt from one of the CALL sessions gives us a general view of the interactional patterns in these classes. Like most of the Japanese university classes, the class is mostly teacher-centered and things happen in a controlled and predictive manner. The routine generally includes an introduction of the daily schedule by the teacher and then getting the students to work on their computers or having them watch the shared screens while she scrolls down a Word file containing all the essays and gives feedback on them. The same routine is preserved all over the course and in the two consequent semesters during the observation. This style of teaching seems to be suitable for Japanese students as they prefer consistency and might feel insecure if the method or activities change. I always feel that the class provides a very safe environment to avoid any challenges in learning.

However, on the last day of each course, the students were required to put their writings together and give a final PowerPoint presentation. Also, in order to change the mood,

sometimes, the teacher played a song in the break time and accompanied it with a video or the lyrics to inspire the students and avoid boredom. She did all her best to bring liveliness and variety to the class atmosphere. As to the interactions, the students could talk to their peers and discuss what they were doing while they were working on their computers but it was informal and done in Japanese. There was no meaningful speaking activity or interactions among the teacher and students. The students were not asked either to comment on the presentations verbally and the teacher always emphasized that this was a writing course.

While research shows that Japanese students tend to be passive or shy in initiating interactions, several students in this study expressed their desires for more interactions. Even those students who were shy or lacked the confidence to talk seemed to have a dubious tendency toward speaking English, that is, they hope to be encouraged or guided toward some sort of speaking activities or interactions.

Excerpt from students' comments:

Chiaki (f): "I prefer less interactions because it is less stressed. I like CALL English class, but once I sit down to my seat, I can't see the teacher's face."

Chiaki prefers fewer interactions but at the same time, she doesn't like the setting of CALL class as she cannot see the teacher's face hidden behind the computers. This means that she prefers to have some sort of interaction such as eye contact or possibility of a conversation with her teacher even if she is not the initiator.

Rina (f): "I feel comfortable to speak English when I talk with my Japanese friends who are not so good at English... I prefer more interactions with my teacher because it will lead to more accurate correction, which interprets my thoughts properly."

Rina feels anxious to speak English to people except Japanese whose English is poor, yet she prefers to have more interactions in class as she knows it will help to improve her English. Naoya (m): ". I think it is a good idea to use technology in English classroom. I could see what others wrote in their homework and it was very helpful. I prefer less interactions with my teacher because when I speak English, I don't have the confidence to tell my thoughts and feelings. I think it improved my English skill because I had homework every week and I had to write my essay in English. Using computers is a new way of doing class and it has many positive effects. However, using computer will lead to less communication with English speaking teachers and this class is the only chance to speak with English speaking teacher, so we must find a way to use computer more effectively although it is a writing class."

Finally, Naoya prefers fewer interactions due to his lack of confidence but still thinks that using computers will lead to fewer interactions with his teacher and he loses this unique chance to practice conversation. As Naoya said, the English class is the only place where he can practice English speaking since in an English-as-a-foreign-language (EFL) context, in particular, the opportunities to practice verbal communication outside the classroom are often significantly limited (Paul, 2003: 76). He admits that it is a writing class as the teacher reminded the students several times as well, however, he recommends that we use computers more effectively to provide more interactional opportunities. Here, the practice of a wider range of skills within the classroom can become the paramount activity for EFL students (Thornbury, 1996).

Second language writing researchers have demonstrated that the integration of dialogue into ESL writing classrooms can have positive effects on certain aspects of composition instruction, namely in the planning and revision stages. Weissberg (2006) has specifically called for the increased integration of dialogue in the L2 writing classroom. Despite the fact that the English as a second language (ESL) writing classroom has traditionally been a place of individual work overseen by an "expert" writing instructor, Weissberg (2006) claims that writing is a "fundamentally social phenomenon" best acquired by L2 learners when it is firmly embedded in a classroom environment of social interaction. Reichelt (1999) has suggested that FL learners lack truly extrinsic motivation when it comes engaging in FL composing. However, researchers are still not sure if spoken interaction in the L2 writing classroom is relevant to L2 written products and processes. It is difficult to decide whether there should be more speaking practices or interactions in a university writing course which is very limited in terms of time and syllabus. There are speaking courses in this university and students are able to take those courses. According to the teacher, the syllabus and aims of the course are announced to the students prior to enrollment. Yet, several students mentioned that it's a unique chance for them to take this course and they wish more interactions with their teacher. Some also mentioned that using computers is a barrier to interact with the teacher. These factors may lead to lack of motivation and investment in learners.

Moreover, although university EFL course's writing assignments may provide a certain measure of extrinsic motivation, these same assignments are frequently given when there is no clear audience or purpose for writing outside the EFL classroom (Reichelt, 1999, p. 195). Providing EFL learners with an immediate audience in the form of a peer with whom they work directly to plan and compose their written drafts may help to provide a more *immediate* purpose for EFL writing other than a nebulous, uncertain need "far" in the future. In-class peer collaboration on writing projects may indeed help EFL writers to develop a sense of audience, the immediacy of this need may help to fill this important gap in FL writing, that of lack of clear purpose for EFL writing (Hubert, 2011).

Furthermore, collaborative and group activities provide more opportunities for speaking and interaction while students are working on their computers. In our understudied classes as the class is small and the number of students wouldn't exceed 15, it is possible for the teacher and the TA to go around and make sure that the students are not skipping the activities or speaking in Japanese. They can share their ideas and what they write with their partner and the whole class to enable some speaking activities and add variation to the class routine. Although during these classes, the students had a chance to talk to their teacher during the personal tutorials and were asked to give clarifications occasionally on what they wrote, there is still much room for improvement.

Nonetheless, it should be noted that it will be a demanding task on behalf of a university teacher to devise activities suitable for various ranges of learners in Japanese universities. A teacher usually has to deal with several classes during the week and in some, there are too many students to make it possible for teachers to monitor the activates and language use. In Japanese universities, teachers have been trying to design lesson plans which use well-structured activities that engage a vast majority of students. Still, some students are almost always quiet and reluctant to participate in any speaking activities, although evidence from various assessments suggests that they are capable of doing so (Shulman, 2013).

# 3. Teacher talk time

Active use of the target language by students is considered to be an integral part of the language acquisition process (Nunan, 1999: 241). An effective learner-centered L2 classroom, therefore, should provide an environment in which students can contribute to learning activities and maximize their use of the language (Van Lier, 2001). Teacher talk time (TTT) within the EFL classroom has been critically evaluated in the process of endeavoring to increase students' L2 practice time (Willis, 1990: 57; Paul, 2003: 137). According to Nunan (1991), teacher talk refers to the language used by a teacher in organizing the class and language teaching. It is an essential tool for teachers in the implementation of the teaching plan and an important source of input for students.

Teachers play a supporting role in classroom teaching by continuously engaging in organizing, explaining, summarizing, reformulating, and redirecting what has been said both by themselves and by students (Blanchette, 2009). Much research on TTT has focused on its quantity (amount) and/or quality (effectiveness). These studies have provided new insights into the ways EFL teachers teach in the classroom. Blanchette (2009) admits that in traditional,

teacher-centered classes, teachers are liable to dominate the interaction at different education levels. In traditional classrooms, the teacher usually takes initiative in talking and controls the talking time, which can be seen as a symbol of power control over class and students. While communicative classes resemble more to the unstructured natural conversation outside the classroom and students take more initiative in turn-taking, in requesting for clarification and others.

However, it is not the case in some English classrooms. Even in universities, some teachers still seem to control and direct the classroom as before. It's been argued that in many university classes, due to the passivity of students, teachers take the responsibility and most of the class is allotted to the teacher's talk. As reported by Kramer and Korn (1996), it has been established that during class discussions teachers dominate the discussion; they talk up to 86% of the time, even if this monopoly of talk-time is not intentional. Concerning students, maybe they are deficient in English language or they are not clear about the teacher's questions or they are just reluctant to ask or answer questions even though they understand what the teacher is talking about; that is to say, some students still resist adopting L2 speaker identities which assume a more active role in classroom interaction due to their personal habit, personality, lack of knowledge, lack of confidence and others.

In order for the class teaching to go smoothly, the teacher still has to take the role in organizing activities, in asking questions, in eliciting participation and anticipating questions, which goes in line with Wells 1993(cited in Blanchette, 2009). As far as the teacher is concerned, maybe she lacks teaching experience in how to motivate students or she is not accustomed to classroom silence. However, it may also reflect the status quo in some college English classrooms where teachers and students are still distanced.

#### Researcher's notes; Excerpt 2: (Monday, 12,12, 2016)

"In call writing courses, there is little eye contact and interaction with the teacher which I think can be fixed through more interaction although in one to one tutorials there is more interaction. The students' writings are so creative and critical. The review and feedback on writings is monotonous and uninterrupted. I think we need to change the mood, have a break or apply different tools and methods of teaching, students seem sleepy and there is also code switching. The teacher uses English in parallel with Japanese. The class is mostly teacher centered and students are so quiet and passive.

A session before the midterm we don't have much time to talk, the teacher explains and gives feedback on students' writing for 1.15 hour in a row which is very helpful but it would be better if there is some interruption or change of mood."

(Monday, 19,12, 2016)

"Again we have the introduction of the second half of the second semester and now after midterm we have the introduction of how to write a portfolio, she explains. I think the teacher talk time is a bit long. There is not student talk time. It is obvious that the students are free to talk but they don't for some reason.

Positive point: while showing her portfolio on the screen and teaching the students step by step how to make their own, the teacher mentions the story of her meeting with some famous celebrities and political figures and emphasizes that she is shy and not into bragging about herself. She just hopes to motivate students to learn English and participate in voluntary activities."

As it can be interpreted from this excerpt, the teacher talk time is relatively long (50%) or uninterrupted by students' interaction and participation which is a common characteristic of classes in Japan. Students would never interrupt the teacher to ask questions. The teacher didn't try to provoke them to speak much either. My impression as a researcher was that the teacher tried her best to be very kind and caring of the students' learning confidence and avoid placing them in face threatening situations. She was aware of Japanese learners' learning styles and their psychological traits such as shyness and anxiety.

Nevertheless, the negative effects of teachers talking for an excessive amount of time have been observed in a number of studies. Allwright (1982: 10) claimed that teachers who 'work' too much in the classroom were not teaching effectively. He commented that a good language teacher should be able to 'get students to do more work' in the classroom. Ross (1992:

192-93 cited in Nunan, 1999: 209) also indicated that constant teacher talk during the lessons did not significantly improve students' listening comprehension and communication skills. TTT should be allocated to relevant interactions between the teachers and students. At the same time, teacher's utterances need to be explicit and level appropriate for the students in the classroom. Only by doing this, can listening to the teacher's authentic L2 potentially become a significant impetus to L2 acquisition (Allwright, 1982: 8; Paul, 2003: 71).

## 4.4.2. Integrated English Speaking Classes

# 1. The course characteristics

The English speaking classes meet once a week. There are about 40 students in each class. The course begins with a 20-minute introduction of the topic which is based on the course book (Impact Issues). The teacher explains the topic and shows a related video on a big screen in front of the classroom. During his lecture, he encourages students to talk and occasionally asks a question. However, the students are mostly inactive and remain silent unless they are called upon. Later, students are divided into several groups to discuss the topic. They have the learning material provided by the teacher on the course webpage. They discuss questions which they have answered before individually with their classmates. The teacher walks around the room to monitor their activities and sign their activity forms as a sort of feedback on their participation. The final exam is held in small groups and consists of oral question and answer together with a short presentation.

#### 2. Classroom Interactions

The major goal in the speaking courses is developing the learners' communicative competence. Communicative competence is defined as "that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within a specific context" (Brown, 2000, p.246). Communication, by nature, is interactive, which involves addresser and addressee in a reciprocal interaction. In the EFL class, students are

expected to master the skill to communicate using the target language through interaction with the teacher and among the students themselves. However, a challenge for the teachers is to engage the students in active participation, as quite a lot of students remain silent and are reluctant to initiate interactions or react to teacher's prompts. It is important, hence, for the teachers to be aware of the psychological or cultural barriers inherent in a given EFL context to overcome silence and boost interactions in their classes.

As it was aforementioned, the EFL class is sometimes the only place where a student can practice English and participate in meaningful interactions. In order to understand the factors affecting students' motivation to participate in such interactions, it's necessary to unveil some of the interactional patterns in the speaking courses. In this section, I will focus on some patterns that appeared in the course to unveil the sociocultural aspect of Japanese EFL classes as well as discussing the variables that affect students' motivation and identity development.

