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Book Reviews

June 2017 Foreword

by Jun (Scott) Chen Hsieh

Welcome to the June issue of Asian EFL Journal in 2017. Including six research articles and two book reviews, this issue explores diverse topics essential to the field of teaching and learning English as a second/foreign language. Specifically, it addresses tablet technology, culture and intercultural competence, translocal literacy practices, teachers' career choice motivations, challenges of researching and publishing in English departments, and L2 motivational self system. This issue also covers reviews of books concerning foreign language education and discourse analysis. Such diversity is also embodied by the inclusion of authors from different geographic regions around the globe, well demonstrating the vitality of the Asian EFL community.

This issue opens with a research paper proposed by Sompatu Vungthong, Emilia Djonov, and Jane Torr. Their study, entitled, "Factors contributing to Thai teachers' uptake of tablet technology in EFL primary classrooms", focused on factors influencing whether and how teachers adopt tablet technology in EFL classrooms, particularly in Thailand. Their examination of 213 questionnaires by Grade 2 EFL teachers in Thailand revealed the importance of teachers' perspectives about the potential of EFL apps to support language learning in deciding the use of tablets in the classroom. Pedagogical implications and suggestions for future design and implementation of similar projects are provided.

In "Role of Culture and Intercultural Competence in University Language Teacher Training Programmes", Salim Razı and Mustafa Tekin examined the opinions of academics and trainee teachers at language teaching departments by specifically probing into the cultural components integrated into language teaching. The inventory results demonstrated higher values for such cultural components as *country* and *means of communication* in comparison to *weather conditions* and *travel habits* in terms of inclusion in language teaching curriculums. While these cultural components might prevail across different language departments, differences between several

categories of the scale and participants in different classes were also found. This article brings new insights for researchers and instructors who are interested in integrating cultural components into the field of language teaching.

Seonmin Huh and Young-Mee Suh, in their article entitled "Translocal Literacy Practices with Korean Local Readers of English", described the ways Korean readers of English engage in translocal literacy as a way of imagining others' lives and critiquing the social issues they have identified. The results indicated that in local readers' translocal literacy practices, imagination plays a vital role in making the silenced or unknown perspectives visible. What's equally important is the potential of dynamic localities to local readers' imaginations. The understanding of local learners' translocal literacy practices sheds light on the practice pf translocal literacy in diverse local settings in light of critical literacy research.

Mehmet Sercan Uztosun and Ece Zehir Topkaya, in "A Cross-national Study into Pre-service EFL Teachers' Career Choice Motivations in Germany, Japan, and Turkey", examined cross-national career choice motivations and beliefs about the teaching profession among pre-service English teachers. Significant differences in all of the motivational constructs were found, including self-perception, intrinsic, personal utility, social utility, social influence, and fallback. Such findings yield insight into career choice motivations held by pre-service EFL teachers from different nations. The role of context in career choice motivations and beliefs about the teaching profession are also discussed in this article.

With regard to "Researching and Publishing in the English Departments of Chinese Tertiary Institutions: Status and Challenges", David Coniam, Wen Zhao, Yangyu Xiao, and Peter Falvey addressed how academics perceived and viewed the teaching-research nexus in English departments in Chinese higher education institutions. The article shows not only constant pressure created by the need to research and publish but also varying strategies employed to deal with such pressure. Coping strategies to mitigate tensions in the teaching-research nexus among institutional academic leaders are also included. This article can serve as guidance for researchers and educators who are interested in issues concerning researching and publishing in Chinese higher education institutions.

In the following article entitled "Exploring the L2 Motivational Self System of Japanese Study Abroad Students", Gwendolyn M. Williams and Eleni Oikonomidoy described a qualitative study of the motivations that undergraduate Japanese students had about their study abroad experiences. By specifically looking into how different types of motivation affected the students' outlook and actions concerning studying abroad, the results highlighted the students' ideal self in motivating them to study abroad. This article concludes with the criticality for academic personnel to understand and recognize the impact of classroom procedures, the teachers, the content, and grades on the students' motivation to learn English.

We hope you find the articles in this June 2017 issue to be informative, inspiring, and comprehensive. Bearing in mind the contribution to continuous improvement in English language instruction around the world, we sincerely hope that this issue helps provide new insights into the formulation of future research and innovations for EFL/ESL practitioners in cross-border, interdisciplinary, and collaborative manners. We would like to express our sincere appreciation to the contributors and reviewers of articles and book reviews who have made this issue possible.

Factors contributing to Thai teachers' uptake of tablet technology in EFL primary classrooms

Sompatu Vungthong, Emilia Djonov, & Jane Torr

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Bio data

Sompatu Vungthong recently obtained her PhD from Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia, and a lecturer at King Mongkut's University of Technology Thonburi, Bangkok, Thailand. Her research interests include EFL learning and teaching, critical discourse analysis, and social semiotics. She has published in journals (e.g. *TESOL Quarterly*) and written a book chapter (in Identity: Beyond Tradition and McWorld Neoliberalism).