Excerpt 1:

#### Date: 10/11/2016

"The teacher started the class in a very lively and informal manner and lightened up the class with funny jokes to build rapport with the learners. The interaction in some groups were really good and especially after I joined, they only spoke English. They asked me questions about my country and what I do. I believe that the presence of a foreign student could really help them to overcome the desire to switch to Japanese and be motivated to use English. The teacher used interactive techniques a lot and kept the class lively. However, students talked only when they were asked directly and didn't react to the emotional prompts and jokes of the teacher except smiling occasionally.

Although their level of English was good in General, they used Japanese while discussing in groups and after they came to an agreement, reported the results in English. One person who seemed to be the best English speaker or the most confident, took the responsibility for reporting. Despite the teacher's great effort to make the class interactive and fun, students showed little reaction to his jokes, and didn't talk unless being asked to ... In some groups, the presence of the researcher facilitated the communication as students were shy to speak English unless the

researcher asked them directly. They often emphasized that their English is not good and they switched back to Japanese a lot. There were students who seemed so confident and spoke very good English but still switched to Japanese to help their partners to understand (It seems that group conformity in Japanese classes is so strong that even the proficient speakers are wary and considerate of their shier partners. This makes it hard to have meaningful communication and conversation in English). Group discussion consisted of short answers to the questions rather than commenting on partners` viewpoint or challenging them."

"Teacher Feedback: The feedback is always positive. The teacher is often making jokes, uses a lot of body language, acts out the stories he talks about, smiles and speaks in a very friendly manner, and he doesn't criticize the students for being very late or not being active. The corrective feedback is so scarce and delivered in a positive way. According to the teacher, the method is totally adapted to the level of students' English proficiency and learning needs.

There is no stress or pressure felt on the side of students as they work in groups and help each other out mostly in Japanese. The class's atmosphere is also very friendly."

It can be implied from this excerpt that the students in the speaking classes seemed to be motivated and engaged in the activities, however, they wouldn't initiate a conversation or answer teacher's questions unless they were directly addressed. Moreover, although the teacher was trying hard to keep the class lively with jokes and fun topics, the students didn't seem to react much to his efforts. It seems to be another characteristic of the Japanese classroom. The student's identity position is usually that of a passive communicator who respects group conformity and avoids any efforts which, make him look superior to other members of the group.

However, students seem to be active when they are participating in group discussions. Small groups help them remove their anxiety barriers or shyness to speak. As opposed to the writing classes, in these courses, the teacher never used Japanese even to give instructions. However, in small group activities, the students often switched to Japanese and spoke English when reporting to the teacher. My personal observation of these classes and the courses I've thought in Japan thought me that generally, Japanese students find it hard to speak English to their Japanese peers while doing pair work no matter how well they can speak English. This can be an example of identity resistance as Japanese have a strong group and collectivist identity that makes it hard for them to take the identity position of a foreign language speaker when they are together. Hence, there should be more emphasis and encouragement on behalf of the teachers for using English during class activities.

There has been much research on the use of L1 in English classes. Some researchers believe that a limited use of Japanese can be motivating for the students. However, informal inquiries of the researcher with some of the participants revealed an opposite view. Some of the participants in this study found it quite demotivating when their classmates spoke Japanese while doing the activities. They felt that it was difficult to learn English perfectly in Japan due to some sociocultural limitations they faced in their English classes. The cultural characteristics of Japanese society such as conformity and a tendency to avoid standing out among the peers make it difficult for motivated learners to display their speaking competence. Furthermore, Japanese students avoid critical discussions on a topic, which is necessary for the development of speaking skills. Their answers are usually short and they don't challenge their speaking partners to further the discussion. This is also another aspect of the culture which signifies the preference of silence and acceptance.

Finally, comparing the atmosphere of the speaking classes to the writing classes, we can spot some differences. Although it might not be a fair comparison as the course objectives are different, based on my subjective impression as a researcher, the students in the speaking classes seemed more motivated and engaged due to the use of group activities and cooperative learning. Moreover, the teacher's constant use of humor and avoidance of Japanese gave a sense of friendliness and foreign atmosphere to the class which was different from typical serious classes in university. Hence, we can conclude that group activities will be a useful tool to remove affective filter in Japanese students and improve their motivation. Meanwhile, it should be noted that the teacher's monitoring of their activity is necessary to encourage the learners to use the L2 with their peers.

#### 3. Topics

One of the key roles of the teachers in the language learning process is observing their students' motivation and attitude. One way of helping our students to overcome their negative attitudes and provide them a reason to learn English is to interact with real language and real speakers of that language, with authentic materials. Authentic materials not only bring learners closer to the target language culture, they also affect their attitude and motivation. Moreover, applying topics to the lesson schedule should be with regard to the students' interest and motivations. Topics which are related to the learners' lives and backgrounds can improve their motivation and engage their identities to participate more in class activities.

Today, as a result of globalization, English is taking the role of lingua franca rather than a language which belongs to certain communities of English speakers. Therefore, the teaching materials and topics should be relevant to a wide range of learners. However, for many L2 learners, due to a special interest and affinity with the target culture or international communities in general, integrating cultural aspects of English communities or global communities can be very motivating. In general, it is important for teachers to recognize which topics the students will open up about, and which topics are best to avoid with regard to social norms and interests of an EFL native context.

#### Excerpt 2:

"The topics are related to important social issues such as size discrimination and happiness which is good for motivating students to connect the learning to their social experiences and improve their critical thinking skills as they need to work at home and in groups to find solutions to social problems. In that case, they seem motivated to express themselves in English and talk about their life experiences and being critical of the society to some extent. However, it appeared that students rejected the presence of discrimination in group while they responded differently when they reported it to the teacher and class. The tendency to collectivism and approval of the society is apparent while when they speak to the teacher they feel the freedom to express themselves as English provides them a chance to be honest...According to some students, English gives them a good opportunity to express themselves and say things which would be harder to say in Japanese. One student hopes to become an English teacher and another wants to talk to foreigners. I talked to one returnee who wanted to go to English countries again and join their communities. The teacher mentions several examples of the American society to integrate cultural aspects to the teaching. Students ask questions about the new president and criticize his discriminative approaches. It seems that the topic and questions motivate students to be critical of the social issues and express their attitudes freely. As for the Japanese social issues, there were references to gender, race, and appearance discriminations, bad eating habits of students and work pressure which affects their happiness. They often referred to European countries where people work less and have more fun. They expressed their desire of being part of their communities. What I heard from the teacher regarding the English community was not very positive as the class took a critical standpoint in the discussion. The teacher's talk or the topic didn't include any elements which represent a positive image of English communities. Rather, there were discussions of black discrimination, gun abuse, overweighting issues of the poor and lack of grocery stores in dangerous areas and etc."

The topics used in both writing and speaking classes were mostly focused on social and global issues which are relevant to the Japanese society and students' identity as global citizens. Moreover, the topics were chosen with regard to a wide range of interests and preferences. The topics helped the students to improve their international awareness and also boost their critical thinking skills as they participated in spoken critical discourse on major issues such as world peace and the US' new president.

However, with regard to the speaking courses, some topics seemed to represent more of negative aspects of the American society rather than positive cultural elements of the country. Some of the students displayed some sort of indifference or lack of interest in topics such as black discrimination, gun abuse, overweighting issues of the poor and lack of grocery stores in dangerous areas. I would like to offer a more positive approach toward the selection of topics for the first year university students. Although the aim is to prepare them as L2 speakers and global citizens who are able to critically speak English over important issues of the time, integrating more positive topics which show brighter sides of the English or foreign language and culture will cultivate a more positive attitude in learners. As it was discussed earlier, the concept of imagined identity and community plays an important role in students' motivation to learn a foreign language. Learners who are able to link their learning to participation in imagined communities with their desired identities will be more invested in learning the language as opposed to those learners who are not interested in joining future communities of practice.

A final point to be noted is that, as it is evident from excerpt 2, the students in these classes have formed imaginations of their desired communities of practice. They assume that people in Western societies work less and have more fun in life. In general, the students in the English speaking class were conversationally motivated and active during the group discussions. The selection of challenging topics and critical discussion activities helped them develop their voice and express their opinions which is the major factor in construction of L2 identity in EFL learners.

As for the writing classes, an observation of the course and students' essays revealed that the L2 learners were able to develop their L2 writer identities, write critically on various topics and share and discuss what they did with their teacher. However, cooperative learning and group discussion activities could be helpful in allowing L2 learners to develop their identities as fluent or confident L2 speakers and become members of the classroom as a community of practice. While the participants attended their classes regularly and submitted their assignments with enthusiasm, lack of verbal interactions and group activities probably resulted in an observed lack of motivation and active presence in the class.

# Chapter 5: Findings and Discussion 5.1. Summary of Findings

The average scores for variables on the Motivation and Attitude Survey revealed high levels of intensity on all the components of the motivational system including Positive attitude toward English language learning, international posture, and integrative/instrumental orientation. This showed that the participants held a high level of motivation and a positive attitude toward English language learning.

However, the degree of English language learning anxiety was relatively high, which is assumed to negatively affect learning motivation. Moreover, 96.6 % of students agreed with the statement 3 (I wish I could speak English fluently) which indicates their desire to learn the language, however, while only 56.9% admitted that English learning is an important goal in their life. Drawing on Norton's (2013) distinction between motivation and investment, I argue that although the EFL learners participated in this study are positive and motivated toward learning, they are not equally invested in language learning. Learners invest in a language because it would help them acquire a wider range of symbolic and material resources, which will in turn increase the value of their cultural capital and social power (Norton, 2013). In other words, while most learners have a desire to learn the language, there are various sociocultural and psychological factors which interfere with their learning motivation and investment. Both the survey and open-ended questionnaire revealed traces of low linguistic self-confidence and language learning anxiety which clearly are the main reasons behind the learners' ambivalent desire to learn.

These psychological barriers are rooted in various sociocultural aspects of the learning context. The thematic analysis of responses highlighted some of the main factors which originate from the linguistic and cultural interferences between the native and target cultural traits. For example, 33 (47%) of the participants expressed a perceived lack of proficiency and

self-confidence. Twenty-five people (35%) mentioned linguistic and cultural differences and inability to express opinions as an obstacle to their learning and L2speaking practices. I argue that the cultural traits of Japanese students may negatively influence the learning practices. In line with previous studies, these traits include perfectionism, cultural conformity, reluctance to stand out among peers, a tendency toward silence, inability of the free expression of ideas, cultural identity resistance and fixed identity positions.

Japanese students in this study tended to position themselves as low proficient English speakers who were shy and lacked opinions. They believed their English proficiency was poor even though for many it seemed to be the opposite. Moreover, egocentrism also was found to be a factor. Japanese have a strong national identity or sense of nationalism. This cultural trait can be interfering with developing a new L2 identity which requires adopting new worldviews and cultural traits of the target language or English as a lingua franca. Less frequent themes also indicated sources of stress such as teacher interaction, past negative experiences and lack of opportunity to speak English. Past negative experiences were identified as learning English to pass exams, lack of meaningful communication in previous English classes, negative feedback from a teacher, peer pressure, failure to speak English properly and inability to communicate in English.

Twelve (17%) participants clearly mentioned a lack of desire to learn English. Other variables which negatively influenced their motivation were classroom related factors. In the case of CALL courses, lack of speaking opportunities due the nature of class activities was mentioned as an aspect of the teaching methods which could be improved. The class could be categorized as mostly teacher-centered as there were no organized group activities to encourage the students to interact with their peers in English. Students were mostly working on their computers and were not required to talk in class unless they volunteered. Although they had a chance to speak to their teachers in personal tutorials, some students expressed a desire to

practice more speaking during the class. However, it seems that with minor modifications such as including some group and class discussions, it would be possible to make the class livelier and more interactive. Despite the prevailing assumption that Japanese students are passive and don't like to speak English in class, the results show that the learners are really interested in doing more speaking activities. Their perceived reluctance could be related to their anxiety rather than a lack of motivation.

As for the speaking course, a demotivating factor for more invested learners was that their peers tended to switch to their mother tongue rather than committing to speaking English during the group activities. This tendency was also observed during the class ethnography. Although the teacher made efforts to encourage the students to speak in class, they mostly did it in group activities and in Japanese rather than in whole class discussions. This may justify the fact that the CALL teacher avoided such activities and focused more on their writing improvement as writing provides a safer zone for learners to express themselves. In general, the demotivating factors observed in the classes were, lack of interaction in the CALL courses, long teacher talk in both CALL and speaking courses, switching to Japanese by the students, and use of topics in the speaking classes which sometimes focused on less motivating content representing negative aspects of the target cultures.

Nevertheless, there were far more positive aspects of teaching revealed from the course observation such as the effective use of technology in CALL classes and enhancement of the students' writing reported by both the teacher and students. The students' essays were received and observed by the researcher regularly as well. They showed the students' persistence and hard work throughout the course. Undoubtedly, there was an impressive progress in their learning and writing skills. Fifty-five percent of the students clearly stated their interest in the CALL courses and technology-assisted learning while about 48% expressed a desire for inclusion of speaking activities despite admitting to their progress and satisfaction with the

course. The topics covered in the course included both international issues and motivating aspects associated with the English language, people and cultures. Students were free to explore their favorite topics and develop their English writing identity by connecting it to their interests and life experiences.

Regarding the nature of L2 motivation (see table 4.7), several themes were identified the most frequent of which were Speaking to foreigners/intercultural communication (84%), Access to information knowledge and foreign ideas (48%), Academic purposes and study abroad (45%), Joining new communities (32%), Expressing and conveying one's ideas in English(28%), Using English for work and business(31%), Accessing more social value, power and a better life (20%), and Mastering English as an ideal self(20%). These themes show what reasons existed behind the EFL learners' motivations to learn English.

If we consider integrative motivation in its strong sense as a desire to integrate into the community of native speakers and an interest in the target culture, then the results of the study would appear contradictory. The survey responses showed a high interest (82.75%) toward the native English people and culture (Table 4.6, Q21) while this was not mentioned in the learners' detailed responses. Rather, the most frequent theme depicted a general interest in foreigners and international communication (84%). It can be concluded that although Japanese students have a positive attitude toward the target culture and people, their motivation cannot be labeled as integrative in its strong sense. On the opposite, it will be more proper to regard it as a high international posture or a tendency toward foreigners and international communication. Indeed, 91.55% of students agreed with the statement (15) confirming their interest in communicating with foreigners (table 4.5). Similarly, the learners had a high instrumental motivation toward academic and career goals and an interest in traveling overseas.

Another aim of the study was to see if the EFL learners had developed new identities through language learning and whether they aspired to be members of future imagined communities of practice. Thirty-five percent of the participants overtly expressed a perceived change in their identity and broadening of their perspectives. Becoming more expressive and straightforward, and improvement of critical thinking and self-confidence were reported as perceived changes. Therefore, English provided them with new identity positions as more confident, expressive and logical individuals who possessed wider perspectives and identity horizons. These new identities can be best described in Dörnyei's words as the EFL learners' ideal selves or imagined identities which the learners desire to achieve through learning the foreign language. Moreover, their aspiration to be members of imagined communities was another major motivation to learn a language. In this study, these communities mostly consisted of foreigners and also professional communities related to their academic and career objectives.

However, 27% of participants stated that they did not perceive any changes in their identities or personalities after learning English. Moreover, only 11% declared a desire to join native English communities. This shows that for Japanese students who participated in this study, identifying with native English speaker culture and English speaking people is not a major motivation to learn English and they don't wish to develop an identity which is close to that of native English speakers. Their ideal self can be defined better as a proficient L2 speaker with foreign friends.

#### 5.2. Limitations of the Study

The present study utilized a qualitative research method which aimed at conducting an in-depth analysis as opposed to common quantitative research methods in the field of applied linguistics and motivation studies which tend to make generalizations based on a big population. Therefore, a small population was proffered to enable more in-depth analysis. However, as the surveys were conducted online, it was feasible to include more informants to widen the scope of information. Hence, the generalizations in this study are only limited to the research participants and might not apply to Japanese students in private universities or other levels of education.

Another limitation was including as many questions as possible to be answered within a limited amount of time (preferably 30 minutes). Therefore, the five-point Likert scale was modified to 3 to simplify the procedure of answering the questions. The survey was not aimed at quantifying the data to make generalizations, but in order to gain a quick overview of the students' tendencies, limited descriptive statistics were presented. In sum, this study makes an attempt to provide us with new ideas and perspectives with regard to this specific research population and teaching methods applied in this learning community.

For Japanese students who are less expressive when it comes to speaking skills, writing is a good tool to extract their responses in English. Thus, one strength of the study which also makes it unique is collecting the narrative responses through an online survey that enables easy writing in English. As the study focuses on L2 identity, it is important to see how EFL learners express and manifest their L2 identities in English. Moreover, the questionnaire provided us with an opportunity to access wider perspectives compared to the interview method which is more difficult to conduct with a large number of participants. In the end, the study succeeded to extract detailed and in-depth information on how various Japanese learners conceptualize their learning, attitudes, motivation, self, and identities in the process of mastery of the English language. Writing their opinions, provided them with an opportunity to overcome their anxiety and shyness and respond honestly on how they learn and what hinders their motivation in doing so.

# 5.3. Pedagogical Suggestions

According to the research findings, there is a need for adding more interactive activities into the English lessons and encouraging the students to be less dependent on their mother tongue and attempt to use English. Japanese students seem to be negatively affected by affective and sociocultural factors such as anxiety, lack of linguistic self-confidence, perfectionist approaches to learning, identity conflicts, past negative learning experiences, peer pressure, lack of affinity with the target culture intrinsic goals, which influence their motivation to speak English.

Hence, teaching methods should be adjusted to help learners overcome their learning barriers and feel more confident and comfortable to be active in class. The atmosphere of the classroom must be more informal and fun to provide a simulation of an imagined community of international communities. As the classroom is possibly the only community and space to use English for such learners, students should feel safe and free to express and develop their identities and feel freer to talk. Group activities should be designed in a way that enables monitoring EFL learners' language choice as the use of the first language to an extra level can be a demotivating factor for more proficient and motivated students. The learners should be aware of the cultural and communicative differences between the native and target cultures. This cultural awareness would help them overcome their negative learning habits and barriers formed by the communication styles of their native culture.

Having this in mind, teachers will be abler to help students understand that expressing opinions, standing out among peers, and even making mistakes are crucial steps toward learning English. Learners should recognize the identities of shy passive learners, which they have been positioned to and attempt to adopt new identities to facilitate their learning. Although English is a means of communication in today's globalized world and it is not the language that only belongs to certain English countries, forming an imaginary connection and desire to join imagined communities of practice of English speakers will improve learners' motivation.

After all, language is a representation of the culture of people who speak it, therefore, it is inevitable to approach learning English merely as a lingua franca and tools for communication. Thus, introducing the positive aspects and characteristics of the culture of English speaking countries, which is embedded in poetry, literature, music, art, and customs of the people who speak it, may inspire learners to develop an affinity with the English speaking communities. This affinity or in other words, integrative motivation can be the most effective motive to learn English. In order to learn a new language, learners need to develop new identities which are associated with the communication styles and culture of the foreign language. The conflicts between the target and native languages, both on linguistic and cultural levels, might lead to anxiety and identity conflict in learners as was observed in this study.

To resolve these problems, teachers should inform learners of the range of identity repertoires which are available to them. Through role-playing, choosing foreign nicknames and adopting imaginary identities, L2 learners would feel more comfortable to imitate the English accent in a fun way and try to speak like native speakers. This will help them to develop multiple identities through which they have a chance to express their ideas without being concerned about their native cultural barriers.

Very few studies have been conducted in Japan on the relationship between EFL learners' identity and motivation combining qualitative methods of data collection and analysis. It will be a great contribution to the field of education and foreign language learning if future studies focus on students from various ages enrolling different programs and universities and contextualize the study within a wider community of practice. With more time and research resources, it will be beneficial to incorporate interview methods as well to strengthen the data and findings of the study. Allowing the participants to speak in their mother language and

comparing it with their expression of attitudes in English would also enrich the data and deepen the analysis. Finally, including other variables such as age and gender will also contribute to developing research on identity and motivation in an EFL context.

## 5.4. Conclusion and Implications of the Study

It can be concluded that most of the participants in this study were motivated and had specific goals toward language learning which composed their imagined identities such as fluent English speakers with foreign friends and joining future communities of practice such as foreign universities or companies. Students were similarly motivated on both integrative and instrumental levels. However, if we regard integrativeness in its strong sense as a desire to integrate with native speakers of English, it loses its meaning as our participants' integrativeness is best defined in what Yashima (2009) calls an "international posture" rather than identifying with English native speakers.

While their level of motivation is high, they don't seem to be similarly invested in English learning especially speaking practices. Norton (2013) made a distinction between motivation and investment meaning that investment refers to the learners' ambivalent desire to speak English. Learners might be motivated in a context but not invested due to a lack of understanding of the cultural capital that the target language provides them as well as other contextual and psychological barriers which cause them to resist opportunities to speak English. Japanese FL learners might be interested in the target language and culture but due to a low possibility of living overseas, or application of English speaking skills in real life situations, they might not be equally invested in learning.

In this research, a major challenge for the students was negotiating their cultural and L2 identities, competence, and views toward the native and target languages so that they could participate and be recognized as legitimate and competent members of a given social, business, academic or international community. The participants had to overcome several barriers such

as lack of linguistic self-confidence, shyness, the anxiety of failure or making mistakes, a tendency toward perfectionism and an identity shift from Japanese to that of an L2 speaker. Some cultural traits of Japanese learning settings such as conformity, avoidance of standing out among peers, and different expression ways and communication styles limited them from developing their L2 identities which will not happen unless the learners express themselves freely and communicate in English.

Moreover, the English learners with lower linguistic self-confidence seemed to lack a clear image of their future identity and they didn't incorporate participation in communities of practice in their learning goals. They preferred to avoid interactions. Moreover, the sociolinguistic differences between Japanese and English seemed to have both positive and negative effects. For some learners, English provided them with a new identity through which they freely express their new thoughts and expanded their horizons while for some, the communicative and cultural differences of the native context limited them from constructing new identities due to its disjuncture with their imagined community.

Hence, one important reason behind the students' resistance to speaking English is the communicative differences which are rooted in the culture. These fixed behaviors or sociocultural identities may act as barriers to L2 identity construction. In order to learn a new language, a learner is supposed to adopt new ways of thinking and expression. English speaking practice requires the learner to be willing to express his opinions which is not an easy task for Japanese students who position their identities as shy, non-speakers and unable to express their opinions. This indicates the importance of understanding the learners' psychological, cultural and affective barriers in order to devise teaching methods which are motivating and engage learners in constructing new identities and hence improve their learning.

Furthermore, the results depicted that for most learners, the imagined community is mostly established with instrumental and intercultural orientations or as Yashima (2009) put it,

170

international posture rather than identifying with the English culture and community. Previously it was assumed that integrativeness or the extent to which learners position themselves in relation with the L1 and L2 community and the intensity of the learner's desire to be closer to the target community members, determine the degree of L2 acquisition and motivation to learn the target language (Gardner & Lambert, 1959).

However, considering Japanese EFL learners who hold strong ethnic identity and lack strong identification with the target culture, the concepts of international orientation, self and identity provide a better understanding of their motivational orientations. It will also shed light on the underlying socio-psychological aspects of learning and cultural context which influence learning motivation and identity construction. Every time language learners interact in the target language, whether in the oral or written mode, they are engaged in identity construction, development, and negotiation. In the Japanese learning context which is mostly teachercentered and students are known to be less willing to communicate, the educators and teachers must encourage more interactions and inspire learners to set future goals of English learning. Engaging the learners' portable identities, teachers can provide a more motivating environment which is closer to the learner's imagined community.

The research has several theoretical implications. Previously researchers regarded the language learner apart from the learning context and his relationship to the social context. They regarded language learning in relation to the affective filter comprising the learner's motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety state. These individual variables definitely played a major role in the participants' learning in this study. Self-confidence arises from positive experiences in the context of the second/foreign language (Gardner,1985). This was observed in this research as, for several participants, positive encounters with foreigners or study abroad experiences enhanced their confidence and motivation to learn and practice English.