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Emilia Djonov is a lecturer in Faculty of Human Sciences, Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia. Her research interests and publications are in the areas of (critical) multimodal and hypermedia discourse analysis, social semiotics, visual communication, multimodal learning and multiliteracies education. She has published in journals such as *Visual Communication*, *Semiotica*, *Social Semiotics*, and *Text & Talk*, and co-edited the volume *Critical Multimodal Studies of Popular Discourse* (Routledge, 2014, with Sumin Zhao).

Jane Torr is an honorary Associate Professor in Faculty of Human Sciences, Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia. Her research interests include children's early language and emergent literacy development, children's responses to picture books, and educator-child talk in long day care nurseries. She has published in journals such as *Journal of Early Childhood Literacy*, *Early Childhood Research Quarterly* and *Early Childhood Education Journal*.

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Abstract

The enthusiasm for using tablets in education has been witnessed in several countries including Thailand. One Tablet Per Child (OTPC) introduced by the Thai government in 2011 involves tablet distribution to primary school students and application development. English as a foreign language (EFL) applications in OTPC tablets hold much promise to address the challenges of insufficiently qualified EFL teachers and students' limited exposure to English. Despite this potential, little is known about the factors influencing whether and how teachers adopt this technology in EFL classrooms. Through an analysis of 213 questionnaires completed by Grade 2 EFL teachers in Thailand, this study revealed factors influencing teachers' decisions to use the tablets in the classroom, including their views about the potential of the EFL app to support children's language learning. The study's findings have implications for policy makers and other stakeholders involved in the design and implementation of similar projects in the future.

Key words: primary teachers; EFL; technology in the classroom; Thailand

Introduction

Computer technology has the potential to enhance foreign language learning and teaching in various ways (Evans, 2009), such as increasing opportunities for students to interact with native speakers of the target language. Among new technologies, portable tablet PCs have attracted considerable funding as a means of supporting children's learning (e.g. "One Tablet Per Child" in Ethiopia (OLPC, 2012)), including their learning of English as a foreign language (EFL). Tablets are viewed as particularly suitable for young children due to their portability (McLester, 2012), relatively low cost, stylus interface (deemed more ergonomic for children than a keyboard or a mouse; see Matthews & Seow, 2007; Payton, 2008), and the ease with which various educational applications can be integrated into classroom activities (e.g. Sibley & McKethan, 2012). They may also help promote elementary school students' reading motivation (Lan, Sung & Chang, 2007) and provide an interactive and collaborative environment for language learning (Chen, 2013).

One project involving the development of EFL teaching materials for tablets is Thailand's One Tablet Per Child (OTPC). This large-scale project aims to support students' learning in the digital world. It was introduced in 2011 with the support of the Thai Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Information and Communication Technology, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Office of

the Prime Minister. By 2013 OTPC had already cost more than five billion baht (or 152.8 million US dollars) (Ministry of Education, Thailand, 2013). OTPC started with Grade 1 students in 2012 and Grade 2 students in 2013. Tablet PCs were distributed to primary school students, tablet applications were developed and teachers attended tablet-training workshops.

The application (or app) for Grade 2 Thai students embedded in the OTPC tablet features learning materials for various subjects including mathematics, Thai language, science and English. The Grade 2 English app, which is the focus of this study, consists of eight sections: Vocabulary, Let's listen, Let's read, Let's study, Let's talk, Songs, Exercises and Games. Grade 2 teachers were given the freedom to decide whether they would use the app in their teaching.

Recognising the importance of English as a global language (Harumi, 2002), many non-English-speaking countries have devoted significant resources to increasing their citizens' English proficiency, including making English a compulsory school subject. In Thailand, EFL, the focus of this study, has been a compulsory subject for all students from Grade 1 since 1996 (Foley, 2005), and the achievement of certain standards in English proficiency tests such as TOEIC (Test of English for International Communication) is a requirement for most professional job applications. However, partly due to the paucity of qualified EFL teachers and children's limited exposure to English, the English proficiency of many Thai citizens is quite low (Noom-ura, 2013). Initiatives such as the Thai OTPC project that support the development and implementation of EFL teaching materials incorporated in computer technologies, therefore, hold much promise for addressing these challenges. Nevertheless, significant gaps exist in our understanding of the factors that influence their uptake in the primary classroom. This paper aims to address this question by examining those factors that play a role in whether – and, if so, how – teachers in Thailand use the Grade 2 English app installed on the OTPC tablets.

Literature review

The successful uptake and use of computer technologies relies largely on teachers' decisions and actions, which are in turn influenced by their attitudes and beliefs (e.g. Blankenship, 1998; Bullock, 2004). Many studies report secondary school and tertiary teachers' attitudes towards computer use for EFL learning and teaching as predominantly positive (e.g. Dashtestani, 2012; Park & Son, 2009). Yet positive attitudes do not guarantee successful use of the technology in language classrooms (e.g. Dashtestani, 2012). It is therefore important to move beyond the question of

positive or negative attitudes and examine the reasons why teachers either adopt or reject computer technologies in their classroom and how those who do embrace computer technologies actually use them.