Accordingly, the low-linguistic self-confidence of the participants is not merely a psychological trait, rather it is a product of sociocultural relations and teaching practices of the context. Norton (2013) suggests that confusion arises because artificial distinctions are drawn between the individual and the society, and consequently calls for a comprehensive theory of social identity that integrates the language learners and the learning context which are motivated in some contexts and unmotivated in the others.

In this study, Gardner's classification of integrative and instrumental motivations together with the concept of international posture, and Dörnyei' motivational self system provided us with a better framework to scrutinize the learners' motivation. We understood that motivated learners incorporated an ideal self into their motivation system to study English. Norton's ideas on identity, investment, and imagined communities helped us to distinguish between motivation and investment and recognize why the participants are highly motivated but resist speaking opportunities due to lack of investment which is rooted in psychological and socio-cultural reasons. Also, we saw that membership in communities of practice and joining imagined communities had a major role in the students' learning motivation. These communities rarely consisted of native English speakers; they consisted mostly of academic, professional and international communities of foreigners in and out of the EFL context. Therefore, combining these frameworks helped us gain a better understanding of how the motivational system of EFL learner works with regard to the social and educational context of Japan.

Currently, there is not a comprehensive theory of motivation for the EFL setting which combines the individual aspects of motivation to the social settings. Dörnyei's Learning experience factor specifies how the context and its positive or negative experiences can enhance or hinder the L2 learner's linguistic self-confidence and hence motivation. However, although the concepts of Ideal Self can be interchangeably used with the concept of Imagined Identity in Norton's framework, Dörnyei's framework doesn't provide a comprehensive image of learner's investment and how the social relations of power affect the L2 learner's practices. Consequently, this research incorporated ideas from Gardner's motivation model, Dörnyei's motivational self system and Norton's concepts of investment, identity and imagined communities to render a more inclusive description of the Japanese EFL learners' motivation in English language learning practices.

As it was mentioned earlier in the introductory chapter, despite the fact that the Japanese education system has been quite successful and many universities have become internationalized offering many courses in English, there are still shortcomings with regard to communicative skills of Japanese students. These shortcomings have roots in both teaching methodologies and sociocultural aspects of learning in Japan. The ethnography of two different courses in a public Japanese university in this study revealed that despite using foreign faculty and native English teachers, there is still a need for applying innovative methods to improve the students' willingness to speak and help them overcome the psychological and cultural barriers which have been the object of study in this research.

As educators, we need to be aware of the learners' negotiating and conflicting identities which have direct impacts on their motivation and investment in learning. As Pavlenko (2002) suggests, to make students' aware of their multiple identities, classroom pedagogy must expose students to readings and discussion aimed to solidify students' knowledge base about the natures of bilingual users. These classroom discussions and reflections encourage students to become part of a community of multicompetence English speakers. By doing so, students can feel legitimate, instead of deviant, L2 users.

Although the main purpose of this study was not to propose new teaching methodologies, the results indicate some areas of challenge and demotivating factors which could be of interest to educators and policy-makers in the field of English as a foreign language teaching in Japan. First, the use of Japanese language must be limited in English classrooms as it appeared to be demotivating for more proficient learners. More interactive and collaborative task learning methods should be applied to classroom pedagogies. Moreover, the positive and motivating aspects of the English speakers' culture must be incorporated into teaching materials while the international aspects of English as a lingua franca should be stressed as well. The atmosphere of classrooms must be less formal and more international to trigger a sense of an imaginary community of practice where learners have ample chances to manifest their identities and develop new ones.

The learners should be informed of the conflicts between the target and native cultures and encouraged to approach English through new imagined identities to avoid such conflicts. They should learn about different communication styles and get equipped with new communicative and intercultural skills. The settings of classrooms should be improved to provide collaboration among students and interaction and eye-contact with their teachers as opposed to what is the norm in other university classes. Educators are suggested to apply psychological approaches to help EFL learners overcome their anxiety and boost their linguistic self-confidence. In sum, how English is viewed in relation to national language and identity could benefit several reforms so that more internationally minded views are translated into classroom practices and teaching approaches.

## IV. References

- Al Jarf, R. (2004). The effects of web-based learning on struggling EFL college writers. *Foreign Language Annals*, 37(1), 49 57. doi:10.1111/j.1944-9720. 2004.tb02172.x, http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1111/j.1944-9720. 2004.tb02172.x
- Alim, H. S. (2005). Critical language awareness in the United States: Revisiting issues and revising pedagogies in re-segregated society. *Educational Researcher*, *34*, 21-31.
- Allwright, R. (1984). The importance of interaction in classroom language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 5, 156–171.
- Amaki, Y. (2008). Perspectives on English education in the Japanese public school system: The views of foreign assistant language teachers (ALTs). Educational Studies in Japan: International Yearbook 3, 53-63.
- Anderson, B. O. R. (1991). *Imagined communities: reflections on the origin and spread of nationalism* (Revised and extended. ed.). London: Verso Books. pp. 6–7. IS
- Anderson, F. (1993). The enigma of the college classroom: nails that don't stick up. In Wadden, P.
   (ed.) A Handbook for Teaching English at Japanese Colleges and Universities. New York: Oxford University Press, 101-110.
- Apple, M. T., Falout, J., & Hill, G. (2013). Exploring classroom-based constructs of EFL motivation for science and engineering students in Japan. In M.T. Apple, D.Da Silva, & T.Fellner (Eds.), *Language learning motivation in Japan* (pp. 54-74). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Apple, M., Da Silva, D., & Fellner, T. (2013). Exploring classroom-based constructs of EFL motivation for Science and Engineering students in Japan. In T. Matthew, T. Apple, D. Da Silva and T. Fellner (Eds.), *Language learning motivation in Japan* (pp. 54-74). Bristol, U.K.: Multilingual Matters.
- Armour, W. S. (2004). Becoming a Japanese language learner, user, and teacher: Revelations from life history research. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 3*, 101-125.
- Ashton, P. (1985). *Motivation and the teacher's sense of efficacy* in C. Ames & R. Ames (eds.).
  Research on motivation in education II: The classroom milieu. Orlando. FL. Academic Press. 141-174.
- Bailey, A. A. (2004). Reforming English language teaching in Japanese universities: Creating a language community. *Ritsumeikan Journal of Educational Research*, 4: 94-112.
- Bashir-Ali, K. (2006). Language learning and the definition of one's social, cultural, and racial identity. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40, 628-639.

Belsey, C. (1980). Critical Practice. London: Routledge.

Bauman, R. (2000). Language, identity, and performance. Pragmatics 10: 1-6.

- Blanchette, J. (2009). Characteristics of teacher talk and learner talk in the online learning environment. *Language and Education*, 23.5, 391-407.
- Block, D. (2006). *Multilingual identities in a global city*: London stories. London: Palgrave. <u>http://books.google.com/books/about/Multilingual\_Identities\_in\_a\_Global\_City.html?id=O1</u> <u>OTKgAACAAJ</u>.
- Block, D. (2007). *The Rise of Identity in SLA Research, Post Firth and Wagner*. The Modern Language Journal 91, 863-875. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2007.00674.x</u>.
- Bourdieu, P. (1977). *The economics of linguistic exchanges*. Social Science Information, 16 (6), 645–68.
- Bourdieu, P. & Passeron, J. (1977). *Reproduction in Education, Society, and Culture*. London/ Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications
- Boxer, D., & Cortes-Conde, F. (2000). Identity and ideology: Culture and pragmatics in contentbased ESL. In J. K. Hall, & L. S. Verplaestse (Eds.), *Second and foreign language learning through classroom interaction* (pp. 203-219). Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998) *Transforming qualitative information: Thematic analysis and code development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Boyd, M. & Maloof, V.M. (2000). *How teachers can build upon student proposed intertextual links to facilitate student talk in the ESL classroom*. In: HALL, J.K.; VERPLAETSE, L.S. (Ed.). Second and Foreign Language Learning through Classroom Interaction. Mahwah, N.J.: Lawrence Erlbaum, 2000. (pp.163-182). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Braun, V. & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, 77-101.
- Brown, J. D., Robson, & G., Rosenkjar, P.R. (2001). Personality, motivation, anxiety, strategies, and language proficiency of Japanese students. In Z. Doryei, & R. Schmidt, (Ed.), *Motivation and Second Language Acquisition* (pp. 361-398). Honolulu: University of Hawai'i Press.
- Burden, P. (2002). "A cross sectional study of attitudes and manifestations of apathy of university students towards studying English". In *The Language Teacher*. <u>http://www.jalt-publications.org/tlt/articles/2002/03/burden</u>
- Canagarajah, A. S. (1993). Critical ethnography of a Sri Lankan classroom: Ambiguities in opposition to reproduction through ESOL. TESoL Quarterly, 27, 601-626.

- Cazden, C. (1986). *Classroom discourse*. In M.C. Wittrock (Ed.), Handbook of research on teaching (pp.432-463). NY: MacMillan.
- Charmaz, K. (2008). The legacy of Anselm Strauss for constructivist grounded theory. In Denzin, N. (Ed.), *Studies in symbolic interaction* (Vol. 32, pp. 127-141). Bingley, UK: Emerald Group.
- Clément, R., Gardner, R.C., & Smyth, P.C. (1977). Motivational variables in second language acquisition: A study of francophones learning English. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science*, 9, 123-133.
- Creswell, J. W., & Miller, D. L. (2000). Determining validity in qualitative inquiry. *Theory into Practice*, *39*, 124–134.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language*, 2<sup>nd</sup> Edition. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- Csizér, K., Kormos, J., (2008a). An overview of Hungarian secondary school students' foreign language motivation, in: Knudsen H.V. (Ed.), *Secondary School Education*. Nova Science Publishers, Hauppauge, NY, pp. 65-87.
- Csizér, K. & Kormos, J., (2008b). The relationship of intercultural contact and language learning motivation among Hungarian students of English and German. *Journal of Multilingual and Multicultural Development*. 21, 30-48.
- Csizér, K., & Kormos, J. (2009). Learning experiences, selves and motivated learning behavior: A comparative analysis of structural models for Hungarian secondary and university learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda. (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp.98-119). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Coleman, H. (2011). *Dreams and realities: Developing countries and the English language*. London: British Council.
- Combs, A.W. (1965). The Professional Education of Teachers. Boston, Mass: Allyn & Bacon.
- Creswell, J.W. (2002). *Educational Research: Planning, Conducting and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research*, Prentice Hall, NJ.
- Damen, L. (1987). *Culture Learning: The Fifth Dimension in the Language Classroom*, Reading, MA, Addison Wesley Publishing Company.
- Darvin, R. & Norton, B. (2015). *Identity and a model of investment in applied linguistics*. Annual Review of Applied Linguistics. (35: 192–201).
- Davies, D., & Dodd, J. (2002). Qualitative research and the question of rigor. *Qualitative Health research*, *12*(2), 279-289.

De Charms, R. (1976). Enhancing motivation: Change in the Classroom. New York: Irvinton.

- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. New York: Plenum.
- Denzin, N. K., & Lincoln, Y. S. (2005). Introduction: The Discipline and Practice of Qualitative Research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), *The Sage handbook of qualitative research* (pp. 1-32). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.
- Dewaele, J. M. (2017). Glimpses of semantic restructuring of English emotion-laden words of American English L1 users residing outside the USA. *Linguistic Approaches to Bilingualism* Doi:10.1075/lab.15046.
- Doerr, N. M., & Lee, k. (2013). *Constructing the heritage language learner: Knowledge, power, and new subjectivities.* Boston, MA /Berlin, Germany: Walter de Gruyter, Inc.
- Doiz, A., Lasagabaster, D., & Sierra, J. M. (2012). English-medium instruction at universities: Global challenges. Bristol: *Multilingual Matters*.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research and applications. Language Learning, 53(1), 3-32.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The Psychology of the Language Learner*. London: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dörnyei, Z. & P. Skehan, (2003). Individual differences in second language learning. In Doughty and M. Long (eds.), *e handbook of second language acquisition*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2009). Motivation, language identity and the L2 self. Bristol, England: *Multilingual Matters*.
- Duff, P., & Talmy, S. (2011). Language socialization approaches to second language acquisition. In D. Atkinson (Ed.), Alternative approaches to second language acquisition (pp. 95–116). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Duff, P. A., & Uchida, Y. (1997). The negotiation of teachers' sociocultural identities and practices in postsecondary EFL classrooms. *TESOL Quarterly*, *31*, 451–486.
- Dwyer, E., & Heller-Murphy, A. (1996). *Japanese learners in speaking classes*. Edinburgh Working Papers in Applied Linguistics, 7, 46-55.