Factors influencing secondary school and university teachers' decisions on whether or not to use computer technologies in EFL classrooms can be divided into two main groups: institution-related and teacher-related. Institution-related factors include availability of computer resources (e.g. Li, 2014) and administrative support (e.g. Park & Son, 2009). Teacher-related factors involve teachers' perception of the usefulness of a given technology for teaching and learning (e.g. Li, 2014; Mai & Hong, 2014), teachers' training (e.g. Chen, 2008), and teachers' confidence and competence in using computer technologies (Li, 2014).

Various barriers to teachers' successful implementation of computer technologies in the EFL classroom have also been explored, for example, time constraints (e.g. Park & Son, 2009), insufficient training and technical support (e.g. Dashtestani, 2012), rigid school curricula (e.g. Park & Son, 2009) and a lack of computer-based facilities (e.g. Dashtestani, 2012; Park & Son, 2009).

Despite the considerable body of research into factors affecting teachers' uptake of computer technologies in EFL classrooms, there are significant gaps in our understanding of this area. Firstly, while secondary school and university teachers have received much attention, early childhood and primary school teachers' attitudes towards computer technology for EFL learning have not – even though EFL is introduced in Grade 1 in many countries including Thailand (Foley, 2005) and regularly involves computer-assisted language learning (CALL). Among the few studies addressing teachers of younger EFL students is Li and Ni (2011), whose analysis of questionnaires completed by 72 EFL primary school teachers in China revealed that teachers used computer technology mainly for teaching preparation and presentation, and their attitudes towards technology influenced the frequency of their technology use in the classroom.

Secondly, most research focuses on computer technologies in general. For instance, Park and Son's (2009) analysis of questionnaires completed by and interviews with 12 EFL secondary school teachers in Korea explored teachers' views about CALL and factors affecting their use of CALL. While this study points out the role of teachers' perceptions of CALL and lack of time and computer facilities as important factors, it is based on a very small number of participants and considers neither specific types of computer technologies and their functions, nor variations in the quality of different brands of the same technology.

Similarly, in the field of EFL, in contrast to research on first and second language learning, teachers' views on the potential of different technologies and the teaching materials accessed through them to support specific aspects of language learning have received very limited attention. An example of research into teachers' views of computer-assisted language learning for English as a second language (ESL) and children's English skill development is Al-Awidi and Ismail's (2014) study, in which 145 teachers of children in kindergarten to third grade in government schools in the United Arab Emirates were surveyed, and 16 of them interviewed. The researchers asked teachers to consider the potential of computer technology to support specific aspects of children's English reading proficiency (e.g. phonemic and phonological awareness). Their focus, however, was on computer technology in general, not on a specific type of technology or the teaching materials deployed with it.

The present study will extend existing research into factors influencing EFL teachers' use of new technologies, with a focus on primary school teachers' views on the potential of a specific technology and a specific set of learning materials to support students' EFL learning. Specifically, it examines the factors influencing Thai teachers' uptake of the Grade 2 English OTPC tablet app and their views about the app's potential to enhance children's EFL learning. In particular, it investigates the following questions:

1. What factors influenced teachers' decisions to use the Grade 2 EFL tablet app in the classroom? Specifically, did the following factors influence this decision, and if so how?

   1.1) Demographic variables: Gender, age, years of teaching, education, type of school and training

   1.2) Teachers' confidence in their own English speaking, writing, listening, and reading skills

   1.3) Beliefs regarding the app: whether it (1) responds to the curriculum, (2) motivates students' involvement in learning activities, (3) helps children develop English speaking, writing, listening and reading skills, (4) is enjoyed by the students and (5) supports teaching.

2. What reasons prevented teachers from using the Grade 2 tablet app in EFL classrooms?

3. What were teachers' views about the potential of the Grade 2 app to support children's EFL learning?

Methodology

Participants

As this study involves human participants, ethics approval is needed and has been granted by the researchers' university. This study focused on 213 Grade 2 teachers teaching EFL in Bangkok, Thailand, who had completed a questionnaire about the OTPC project and the Grade 2 English app. Out of 213 teachers, 42 (19.72%) were male and 171 (80.28%) female. Their age ranged from 20 to over 55 years as indicated in Table 1 and their years of teaching experience varied as can be seen in Table 2.

Table 1
Teacher participants' age

Age	20-24	25-29	30-34	35-39	40-44	45-49	50-54	≥ 55
Number of respondents	2	33	48	47	26	16	23	18
Percentage	0.94	15.49	22.54	22.07	12.21	7.51	10.79	8.45

Table 2
Teacher participants' years of teaching experience

Years	0-2	3-5	6-10	11-15	16-20	≥ 20
Number of respondents	62	45	45	32	13	16
Percentage	29.11	21.13	21.13	15.02	6.1	7.51

The participants' teaching qualifications were: a bachelor's degree (155 respondents/72.77%), a master's degree (46 respondents/21.6%), a graduate diploma (10 respondents/4.69%), and a diploma (2 respondents/0.94%).

The majority of the participants were teaching in government-funded primary schools (181 respondents/84.98%) and the remainder (32 respondents/15.02%) in private schools.

Data collection

Five hundred questionnaires were sent to Grade 2 EFL teachers working at primary schools in

Bangkok, Thailand in early 2014; 213 were completed and returned. The questionnaire was developed to explore factors influencing teachers' decisions to adopt or reject the EFL tablet app for use in the classroom and their views about its potential to support children's EFL learning. The questionnaire was written in Thai (rather than English) with the aim of eliciting both more responses to the survey, and more detailed responses. The questionnaire was divided into five main sections (See Table 3). However, some respondents did not complete all the sections.

Table 3
The five sections of the questionnaire for Grade 2 teachers

Section	Topic		Types of questions
1	Demographic information		-Yes/No - Multiple choice
2	OTPC project information		Yes/No
3	Part I: Views about the use of the OTPC app and children's learning of English Part II: Views about EFL		-Yes/No/Undecided
4	Views about the use of the app and children's learning of English		Open-ended
5	Views about the Grade 2 OTPC tablet application	Part I: Ranking the 8 sections in the app	Ranking order
		Part II: Attitudes towards the app	Open-ended
		Part III: Interview agreement	Yes/No

Data analysis

The questionnaire data analysed for this article comprise responses to three main types of questions: yes-no, multiple choice and open-ended questions. Yes/no and multiple choice answers were designed to encourage teachers to consider some factors identified by previous research as playing a role in teachers' decisions to integrate technology in the classroom such as demographic variables (i.e. gender, age, years of teaching, education, type of school and training) and teachers' beliefs regarding the use of a given technology. This study also explores some factors which have not been investigated in previous studies such as teachers' confidence in their English reading, writing,

speaking and listening skills. Open-ended questions, on the other hand, were designed to encourage teachers to share information about additional factors and to provide more detail.

A chi-square test of independence was used to reveal the relationships (if any) between variables from the yes-no and multiple choice questions, with the alpha level of significance (the p value) set at 0.05. It was expected that no more than 20% of cells would have a count of less than 5 and none a count of less than 1. Cross-tabulation was also used to analyse whether and how any two variables relate.

Responses to the open-ended questions were subject to content analysis. Content analysis can be defined as "a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matters) to the context of their use" (Krippendorff, 2013, p. 24). Content analysis involves counting textual elements (concepts) and reporting "the frequency with which a concept appears in texts" (Berg, 2007, p. 243) and relies on the coding and categorising of data (Stemler, 2001). Firstly, through our preliminary examination of the data, we looked for repeated textual elements in the open-ended responses in order to identify themes. A theme can be "a simple sentence, a string of words with a subject and a predicate" (Berg, 2007, p. 244) as well as, particularly in responses to survey questions, a sentence fragment (e.g. a single word or phrase). After the development of theme categories, data were coded accordingly. For each question, we counted the number of people who identified each theme.

As a reliability measure, an inter-coder reliability test was conducted on the open-ended questions. A second coder coded a random sample of 42 questionnaires or around 20% of data (each of which included various open-ended questions) according to a coding scheme which featured the categories established through inductive category development with themes as the coding units. The test, which used Cohen's Kappa inter-coder reliability method, revealed a coefficient of 0.941 (p < .001), showing the coding to be highly reliable (See table 4).

Table 4

The Cohen's Kappa Inter-coder Reliability Coefficient

	Value	Asymp. Std. Error[a]	Approx. T[b]	Approx. Sig.
Measure of Agreement Kappa	.941	.026	20.518	.000
N of Valid Cases	107			

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Findings

What factors influenced teachers' decisions to use the Grade 2 EFL tablet app in the classroom?

Demographic variables: Gender, age, years of teaching, education, type of school and training

A chi-square test revealed that age and training related significantly to the teachers' decision to use the Grade 2 app in the EFL classroom, (1) $\chi^2(7, N = 213) = 14.69$, p = .04 and (2) $\chi^2(1, N = 213) = 12.641$, p < .001 respectively. The cross-tabulation table demonstrated that the younger teachers were more likely to use the tablet app than those aged 40 and over, and that, regardless of age, those who attended the tablet training workshops were more likely to use the app in their classrooms than those who did not.

However, no significant relationship was found between the decision to use the tablet app and the other demographic variables. Gender, years of teaching, education and type of school did not significantly relate to the teachers' decision to use the Grade 2 app in their EFL classrooms, (1) $\chi^2(1, N = 213) = 1.628$, p = .202, (2) $\chi^2(5, N = 213) = 7.703$, p = .173, (3) $\chi^2(3, N = 213) = 5.78$, p = .123 and (4) $\chi^2(1, N = 213) = 0.007$, p = .931 respectively.