- Ellis, R. (1990). *Researching classroom language learning*. In C. Brumfit & R. Mitchel (Eds), ELT Documents 133: *Research in the language classroom*. Modern English Publications.
- Ellis, R. (1994). The Study of Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fairclough, N. (2003). Analyzing discourse: Textual analysis for social research. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Fernando, C. (1977). English and Sinhala Bilingualism in Sri Lanka. Language in Society 6:341-360.
- Firth, A. & Wagner, J. (1997). On Discourse, Communication, and (Some) Fundamental Concepts in SLA Research. *The Modern Language Journal*, Volume 81, Issue 3, (pp. 285-300.
- Foucault, M. (1983). 'Afterword: on the genealogy of ethics: an overview of work in progress', in H. Dreyfus & P. Rabinow (eds.), *Michel Foucault: beyond structuralism and hermeneutics* (second edition), Chicago: Chicago University Press.
- Fraenkel, J. R. & Wallen, N. E. (2003). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. Fifth ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Fujieda, Y. (2012). Initiation of World Englishes into EFL writing classrooms in Japanese secondary school. *Asian EFL Journal*, 58, 5-27.
- Fujieda, Y. (2013). Constructing writer identities in a Japanese EFL setting. Maebashi International University Studies. Retrieved from: <u>https://gair.media.gunma-</u> u.ac.jp/dspace/bitstream/10087/7686/1/2013-fujieda.pdf
- Fujio, M. (2010). How to incorporate qualitative analysis into experimental research: Why Japanese students studying in the UK did not improve their fluency? In A. Botinis (Ed.), *International Speech Communication Association: Proceedings of the third ISCA Tutorial and Workshop on Experimental Linguistics* (pp. 49–52). Athens: University of Athens.
- Fujiwara, M. (2004). Eigo kyoiku no jy shi ga nihonjinno kyoyo wo sarani teika saseruniwa machigainai. [The emphasis on English education lowers Japaneseness and personal enrichment]. *Nihon no ronten*. Tokyo: Bungei Shunju.
- Falout, J., & Maruyama, M. (2004). A comparative study of proficiency and learner demotivation. *The Language Teacher* 28, 3–9.
- Fereday, J., & Muir-Cochrane, E. (2006). The role of performance feedback in the self-assessment of competence: A research study with nursing clinicians. *Collegian*, *13*(1), 10-15.
- Gardner, H. (1983). *Frames of mind: The theory of multiple intelligences*. New York: Basic Books. New Editions: 1993, 2004.

- Gardner, R.C., & Lambert, W.E. (1972). *Attitudes and motivation in second language learning*. Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Gardner, R.C., & Smythe, P.C. (1975). Second language acquisition: A social psychological approach (Research Bulletin No. 332). London, Ontario: University of Western Ontario, Department of Psychology.
- Gardner, R. C. (1960). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. Unpublished PhD thesis, McGill University. Retrieved December 18, 2005, from http://publish.uwo.ca/~gardner/Bob's%20Ph.D2.pdf.
- Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and *motivation*. London: Edward Arnold.
- Gardner, R. C. (2000). Correlation, causation, motivation, and second language acquisition. *Canadian Psychology*, 41, 10-24.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001). *Integrative motivation: Past, present and future*. Distinguished Lecturer Serious. Temple University Japan, Tokyo,
- Gardner, R. C. (2004). *Attitude/motivation test battery: International AMTB research project.* Canada: The University of Western Ontario.
- Gee, J., & Crawford, V. (1998). Two kinds of teenagers: Language, identity and social class. In Alvermann, D., Moore, D., & Waff, D. (Eds.), Reconceptualizing the literacies in adolescents' lives. Mahwah: NJ: Erlbaum.
- Ghaith, Gh. (2003). The relationship between forms of instruction, achievement and perceptions of classroom climate. *Educational Research*, 45 (1), 83 93. doi:10.1080/0013188032000086145, http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1080/0013188032000086145
- Ghapanchi, Z., Khajavy, & G., Asadpour, S. (2011). L2 Motivation and Personality as Predictors of the Second Language Proficiency: Role of the Big Five Traits and L2 Motivational Self System. *Canadian Social Science*, 7 (6), 148-155.
- Gleason, J. (2014). "It helps me get closer to their writing experience" classroom ethnography and the role of technology in third-year FL courses. *System*, 47, 125-138.
- Gliksman, L. (1981). *Improving the prediction of behaviours associated with second language acquisition*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Western Ontario, London, Canada.
- Goharimehr, N., & Bysouth, D. (2017). Transformative learning and critical thinking in Japanese higher education. Bulletin of the Graduate School of Human Sciences, Osaka University, 43:215-235. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.18910/60580

- Gregersen, T., & Horwitz, E. K. (2002). Language learning and perfectionism: Anxious and nonanxious. *The Modern Language Journal, 86*, 562-570.
- Gunasekara, M. (2005). The post-colonial identity of Sri Lankan English. Colombo, Sri Lanka.
- Ha, P. L. (2008). Teaching English as an international language: Identity, resistance, negotiation. Clevedon. *England Multilingual Matters*.
- Hall, S. (1996). *Introduction: Who needs 'identity'?* In S. Hall, & P. D. Gay (Eds.), *Questions of cultural identity* (pp. 1-17). London: Sage Publication.
- Hall, J. K. & Verplaetse, L. S. (2000). Second and foreign language learning through classroom *interaction*. Mahwah, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Hamid, M. O., Nguyen, H. T. M., & Baldauf Jr, R. B. (2013). Medium of instruction in Asia: Context, processes and outcomes. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 14(1), 1-15.
- Held, D. McGrew, A. Goldblatt, D. & Perraton, J. (1999). *Global Transformations: Politics, economics and culture*. Stanford University Press, Stanford.
- Helgeson, M. (1993). *Dismantling a wall of silence: the "English conversation" class*. In Wadden,P. (ed.) A Handbook for Teaching English at Japanese Colleges and Universities. New York: Oxford University Press, 37-49.
- Hashimoto, K. (2000). Internationalisation is 'Japanisation': Japan's foreign language education and national identity. *Journal of Intercultural Studies*, 21(1), p. 9.
- Hashimoto, Y. (2002). Motivation and willingness to communicate as predictors of L2 Use: The Japanese ESL context. *Second Language Studies*, 20, 29–70.
- Hofstede, G. (1986) 'Cultural Differences in Teaching and Learning'. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, Vol. 10, pp. 301-320.
- Hollingworth, W. (2017). Retrieved on 26<sup>th</sup> of Nov, 2018, from https://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2017/01/02/national/study-explores-deafening-silencejapans-english-language-classes/#.W\_uzVi2B1-U
- Horwitz, E. K. (1986). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. *TESOL Quarterly*, 20(3), 559-562
- Hosoki, Y. (2013). The Effects of Study-abroad Experience on Speaking Performance: The Case of a Three-week English Study Abroad Program for Kyushu International University Students. *Kyushu International University International Relations Studies*, 8, 1.2.

- Hsu, J. (2009) EFL teacher values and identity in tertiary education in Japan. *The Journal of Kanda University of International Studies*, 21: 385-399
- Huang, Y. (2007). Pragmatics. NY: Oxford University Press.
- Ikegashira, A., Matsumoto, Y., & Morita Y. (2009). English education in Japan: From kindergarten to university. In R. Reinelt (Ed.) *Into the next decade with FL teaching* (2nd ed., pp. 16–40). Matsuyama: Rudolf Reinelt Research Laboratory.
- Ikeno, O. (2003). Motivating and demotivating factors in foreign language learning: A preliminary investigation. *Ehime University J. English Educ*. Res., 2: 1-19.
- Islam, M., Lamb, M., & Chambers, G. (2013). The L2 motivational self system and national interest: A Pakistani perspective. *Elsevier*, 41, 231-224. Retrieved from <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2013.01.025</u>.
- Ishii, J. (1993). "Nihon Bunka to Kyoshi no Kakawari wo Mitsuketa Taiken [Considering the Relationship between Japanese Culture and Education]". In Inagaki, T. (1993) (Ed.): 154-162.
- Jenkins, J. (2007). *English as a Lingua Franca: Attitude and Identity*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Johnson, M. (2009). EFL motivation and Japanese engineering students: A survey of relevant research. *Hokkaido Language and Culture Research*, *7*, 41–50.
- Jozsa, K. & Morgan, A. (2017). Reversed items in Likert scales: filtering out invalid responses. Journal of Psychological and Educational Research, 25, 7-25.
- Kang, S.-J. (2006). Individual and social-contextual factors affecting the learning and use of ESL: A case study of a visiting Korean physician. *TESL Canada Journal*, 24, 59–79. doi:10.18806/tesl. v24i1.28
- Kanno, Y. (2003). *Negotiating bilingual and bicultural identities: Japanese returnees betwixt two worlds*. Mahwah: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Kerlinger, F. N., & Lee, H. B. (2000). *Foundations of behavioral research* (4th ed.). Holt, NY: Harcourt College Publishers.
- Kim, L. S. (2003). Multiple identities in a multicultural world: A Malaysian perspective. *Journal of Language, Identity and Education* 2(3), 137-158.
- Kinginger, C. (2004). Alice doesn't live here anymore: Foreign language learning and identity construction. In A. Pavlenko, & A. Blakcledge (Eds.), Negotiation of identities in multilingual contexts (pp. 219-242). Clevedon: *Multilingual Matters*.

- Kojima-Takahashi, C. (2013). Ideal L2 self and university English learners: An interview study. *The Language Teacher*, 37(6) 3-8.
- Kormos, J., Csizér, K. (2008). Age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language: Attitudes, selves, and the motivated language behaviour. *Language Learning*, 58, 327-357.
- Kormos, J., Kiddle, T., Csizér, K. (2011). System of goals, attitudes, and self- related beliefs in second-language learning motivation. *Applied Linguistics*. 32, 495-516.
- Kramer, T. J., & Korn, J. H. (1996). Class discussions: Promoting participation and preventing problems. *APS Observer*, 9 (5), 24-25,27.
- Kramsch, C. (1998). *The privilege of the intercultural speaker*. In M.Byram and M. Fleming (eds). *Language Learning in Intercultural Perspective*. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.
- Krashen, S. and Terrell, T. (1988). *The Natural approach: Language acquisition in the classroom*. Prentice Hall International Ltd.
- Kubota, R. (2004). The impact of globalization on language teaching in Japan. In Block, D & Cameron, D. (Eds.), *Globalization and language teaching* (pp13-28). London: Routledge.
- Kunihiro, M. (1976). "The Japanese Language and Intercultural Communication." *The Japanese Interpreter*, 10(3/4): 270-283.
- Laine, E. (1977). *Foreign language learning motivation in Finland, I.* Part I, Turku: Turku University Press.
- Lalonde, R.N. (1982). Second language acquisition: A causal analysis. Unpublished master's thesis, University of Western Ontario, London, Canada.
- Lee, S-I. (2012). Japanese learners' underlying beliefs affecting foreign language learners' motivation: New perspectives of affective factors mechanism. *Afrasian research center: Studies on multicultural societies*, 4.
- Li, H., & Liu, Y. (2011). A brief study of reticence in ESL class. Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 1(8),961-965. <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.4304/tpls.1.8.961-965</u> (*PDF*) *Causes of reticence: Engendering willingness to speak in language classrooms*. Available from: <u>https://www.researchgate.net/publication/284348043\_Causes\_of\_reticence\_Engendering</u> <u>g\_willingness\_to\_speak\_in\_language\_classrooms</u>[accessed Nov 21 2018].
- Lightbown, P. & Spada, N. (1999). *How Languages are Learned*. New York: Oxford University Press. Second Edition.
- Lin, H-Y. (2014). The ideological construction of English: A critical review on the discourse of

English in East Asia. Journal of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics, 18(1), 219-240.