Confidence in English skills: Speaking, writing, listening, and reading

Teachers' confidence in English speaking skills had a significant relationship with their decision to use the app in EFL classrooms ($\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 6.252$, p = .044): those confident in their English speaking skills were more likely to use the app than those who were not. Confidence in English writing and English listening, on the other hand, did not relate significantly to this decision. For writing, the relation was $\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 1.559$, p = .459, and for listening $\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 4.138$, p = .126. A significant relationship between the decision to use the app and Grade 2 EFL teachers' confidence in their English reading skills could not be ascertained either, as the chi-square test ($\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 9.568$, p = .008) produced 2 cells (33.3%) with a count of less than 5 (exceeding 20%).

Beliefs regarding the use of the tablet app

The EFL teachers' decision to use the app in their classrooms had a significant relationship with the belief that the app responds to the curriculum, $\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 12.366$, p = .002, and the belief

that the app supports their teaching, $\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 14.641, p < .001$. Cross-tabulation revealed that teachers who agreed that the app responds to the curriculum and/or supports their teaching were more likely to integrate the app into their classroom practice than those who did not.

Teachers' views on whether the app motivates students' engagement in learning activities and supports the development of their EFL speaking, writing or reading skills did not significantly relate to the teachers' decision to use the Grade 2 EFL app: (1) $\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 4.331, p = .115$, (2) $\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 4.067, p = .131$, (3) $\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 1.003, p = .606$, and (4) $\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 2.073, p = .355$ respectively. The decision to use the app did not significantly relate to teachers' beliefs that students enjoy the app and that the app supports their EFL listening skills either: ($\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 17.389, p < .001$ and $\chi^2(2, N = 170) = 8.421, p = .002$) for 33.3% of the cells have expected count less than 5 (exceeding 20%).

What reasons prevented teachers from using the Grade 2 tablet app in EFL classrooms?

Responses to the questionnaire revealed several problems identified by teachers as barriers to the successful integration of the app in the classroom. One hundred thirty-eight teachers answered this question (some teachers pointing out more than one aspect). Figure 1 shows the frequency of each theme reported by the teachers.
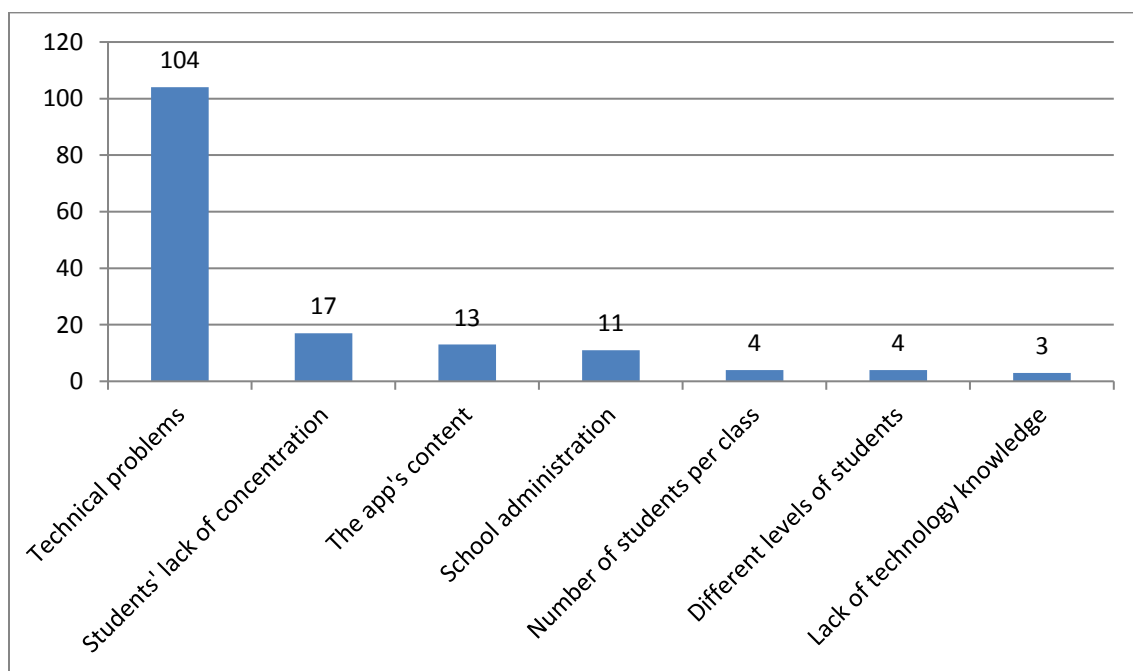

Figure 1. Reasons preventing teachers from using the tablet app in EFL classrooms

The most prominent issue reported by the teachers (75.36%/104 respondents) was the tablet's poor quality, rather than the app itself. The problems cited included: programming errors and slow downloading; short battery life; problems with the headphones and sound system; overheating; and difficulties in connecting to the internet.

Students' lack of concentration emerged as the second most significant problem identified by teachers (12.32%/17 respondents). Teachers explained that this prevented students from successfully following instructions on how to use the app for learning. It also required teachers to supervise students closely so that they stay focused on the relevant lesson or section, rather than switching to the games section, for example.

The third type of problem teachers reported related to the app's content itself (9.42%/13 respondents), with six stating that it does not reflect the curriculum, three explaining that its lack of focus on writing skills meant they would not use the app, and two teachers criticising the lack of a test for speaking skills in the app. One teacher viewed the app's contents as too advanced and another said that it introduces too little vocabulary.

Teachers also cited resourcing and administrative constraints (7.97%/11 respondents). Five stated that insufficient teaching time prevented them from using the app in the classrooms; three did not have direct and easy access to the tablets as they were kept at the school's resource centre; two reported having no projector, which they believed was needed for successfully integrating the app in their teaching; and one stated that the school's IT staff did not install the Grade 2 EFL app on the tablets.

Some teachers reported class management issues: four respondents (2.9%) reported difficulties related to the different pace at which students would complete activities in the app and four reported difficulties with providing effective supervision and instruction for activities involving the app in classes with a large number of students (up to 40 per class).

Finally, three of the respondents (2.17%) viewed their lack of knowledge and skills in using tablet technology as the main hindrance to integrating the app in an EFL classroom.

What were teachers' views about the potential of the Grade 2 app to support children's EFL learning?

One hundred thirty-eight teachers answered the open-ended question in the questionnaire, "Do you believe the OTPC tablet app for Grade 2 English has the potential to support students' EFL learning?

If so, in what ways?" and some of them pointed out more than one aspect. The frequency of each theme (i.e. how many teachers identified the theme) is as shown in Figure 2.
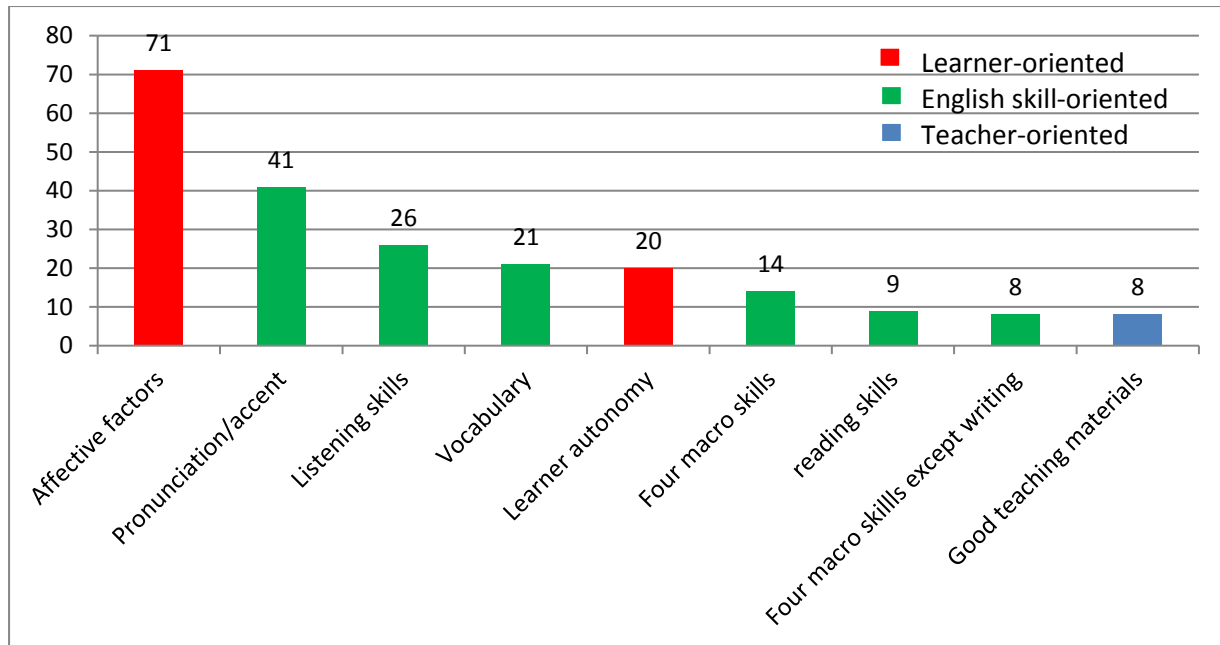
Figure 2. Potentials of the tablet app to support children's EFL learning reported by Grade 2 teachers

The themes can be categorised into three broad groups: learner-oriented, EFL skill-oriented and teacher-oriented. Learner-oriented themes include affective factors and learner autonomy. A small majority of teachers (51.45%/71 respondents) cited affective factors or the potential of the tablet app to motivate children to learn EFL or to develop good attitudes towards EFL learning. Examples of answers that fall into this category are "Children enjoy the app", "Students do not feel bored" and "Children develop a good attitude towards learning". Some teachers specifically stated that (moving) pictures embedded in the app help capture children's attention and make learning interesting. The other learner-oriented theme was learner autonomy. Twenty teachers (14.49%) saw the app as encouraging learner autonomy. They stated, for example, that "Students can learn by themselves", "Students can revise the parts they want themselves" and "Students can choose what they want to practice".