- Lindlof, T. R., & Taylor, B. C. (2002). *Qualitative communication research methods* (2nd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. (This is the main textbook; chapter assignments are indicated in the course syllabus.)
- Lightbown & Spada. (1999). *How Languages are Learned*, Second Edition. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Liu, J. (2002). Negotiating silence. Language and intercultural communication, 2(1), 37-54.
- LoCastro, V. (2001). Individual differences in second language acquisition: attitudes, learner subjectivity, and L2 pragmatic norms. *System, 29*, 69-89.
- Luke, A. (1996). *Text and Discourse in Education: An Introduction to Critical Discourse Analysis*. http://www.jstor.org/ p. 1 - 48.
- Lukmani, Y. M. (1972). Motivation to learn and language proficiency. *Language Learning*, 22, 261-273.
- Marshall, C. & Rossman, G. B. (1995). Designing qualitative research. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- MacIntyre, P.D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Investigating language class anxiety using the focused essay technique. *The Modern Language Journal*, 75, 296-304.
- Marx, N. (2002). Never quite a 'native speaker': Accent and identity in the L2 and the L1. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *59*, 264-281.
- Matsuda. S. (2004). A longitudinal diary study on orientations of university EFL learners in Japan. *Doshisha Studies in Language and Culture*, 7, 3-28.
- McKay, S. L., & Wong, S-L. C. (1996). Multiple discourses, multiple identities: Investment and agency in second-language learning among Chinese adolescent immigrant students. *Harvard Educational Review*, 66, 577–608.
- McVeigh, B. (2001). "Higher education, apathy and post-meritocracy". In *The Language Teacher*. <u>http://www.jalt</u> publications.org/tlt/articles/2001/10/mcveigh/
- MEXT. (2008). *Shogakkou gakushu shidou yoryo kaisetsu gaikokugo katsudouhen* [Description for study of course guideline for foreign language activities in elementary schools]. Retrieved from <www.mext.go.jp/a\_menu/shotou/new- cs/youryou/syokaisetsu/index.htm>.

- MEXT. (2010). *Koritsu kotogakko ni okeru kyoi- kukatei no hensei jisshi chosa no kekka (B Hyo)* [Survey of English education in public high schools (B)]. Retrieved from <www.mext. go.jp/a\_menu/shotou/new-cs/1301650.htm>.
- Miller, K. K. (2014). What's wrong with English education in Japan? Pull up a chair. *Japantoday.com*, October 7. Retrieved December 14, 2015 from: <u>http://www.japantoday.com/category/lifestyle/view/whats-wrong-with-english-education-in-japan-pull-up-a-chair</u>
- Mizuno, C. (2003). A comparative study of teacher education in Japan, Korea and Australia. PanPacific Association of Applied Linguistics (conference proceedings), pp. 247-252. Retrieved December 12, 2015 from: http://www.paaljapan.org/resources/proceedings/PAAL8/pdf/pdf02 4.pdf
- Morell, T. (2004). Interactive lecture discourse for university EFL students. *English for Specific Purposes*, 23, 325 338. doi:10.1016/S0889-4906(03)00029-2, http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1016/S0889-4906(03)00029-2
- Morgan, B. (2007). Poststructuralism and applied linguistics: Complementary approaches to identity and culture in ELT. In J. Cummins & C. Davison (Eds.), International handbook of English language teaching (Vol. 2) (pp. 949-968).
- Morita, N. (2004). Negotiating participation and identity in second language academic communities. *TESOL Quarterly*, *38*(4), 573–603.
- Mouer, R. & Sugimoto, Y. (1986). *Images of Japanese Society: A Study in the Social Construction of Reality*. London: Kegan Paul International.
- Muchnick, A. and D. Wolfe (1982): "Attitudes and motivation of American students of Spanish". *Canadian Modern Language Review 38: 262-81.*
- Munezane, Y. (2013). *Motivation, Ideal L2 self and valuing of global English*. In M. Apple, D. Da Silva & T. Fellner (eds.), 152–168.
- Nestor, N. and Regan, V. (2011). The New Kid on the Block. A Case Study of Young Poles, Language and Identity. In M. Darmody, N. Tyrrell and S. Song (eds), The Changing Faces of Ireland: Exploring the Live of Immigrant and Ethnic Minority Children (pp. 35-52). Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Nisbett, R.E., Peng, K., Choi, I., Norenzayan, A. (2001). Culture and systems of thought: Holistic versus analytic cognition. *Psychological Review*. 108(2): 291
- Nishino, T. (2008). Communication-oriented policies versus classroom realities in Japan. *TESOL Quarterly*, 42(1), 133-138.

Norton, B. (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. TESOL Quarterly, 29, 9-31

- Norton, B. (2000). *Identity and language learning: Gender, ethnicity and educational change*. Harlow, England: Longman/Pearson Education Limited.
- Norton, B. (2001). Non-participation, imagined communities and the language classroom. In M. P. Breen (Ed.), Learner contributions to language learning (pp. 159–171). New York, NY: Pearson Education.
- Norton, B. (2006). Identity: Second Language. In K. Brown (ed), *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics, Second Edition:* Elsevier *TESOL Quarterly*, 35(2), 307-322.
- Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation*. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Norton, B. & Kamal, F. (2003). The imagined communities of English language learners in a Pakistani school. *Journal of Language, Identity, and Education, 2 (4), 301-318.*
- Norton, B., & Toohey, K. (2011). Identity, language learning, and social change. *Cambridge University Press*, 44.4, 412–446. <u>http://journals.cambridge.org//</u>.
- Nunan, D. (1991). Language Teaching Methodology. Hertfordshire: Prentice Hall International.
- Nunan, D. (1992). Ethnography. In D. Nunan, *Research Methods in Language Learning* (pp. 52-58). USA: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1999). Second Language Teaching and Learning. Heinle and Heinle.
- O'Donnell, K. (2003). Uncovering first year students' language learning experiences, their attitudes, and motivations in a context of change at the tertiary level of education. *JALT Journal*, 25 (1), 31-62.
- Ogbu, J. U., & Simons, H. D. (1994). *Final report: Cultural models of achievement: A quantitative test of Ogbu's theory.* [ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 376 515].
- Okuniewska, E., Okuniewska, H., Okuniewski, J. (2010). Motivation and attitudes of Polish students learning Hebrew. *Psychology of Language and Communication*. 14(2), 72-79.
- Ortega, L. (2009). Understanding second language acquisition. Hodder, London.
- Orellana, M. (1996). Negotiating power through language in classroom meetings. *Linguistics and Education*, 8, 335-365.
- Osterman, G. L. (2014). Experiences of Japanese University Students Willingness to Speak English in Class. SAGE Open, 4(3), 1–13.

- Oxford, R. (1992). Who are our students? A synthesis of foreign and second language research on individual differences with implications for instructional practices. *TESL Canada Journal* 9, 30-49.
- Parent Education Network, Wyoming State PIRC. (2010). PEN Notes: Fact Sheet #31. Retrieved from http: //www.wpen.net/ PDF/PENNotes/31 Shyness 0310. Pdf
- Parks, S. (2000). Same task, different activities: Issues of investment, identity and use of strategy. *TESL Canada Journal*, 17.2, 64-89.
- Paul, D. (2003). Teaching English to Children in Asia. Asia: Longman.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). Qualitative Research and Evaluation Methods, Sage Publications, London.
- Patton M. Q. (2002). *Qualitative research and evaluation methods*. 3rd Sage Publications; Thousand Oaks, CA.
- Pavlenko, A. and Lantolf, J. (2000). Second language learning as participation and the (re) construction of selves. In J. P. Lantolf (ed.) Sociocultural theory and second language learning. Oxford University Press, pp. 155-177.
- Pavlenko, A. (2002). Poststructuralist Approaches to the Study of Social Factors in L2. In V. Cook (ed.), Portraits of the L2 User. Clevedon, Multilingual Matters, pp. 277-302.
- Pishghadam, R., & Akhondpoor, F. (2011). Learner perfectionism and its role in foreign language learning success, academic achievement, and learner anxiety. *Journal of Language Teaching* and Research, 2, 432–440. doi:10.4304/jltr.2.2.432-440
- Prabhu, N. S. (1992). The dynamics of the language lesson. TESOL Quarterly, 26(2), 225-241.
- Rajab, A., Far, H. R., Etemadzadeh, A. (2012). The Relationship Between L2 Motivational Self-System and L2 Learning among TESL Students in Iran. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 66, 419–424.
- Ramos, B. (2004). *Power Relation in the EFL class through oral interaction* (Master's thesis). Universidad Distrital Francisco José de Caldas, Bogotá.
- Regan, V. (2013). The bookseller and the basketball player: tales from the French Polonia. In D. Singleton, V. Regan and E. Debaene (eds.), Linguistic and Cultural Acquisition in a Migrant Community. Bristol: Multilingual Matters.
- Reichelt, M. (1999). Toward a more comprehensive view of L2 writing: Foreign language writing in the U.S. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 8(1), 45–75.

- Richards, K. (2006). 'Being the Teacher': Identity and Classroom Conversation. Applied Linguistics, 27(1), 51–77.
- Rummens, J. (1993). Personal Identity and Social Structure in Sint Maartin/Saint Martin: A Plural Identities Approach. Unpublished Thesis/Dissertation: York University.
- Ryan, S. (2009). Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: The ideal L2 self and Japanese learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 120-143). Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Sakui, K. (2004). "Wearing two pairs of shoes: Language teaching in Japan". *ELT Journal* 58(2): 155-163.
- Sampson, R. (2012). The language-learning self, self-enhancement activities, and self- perceptual change. *Language Teaching Research*, 16.3, 317–335.
- Sandelowski M. & Barroso J. (2002). Reading qualitative studies. *International Journal of Qualitative Methods*, 1(1), Article 5. Retrieved from http://www.ualberta.ca/\$ijqm/ on 6 July 2004.
- Sato, C. J. (1990). Ethnic styles in classroom discourse (pp. 107-119). In R.C. Scarcella, E.S. Anderson, & S.D. Krashen (Eds.), Developing communicative competence in a second language. Boston: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
- Sato, M. (1993). "Amerika no Kyoshitsu [The U.S. Classrooms]". In Inagaki, T. (1993) (Ed.): 77-104.
- Sawaki, Y. (1997). Japanese learners' language learning motivation: a preliminary study. *JACET Bulletin, 28*, 83-96.
- Schmitt, N. (2010). An introduction to applied linguistics. Hodder & Stoughton Ltd.
- Schneer, D. (2007). (Inter)nationalism and English textbooks endorsed by the Ministry of Education in Japan. *TESOL Quarterly*, *41*(3), 600–607.
- Seargeant, P. (2011). English in Japan in the era of globalization. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Schmuck, R. (1997). *Practical action research for change*. Arlington Heights, IL: IRI/Skylight Training and Publishing.
- Schumann, J. H. (1978). *The acculturation model for second-language acquisition*. In R. C. Gingras (Ed)., *Second language acquisition and foreign language teaching*. (pp. 27-50). Washington, DC: Center for Applied Linguistics.
- Skilton-Sylvester, E. (2002). Should I stay or should I go?: Investigating Cambodian women's participation and investment in adult ESL programs. *Adult Education Quarterly*, 53, 9–26.