The second group consists of EFL skill-oriented themes. The most prominent theme was the app's potential to help children learn English pronunciation or to emulate a native speaker's accent

(29.71%/41 teachers), and is exemplified by answers such as "Students can learn the right accent from a native speaker" and "Students can learn how to pronounce words correctly". Such statements were categorised as a separate theme, despite the obvious connections between pronunciation and accent with the macro skills of speaking and listening. This categorisation highlights the value placed by teachers in this study on pronunciation and accent, and on the app's potential to support this particular aspect of language learning, rather than, for example, on children's English communication skills more generally.

Other EFL skills-oriented themes included listening skills, vocabulary, all four macro skills (speaking, listening, reading and writing), reading skills, and the macro skills except writing (i.e. speaking, listening and reading). The potential of the app to help develop children's listening skills was mentioned by 26 teachers (18.84%). Answers belonging to this theme include "Students learn listening skills from the app" and "Listening skills", and do not refer to specific types of listening skills. Twenty-one teachers (15.22%) also noted the app's potential to support children's vocabulary learning, stating, for example, that "Games and songs in the app make children learn vocabulary better than memorisation" and "Students learn vocabulary and know how to spell the word". Fourteen teachers said that the app could enhance all four macro skills (10.14%), in responses such as "The app helps support children's learning in terms of all four macro skills" and "Students can learn English listening, speaking, reading and writing". Nine teachers stated that the app helps develop reading skills (6.52%), while eight viewed it as having the potential to support all macro skills except writing (5.8%) as evident in responses such as "The app supports listening, speaking and reading" and "Children learn the four skills except for writing".

One theme was categorised as teacher-oriented: eight teachers (5.8%) shared the view that the app is a source of good teaching materials and supports their teaching preparation.

Discussion and implications

Motivated by the significant investment in computer-assisted language learning (CALL) worldwide and the potential of computer technologies to support children's EFL learning, this study was designed to explore factors contributing to EFL teachers' uptake of tablet computers distributed through the One Tablet Per Child (OTPC) project in Thai primary schools, including their views about the Grade 2 EFL app. The study's findings highlight the important role teachers play in implementing educational policy at classroom level, and thereby shaping the success or failure of

national educational initiatives such as the Thai OTPC project. The teachers in this study had the freedom to decide whether and how to integrate the government-distributed tablet and specific apps provided with it into their teaching. Considering the factors that contribute to teachers' uptake of new technologies in the policy making process could therefore help ensure the success of such initiatives. In this study, we identified several factors that influenced teachers' decisions to adopt the tablet app for use in their classrooms.

The first one is age. This study found that younger teachers tended to integrate technology into their teaching practice more readily than older teachers. Previous research has been ambivalent about whether age influences language teachers' use of computer technologies in the classroom (cf. Blankenship 1998). This ambivalence can be partly attributed to differences in the settings explored in these studies. Blankenship's study (1998) revealed that age contributes to preschool and Grade 2 teachers' decisions to use computer technologies but does not affect it for other grades. Another explanation for this lack of agreement may lie in differences in the types of computer technology and the content embedded in it. Our study focused on tablets within a particular national project with a specific educational app, rather than on computers in general, and older teachers may not be enthusiastic about embracing tablets as they may feel insufficiently trained in the use of this relatively new technology (see, for example, Roberts, Hutchinson, & Little, 2003).

This interpretation is reinforced by the second factor identified as contributing to teachers' decisions to adopt or reject tablets in the classroom: training. In line with previous research (e.g. Chen, 2008), the present study showed that training can encourage teachers to use a given technology in their classrooms. Teachers in this study who attended the OTPC tablet workshops, which focused on technical aspects of using the tablet and the apps, were more likely to use the tablet in their classrooms. This finding points to the importance of investing in teacher training, in addition to developing technologies and learning materials, in projects such as OTPC.

The third factor is teachers' beliefs about the technology's potential to support teaching and learning. Teachers who agreed that the app responds to the curriculum and/or that the app supports their teaching were more likely to use the app in classrooms. This finding is in accordance with previous studies showing that the uptake and use of computer technologies is linked to teachers' views about the usefulness of a given technology. At the same time, while such studies focus on computer technology in general (e.g. Li, 2014; Mai & Hong, 2014), the findings reported here highlight the importance of considering the relationship between specific learning materials (e.g.

the Grade 2 English app) accessed through specific technologies and the curriculum they are designed to support.