- Skinner, E. A. and Belmont, M. J. (1993). "Motivation in the classroom: reciprocal effects of teacher behaviour and student engagement across the schoolyear". *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 85, 571-581.
- Smith, J. A., & Osborn, M. (2008). *Interpretative Phenomenological Analysis*. In J. Smith, *Qualitative Psychology: A Practical Guide to Research Methods* (pp. 53-80). London: Sage.
- Spolsky, B. & Cooper, R. L. (1991). Languages of Jerusalem. Oxford: Clarendon
- Stenbacka, C. (2001). Qualitative research requires quality concepts of its own. *Management Decision*, 39(7), 551-555
- Sugimoto, N. (1997). A Japan-U. S. comparison of apology styles. *Communication Research*, 24 (4), 349-269.
- Suzuki, M. (2011). Ideal L2 Selves of Japanese English Learners at Different Motivational Levels. *The bulletin of the Graduate School: Soka University*, 33, 329-51
- Svanes, B. (1987). Motivational and cultural distance in second language acquisition. *Language Learning*, 37, 341-359.
- The Japan Times. (2015). Advanced Eiken levels elude almost half of high school English teachers. May 25. Retrieved November 25, 2015 from: http://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2015/05/25/national/advanced-eiken- levels-elude-almosthalf-high-school-english-teachers/#. Vsu848caqRs
- Thornbury, S. (1996). Teachers research teacher talk. ELT Journal 50(4), 279-289.
- Turnbull, B. (2017). Learner perspectives on national identity and EFL education in Japan: Report of a questionnaire study. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*. 14.2, 211-227.
- Tudor, I. (2006). Dynamics of Classroom Interaction. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Tsuchiya, M. (2006). *Profiling of lower achievement English learners at college in terms of demotivating factors*. Annual Rev. English Language. Educ. Japan, 17: 171-180.
- Tsui A.B.M. (1995). Introducing classroom interaction. London: Penguin
- Tsui, A. B. M. (1996). Reticence and anxiety in second language learning (pp. 145-167). In K.M. Bailey & D. Nunan (Eds.), Voices from the language classroom. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Udvari-Solner, A. (1996). Examining teaching thinking: constructing a process to design curricular adaptations. *Remedial and Special Education*, 17(4), 245 254. doi:10.1177/074193259601700407, http://dx.doi.org/ 10.1177/074193259601700407

- Ueki, M., & Takeuchi, O. (2012). Validating the L2 motivational self system in a Japanese EFL context: The interplay of L2 motivation, L2 anxiety, self-efficacy, and the perceived amount of information. *Language Education & Technology*, 49 (1) 1-22. doi: 10.1080/17501229.2013.836205
- Ueno, J. (2001). Detraditionalisation: Japanese students in the USA. *Language, Culture, and Curriculum, 14*, 76-89.
- Uribe, D. (2000). *The attitudes of the Spanish and Chicano students of Secondary Education and their relationship with the performance in the foreign language class*. Doctoral thesis. University of Granada: Department of English Philology.
- Ushioda, E. (2013). *Motivation and ELT: Global issues and local concerns*. In E. Ushioda (Ed.), *International Perspectives on Motivation: Language Learning and Professional Challenges* (pp. 1 - 19). New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Van Lier, L. (2001). '*Constraints and resources in classroom talk: Issues of equality and symmetry*'. In Candlin and Mercer (2001), 90-107.
- Wakabayashi, S. (2016). *Innovation in Language Programs in the Era of Globalization*. Paper presented at 10th Language for Specific Purposes Seminar (LSP2016), 26 July 2016, at Universiti Technologi Malaysia, Kuala Lupur.
- Wang, C. L. (2010). Toward a second language socialization perspective: Issues in study abroad research. *Foreign Language Annals*, 43(1), 50-63.
- Warschauer, M. (1996). Motivational aspects of using computers for writing and communication. In M. Warschauer (Ed.), <u>Telecollaboration in foreign language learning</u> (pp. 29-46). Honolulu, HI: Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center (University of Hawai'i Press). Retrieved [26<sup>th</sup> of Nov, 2018] from the World Wide Web: http://www.nflrc.hawaii.edu/NetWork/NW01/
- Watanabe, J. and Wada, M. (1991). *Kikokusei no Iru Kyoushitsu [Classrooms Where Returnee Students Are Studying]*. Tokyo: NHK Press.
- Weedon, C. (1997). *Feminist Practice and Poststructuralist Theory*. Second Edition. London: Blackwell.
- Weinreich, P. (1986). The operationalization of identity theory in racial and ethnic relations. In J.Rex and D.Mason (eds). Theories of Race and Ethnic Relations. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Weinreich, P., & Saunderson, W. (2003). *Analyzing Identity: Cross-Cultural, Societal and Clinical Contexts*. London: Routledge.

- Weissberg, R. (2006). *Connecting speaking & writing in second language writing instruction*. Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press.
- Wenger, E., (1998). Communities of Practice: Learning, Meaning, and Identity. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. ISBN 978-0-521-66363-2. Wodak, R., & Meyer, M. (2001). Methods of critical discourse analysis. London: SAGE Publications.
- Wenger, E. (2000). Communities of Practice. New York, Cambridge University Press.
- Willis, J. D. (1990). The Lexical Syllabus. London: Collins Cobuild.
- Wong-Fillmore, L. (1985). Learning a second language: Chinese children in the American classroom. In J. Alatis & J. Staczek (Eds.) Perspectives on bilingualism and bilingual education. Washington, DC: Georgetown University Press.
- Yamamoto, B. A. & Bysouth, D. (2015). *A handbook for enhancing English-medium program quality and practice*. Osaka: Osaka University Press.
- Yanase, Y. & Koizumi, K. (2015). What should we do about English education from Elementary School Onwards? (Shogakko karano eigokyoiku wo dosuruka?). Tokyo, Japan: Iwanami Shoten.
- Yashima, T. (2009). Orientations and motivation in foreign language learning: A study of Japanese college students. *JACET Bulletin*. 31, 121-133.
- Yonezawa, A., Kitamura, Y., Yamamoto, B., Tokunaga, T. (2018). Japanese Education in a Global Age: Sociological Reflections and Future Directions. Education in the Asia-Pacific Region: Issues, Concerns and Prospects. Springer Nature Singapore, 46.
- Yoshizawa, A. (2010). Learner identity construction in EFL context: Needs for research area expansion and examination of imagined identities in the imagined communities. *Bulletin of Keiwa College*, 19, 35- 43. Retrieved from: <u>http://www.keiwa-</u> c.ac.jp/kenkyu/kiyo/doc/kiyo19-3.pdf
- Yuasa, K. (2010). English textbooks in Japan and Korea. *Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics*, 14 (1), pp. 147-158.
- Zimbardo, P. G. (1977). Shyness: what it is, what to do about it. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

## V. Appendices

1. The Survey

#### A. Consent form:

Dear Student, the researcher requests your consent for participation in a survey about English language teaching and learning in Japan's English classrooms. The benefits which may reasonably be expected to result from this study are improvement of language learning and teaching. Your decision whether or not to participate in this study will not affect your grades in this course. PARTICIPANT'S RIGHTS: If you have read this form and have decided to participate in this project, please understand your participation is voluntary and you have the right to withdraw your consent or discontinue participation at any time. The results of this research study may be presented at scientific or professional meetings or published in scientific journals. Your identity and personal information will NOT be revealed. Data Management: Data will be used anonymously, stored in the researcher's personal computer, CD and a portable hard disk and will be archived for 10 years. Biographical information and names of the participants and institutions will be stored on a portable hard disc, CD or a computer which is offline. Data will be anonymized in the research.

### CONTACT INFORMATION:

The researcher: Nooshin Goharimehr (<u>ngohari2014@gmail.com</u>, Cell: 080-2516-7393) The research supervisor: Professor Beverley Yamamoto (<u>bevyamamoto@hus.osaka-u.ac.jp -beverleyayamamoto@gmail.com</u>, Cell: 090-7534-7999).

Email address: .....

### B. Biographical and academic Information:

1.	Name:					
2.	Age:	a. 17-21	b. 22-2	c. Older		
3.	Gender:	a. Female	b. Male	c. Prefer not to answer		
4.	Ethnicity:	a. Japanese	b. Non-Japanese	c. Half-Japanese		
5.	First/Native Lang	uage:	a. Japanese	b. Other languages		
6.	Field of study /work:					
7.	Level of study:	a. Undergraduate	(BA)	b. Graduate (MA, Ph.D.)		
8.	Have you taken any English classes (or university courses taught in English) after high					
	school?		a. Yes	b. No		
9.	What English course are you enrolling in now?					

## 10. Have you lived or studied overseas?a. Yesb. No

### C. 3point Likert-scale Survey: Agree - Disagree - No comments

- 1. Being good at English will help me study other subjects well.
- 2. Learning English helps me become a more knowledgeable and understanding person.
- 3. I feel excited when I communicate in English with others.
- 4. Speaking English in class makes me feel worried.
- 5. I prefer studying in my mother tongue rather than any other foreign language.
- 6. I enjoy doing activities in English.

- 7. I wish I could have many English speaking friends.
- 8. I like my English class and I learn a lot in this class.
- 9. I can share some ideas in English better than Japanese.
- 10. Studying English makes me have more confidence in expressing myself.
- 11. I would like to practice English out of classroom with people who speak English.
- 12. Frankly, I study English just to pass the exams.
- 13. I wish I could speak English fluently.
- 14. I can apply the knowledge from English subject in my real life.
- 15. Studying English makes me able to create new thoughts.
- 16. I get anxious and nervous when I speak English with foreigners.
- 17. Knowing English is an important goal in my life.
- 18. Studying English helps me have good relationships with friends.
- 19. I get anxious when I have to answer a question in my English class.
- 20. I like to practice English the way native speakers do
- 21. I want to make friends with international students or foreigners in Japan.
- 22. I would like to study or travel overseas.
- 23. I'm interested in an international job.
- 24. I often read and watch news about foreign countries.
- 25. I have thoughts that I want to share with people from other parts of the world.
- 26. I have ideas about international issues, such as environmental issues and north-south issues.
- 27. I'm interested in English speaking people.
- 28. I'd like to learn about the people and culture of English speaking countries.

### **D.** Open-ended Questionnaire

- 29. Please write a bit about your positive or negative experiences of learning English and how they affected you. Is learning English useful and interesting? why?
- 30. In general, when do you feel comfortable to speak English? who do you like to speak English with? where and how do you hope to use English?
- 31. Do you feel any changes in your thought and personality after learning English or talking to English speakers? how have you changed? Do you feel different when you speak English?
- 32. What is your goal of learning English? Do you hope to join English speaking communities (foreign countries, foreign companies, international conferences and events)? what kind of communities? why?
- 33. Imagine what life will be like once you finish advanced English. How can you imagine yourself then? How will you be different?
- 34. What do you think about your class activities or technology use (computer and internet) in the English classroom? Do you prefer more or less interactions with your teacher? why?

# 2. The Participants' Information

Grade: undergraduate, first and second year- Age:17- 21(N=69) 22 - 26 (N=1) PNA: Prefer Not to Answer

Feedor NancyFeedor NancyAkiraMaleEngineering scienceTakuyaMaleEngineering scienceHarukaFemaleEngineering ScienceYuukiMaleElectronicsMiasaMaleScience EngineeringMasaMaleEngineering scienceMiaruFemaleElectronics and materials physicsFurniyaMalePNANaokiMaleITKaitoMalePNAKotaMalePhysicsKentaMalePhysicsKentaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKotaMalePhysicsKentaMalePhysicsKentaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKokeMalePNAKokeMalePNAKokeMalePNAKokeMalePNAKokaMalePNAKokaMalePNAKokaMaleChemistrySobokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleScienceMakiPNABiologyMaleLisaviiMaleAuthematicsMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleScienceMakiPNABiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChikao<	PNA: Prefer Not to Answer       Pseudo Name     Gender       Field of study				
TakuyaMaleEngineering scienceHarukaFemaleEngineering ScienceYuukiMaleElectronicsHideoMaleEngineering ScienceMasaMaleScience EngineeringAkitaMaleEngineering scienceMiharuFemaleElectronics and materials physicsFurniyaMalePNANaokiMalePNANaokiMalePNAKotaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKotaMalePNAKobeiMalePNAKobeiMalePNAKobeiMalePNAKobeiMalePNAKobeiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawIsaoMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleGoomicsHiroyaMaleMatematicsMakiPNABiologyLisayiMaleMatematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsChikaooMale					
HarukaFemaleEngineering ScienceYuukiMaleElectronicsHideoMaleEngineering ScienceMasaMaleScience EngineeringAkitaMaleEngineering scienceMiharuFemaleElectronics and materials physicsFumiyaMalePNANaokiMaleITKaitoMalePhysicsKotaMalePhysicsKentaMalePhysicsKotaMaleScience, major in biologyNaomiFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePhysicsKatuoMalePhysicsKatuoMalePhysicsKatuoMalePhysicsKatuaFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAktushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleMalematicsMakiPNABiologyElsijiMaleMalematicsJaisukeMalePhysicsChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKatuiMaleChemistry, scienceKatuiMaleChemistry, scienceKinaFemaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKatuiMale					
YuukiMaleElectronicsHideoMaleEngineering ScienceMasaMaleScience EngineeringAkitaMaleEngineering scienceMiharuFemaleElectronics and materials physicsFurniyaMalePNANaokiMaleITKaitoMalePNAKotaMalePhysicsKentaMalePhysicsKentaMaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawMiwaFemaleLawMiwaFemaleLawMisayaMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMalePhysicsMakiPNABiologyKaitaMaleChemistryShokoFemaleLawMiwaFemaleLawMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyKasuoMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMale	-				
HideoMaleEngineering ScienceMasaMaleScience EngineeringAkitaMaleEngineering scienceMiharuFemaleElectronics and materials physicsFurniyaMalePNANaokiMaleITKaitoMalePNAKotaMalePhysicsKentaMaleBiological scienceNaomiFemaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePhysicsKoheiMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkithikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleBiologyAkithikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleBiologyAkithikoMaleLawMisaMaleLawMisaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyKikikiMaleMathematicsJapanese historyInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleMathematicsJaisukeMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleScienceChikaoKaleScienceKatsuoMaleScience <td></td> <td></td> <td></td>					
MasaMaleScience EngineeringAkitaMaleEngineering scienceMiharuFemaleElectronics and materials physicsFumiyaMalePNANaokiMaleITKaitoMalePhysicsKotaMalePhysicsKentaMaleBiological scienceNaomiFemaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkitikikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawMiwaFemaleLawItainoMaleLawMisaMaleLawMisaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HiroyaMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleBiologyKinaFemaleScienceMakiPNABiologyKinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HiroyaMaleMaleHiroyaMaleMalematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleNatematicsDaisukeMaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceKatsuoMaleScienceKenjiMaleScience <trr>KenjiMaleSc</trr>					
AkitaMaleEngineering scienceMiharuFemaleElectronics and materials physicsFumiyaMalePNANaokiMaleITKaitoMalePNAKotaMalePhysicsKentaMaleMathematics, Information ScienceNaomiFemaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePNAKoheiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawMiwaFemaleLawIsaonMaleLawIsaonMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HirayaMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleBiologyKasuhiMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyKasuhMaleMathematicsKinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleAthematicsDaisukeMaleChemistry, scienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceKenjiMaleScience <trr>KenjiMaleScience<trr>Kenji<td>Hideo</td><td>Male</td><td>Engineering Science</td></trr></trr>	Hideo	Male	Engineering Science		
MiharuFemaleElectronics and materials physicsFumiyaMalePNANaokiMaleITKaitoMalePNAKotaMalePhysicsKentaMaleMathematics, Information ScienceNaomiFemaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePNAKoheiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawMiwaFemaleLawIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleMatematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMatematicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleBiologyEtsujiMaleMatematicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceKatsuoMaleScienceKenjiMaleScienceKatsuoMaleScienceKatsuoFemaleScienceKatsuoFemaleScienceKatsuoFemaleScienceKatsuoFemaleScienceKatsuoKaleScienceKatsuoKaleScienceKatsuoKaleScienceKatsuoKale					
FumiyaMalePNANaokiMaleITKaitoMalePNAKotaMalePhysicsKentaMaleMathematics, Information ScienceNaomiFemaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePNAKohciMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEsujiMaleMathematicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleEconomicsKatsuoMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEsujiMaleMathematicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Akita	Male			
NaokiMaleITKaitoMalePNAKotaMalePhysicsKentaMaleMathematics, Information ScienceNaomiFemaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePNAKoheiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawMiwaFemaleLawIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKatsuoMaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikao	Miharu	Female	Electronics and materials physics		
KaitoMalePNAKotaMalePhysicsKentaMaleMathematics, Information ScienceNaomiFemaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePNAKoheiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleMathematicsHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKatsuoMaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScience<	Fumiya	Male	PNA		
KotaMalePhysicsKentaMaleMathematics, Information ScienceNaomiFemaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePNAKoheiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleLawIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyAtsushiMaleConomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceKenjiMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Naoki	Male	IT		
KentaMaleMathematics, Information ScienceNaomiFemaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePNAKoheiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleBiologyAkikiPNABiologyAkikiPNABiologyTakamiFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleCenomicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceKenjiMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Kaito	Male	PNA		
NaomiFemaleBiological scienceSakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePNAKoheiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleSologyHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceChikaoMaleFemaleFemaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceChikaoMaleFemaleShokoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScienceChikaoFemaleScie	Kota	Male	Physics		
SakuraFemaleScience, major in biologyKosukeMalePNAKoheiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceKenjiMaleScienceKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Kenta	Male	Mathematics, Information Science		
KosukeMalePNAKoheiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleBiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Naomi	Female	Biological science		
KoheiMalePhysicsKazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleBiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Sakura	Female	Science, major in biology		
KazutoMaleChemistryShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Kosuke	Male	PNA		
ShokoFemaleBiologyAkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceKenjiMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Kohei	Male	Physics		
AkihikoMaleLawMiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleBiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceKenjiMaleScienceKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Kazuto	Male	Chemistry		
MiwaFemaleLawAtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceKenjiMaleScienceKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceKatsuoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Shoko	Female	Biology		
AtsushiMaleJapanese historyIchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMaleScienceChikaoMaleScienceKenjiMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceKatsuoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceKatsuoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Akihiko	Male	Law		
IchiroMaleLawIsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Miwa	Female	Law		
IsaoMaleEconomicsRinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceKatsuoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Atsushi	Male	Japanese history		
RinaFemaleInternational public policy (school of law)HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Ichiro	Male	Law		
HisayaMaleEconomicsHiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceKatsuoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Isao	Male	Economics		
HiroyaMaleMathematicsMakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleBiologyKenjiMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Rina	Female	International public policy (school of law)		
MakiPNABiologyEtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Hisaya	Male	Economics		
EtsujiMaleMathematicsDaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Hiroya	Male	Mathematics		
DaisukeMalePhysicsTakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Maki	PNA	Biology		
TakamiFemaleScienceChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Etsuji	Male	Mathematics		
ChikaoMaleChemistry, scienceKenjiMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Daisuke	Male	Physics		
KenjiMaleBiologyKatsuoMaleScienceChisakoFemaleScience	Takami	Female	Science		
Katsuo     Male     Science       Chisako     Female     Science	Chikao	Male	Chemistry, science		
Chisako Female Science	Kenji	Male	Biology		
	Katsuo	Male	Science		
Jinichi Male Physics	Chisako	Female	Science		
	Jinichi	Male	Physics		

MatsukiMaleEconomicsChiakiFemaleLiterary artsMotokiMaleEconomicsNaoyaMaleEconomicsNobuhiroMaleLawUmekoFemaleGeographyYumiFemaleEngineering scienceNanaseFemaleEngineering scienceRyoheiMaleEngineering scienceRikiyaMaleEngineering scienceShinzoMaleEngineering scienceTadashiMaleChemistryTakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceYataruMaleEngineering scienceYataruMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMayaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceNyokoFemaleLawNoramiFemaleLawNozomiFemaleLawNozomiFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleEngineering Sc	Itaru	Male	Mathematics
MotokiMaleEconomicsNaoyaMaleEconomicsNaoyaMaleLawUmekoFemaleGeographyYumiFemaleEngineering scienceNanaseFemaleEngineering scienceNanaseFemaleEngineering scienceRyoheiMaleEngineering scienceRikiyaMaleEngineering scienceShinzoMaleEngineering scienceTadashiMaleChemistryTakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMayaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNorkoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseSakkoMaleEngineering ScienceNirkaFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSukoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChinese <td>Matsuki</td> <td>Male</td> <td>Economics</td>	Matsuki	Male	Economics
NaoyaMaleEconomicsNobuhiroMaleLawUmekoFemaleGeographyYumiFemaleEngineering scienceNanaseFemaleEngineering scienceRyoheiMaleEngineering scienceRikiyaMaleEngineering scienceShinzoMaleEngineering scienceTakashiMaleChemistryTakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMaayaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleEngineering ScienceSukkeMaleEngineering ScienceSukkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleFinanceSukkoFemaleFinanceSukkoFemaleForeign language	Chiaki	Female	Literary arts
NobuhiroMaleLawUmekoFemaleGeographyYumiFemaleEngineering scienceNanaseFemaleEngineering scienceRyoheiMaleEngineering scienceRikiyaMaleEngineering ScienceShinzoMaleEngineering ScienceTadashiMaleChemistryTakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceTatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceVataruMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNorikoFemaleLawNorikoFemaleFinanceSukkaFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleLawNozomiFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineer	Motoki	Male	Economics
UmekoFemaleGeographyYumiFemaleEngineering scienceNanaseFemaleEngineering scienceRyoheiMaleEngineering scienceRikiyaMaleEngineering ScienceShinzoMaleEngineering ScienceTadashiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakishiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleLawNozomiFemaleLawNozomiFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleElectronics	Naoya	Male	Economics
YumiFemaleEngineering scienceNanaseFemaleEngineering scienceRyoheiMaleEngineering scienceRikiyaMaleEngineering ScienceShinzoMaleEngineering ScienceTadashiMaleChemistryTakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceWataruMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMaleElectronicsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleChineseSakooFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleMec	Nobuhiro	Male	Law
NanaseFemaleEngineering scienceRyoheiMaleEngineering scienceRikiyaMaleEngineering ScienceShinzoMaleEngineering ScienceTadashiMaleChemistryTakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTatuyaMaleEngineering scienceWataruMaleEngineering scienceYoshioMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseSunikaFemaleChineseSunikaFemaleChineseSunikaFemaleChineseSukeMaleEngineering ScienceSunikaFemaleChineseSukeMaleEngineering ScienceSunikaFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSunikaFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSunikaFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSunikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleMachanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Umeko	Female	Geography
RyoheiMaleEngineering scienceRikiyaMaleEngineering ScienceShinzoMaleEngineering ScienceTadashiMaleChemistryTakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceWataruMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseSuikaFemaleLawMozomiFemaleChineseSakkoMaleEngineering ScienceSuikaFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleElectronics	Yumi	Female	Engineering science
RikiyaMaleEngineering ScienceShinzoMaleEngineering ScienceTadashiMaleChemistryTakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceWataruMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNorikoFemaleChineseSaukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleSciologyFusaMaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNorikoFemaleChineseSaukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleElectronics	Nanase	Female	Engineering science
ShinzoMaleEngineering ScienceTadashiMaleChemistryTakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceWataruMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleElectronicsSumikaSemaleElectronics<	Ryohei	Male	Engineering science
TadashiMaleChemistryTakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceWataruMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakoMaleFinanceNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseSakaMaleFinanceRiskaFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseSakaMaleEngineering ScienceNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseSinkaMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleKechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Rikiya	Male	Engineering Science
TakishiMaleElectronicsTomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceWataruMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakooMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleElectronicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Shinzo	Male	Engineering Science
TomokiMaleEngineering scienceTakuMaleEngineering scienceTatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceWataruMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleChineseSamaMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleMaleSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceDaigoMaleElectronics	Tadashi	Male	Chemistry
TakuMaleEngineering scienceTatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceWataruMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseBisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleLawNoromoFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Takishi	Male	Electronics
TatsuyaMaleEngineering scienceWataruMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemalePNAMaayaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleLawNozomiFemaleForeign languageSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleElectronics	Tomoki	Male	Engineering science
WataruMaleLinguisticsSaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemalePNAMaayaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNorikoFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleChineseSumikaFemaleLagenering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMonoFemaleHechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Taku	Male	Engineering science
SaoriFemaleLiteratureYoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemalePNAMaayaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleElectronicsMaleForeign languageMomoMaleElectronics	Tatsuya	Male	Engineering science
YoshioMalePNAMikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemalePNAMaayaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleChineseSunikaFemaleChineseSunikaFemaleLawSunikaFemaleChineseSunikaMaleEngineering ScienceSunikaFemaleForeign languageMonoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Wataru	Male	Linguistics
MikiFemaleArt HistoryAkariFemalePNAMaayaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleChineseSisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMonoFemaleElectronics	Saori	Female	Literature
AkariFemalePNAMaayaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleForeign languageSumikaFemaleElectronicsManoFemaleForeign language	Yoshio	Male	PNA
MaayaFemaleSociologyFusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Miki	Female	Art History
FusaMaleConsultingReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMonoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Akari	Female	PNA
ReikaFemaleChineseSakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Maaya	Female	Sociology
SakkoMaleFinanceRyokoFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMonoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Fusa	Male	Consulting
RyokoFemaleJapaneseNorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Reika	Female	Chinese
NorikoFemaleLawNozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Sakko	Male	Finance
NozomiFemaleChineseEisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Ryoko	Female	Japanese
EisukeMaleEngineering ScienceSumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Noriko	Female	Law
SumikaFemaleForeign languageMomoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Nozomi	Female	Chinese
MomoFemaleMechanicsDaigoMaleElectronics	Eisuke	Male	Engineering Science
Daigo     Male     Electronics	Sumika	Female	Foreign language
	Momo	Female	Mechanics
Saya Female English	Daigo	Male	Electronics
	Saya	Female	English