The last factor is teachers' confidence in their English speaking skills. No previous research we have encountered has explored the relationship between language teachers' confidence in their personal skills in one or more of the four macro skills – listening, reading, writing and speaking – and their uptake of computer-assisted language learning (CALL). This study found that teachers who were confident in their English speaking skills reported that they used the tablet app in the classroom. The teachers' answers to the open-ended questions in the questionnaire may offer a partial explanation here. The app's sound affordances were viewed as helping students' English pronunciation and listening skills. Possibly, teachers confident in their own English speaking skills felt able to make the most use of the sound affordances of the app (e.g. English-language input with native-speaker accent or pronunciation) and also to compensate for its limitations through their own English language skills (e.g. engaging children in English conversation).

In addition to these factors, this study identified the quality of computer technologies as a significant factor affecting their integration in the EFL classroom. While previous research has identified the lack of resources as a main reason preventing teachers from adopting the use of computers for teaching (e.g. Dashtestani, 2012), this study found that the quality of computer technology should be taken into consideration as well. Most teachers in this study voiced concerns over the OTPC tablet's quality. Despite the fact that each of their students was equipped with a tablet loaded with the Grade 2 EFL learning application, most teachers reported that the tablet's quality prevented them from realising the app's full potential to enhance EFL teaching and learning.

The poor quality of the tablets has implications beyond the EFL classroom as well. If new technologies are not integrated into every classroom, the digital divide between students from privileged and disadvantaged backgrounds may widen. Students from disadvantaged backgrounds are more likely to have access only to government-distributed technologies such as the OTPC tablet. If the tablet's quality prevents their teachers from integrating it into the classroom and their school – as is often the case – requires that the OTPC tablets are kept and used only at school, such students may not have opportunities to develop skills in using new digital technologies essential for academic and professional growth in the 21st century. The poor quality of the tablet can thus jeopardise the ability of the OTPC project to meet its central aim of allowing all primary school students "to be *equally* nurtured with *quality* education by using Tablet PCs as an effective tool in

their learning and accessing information of their interests" (Sririsaengtaksin, Praneetpolgrang & Tubtimhin, 2013, p. 150, emphasis added), or to contribute to increasing both quality and equity in education, the goal at the heart of Thailand's Eleventh National Economic and Social Development Plan (2012-2016) (Office of the National Economic and Social Development Board, 2012).

The findings of this study suggest that additional funding should be allocated to ensure the quality of both the computer technologies, and the teaching and learning materials designed for use with them, as access alone cannot guarantee successful implementation of the technology in the classroom. In order to fund improvements in the quality of the technology, there may need to be a reduction in the number of tablets which are distributed. Rather than one tablet per child, future projects could be designed to provide shared access to tablets or other technologies of higher quality and to maintain that quality over time (e.g. through leasing, rather than purchase, of tablets and through regular app updates).

Although the survey data cannot reveal teachers' actual classroom practices, the analysis of teachers' views about the app's potential to support children's EFL learning can shed light on their approaches to foreign language teaching. Over the past five decades, language teaching has shifted away from behaviourist models that focus on "learning through repetitive practice" and encompass the grammar-translation and audio-lingual approaches to language teaching (Davies, Otto & Rüschoff, 2013, p. 21), and towards sociocognitive models that view language as a social and cognitive phenomenon and have a more holistic focus on developing learners' communicative competence and ability to apply it in authentic contexts (Warschauer & Healey, 1998). Yet, the survey responses suggest that the teachers in this study still subscribe to behaviourist views of language teaching and learning.

Many teachers in this study emphasised the app's value for modeling native-speaker accents and correct pronunciation; while in the yes/no/undecided section of the questionnaire most teachers (61.76%) agreed that the app could help improve children's English speaking skills, their responses to the open-ended questions related this potential very closely to opportunities for students to listen to and repeat after words and phrases pronounced by native English speakers in the app, rather than to listening as part of broader conversation skills, for example. Many of the survey's respondents also stated that children learned vocabulary from the app, and some described vocabulary as the most important aspect of children's EFL learning. These views are consistent with the focus of the audio-lingual and grammar-translation approaches to language teaching, which encourage,

respectively, listening to and imitating correct pronunciation, and learning words in isolation (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2013).

The discrepancy between currently dominant approaches to language teaching and the views of language teaching and learning shared by teachers in this study may be indicative of a gap in the current professional development available for EFL teachers in Thailand. In addition to the technical skills required to use computer technologies in the classroom, professional development should also strive to improve teachers' ability to integrate computer technologies into holistic approaches to language teaching – ones that promote the learner's overall capacity to participate in authentic everyday and educational activities in English, such as conversation, reading, effective written communication and so on, rather than focusing on pronunciation or other narrowly defined skills in isolation.

Importantly, teachers' views of language learning and teaching may affect not only whether but also how they use a given technology in the EFL classroom. This is why to reveal and understand the factors that influence whether and how a new technology is integrated in the classroom, research must explore not only teachers' views but also their actual classroom practices (see further Vungthong, Djonov and Torr, under review).

In addition, most teachers in this study viewed computer technologies as a tool for motivating young students' learning and improving their attention span rather than developing specific language skills. Considering sound and visual affordances embedded in the app as well as enjoyable learning materials such as interactive games, many teachers stated that their students (around seven years old) are motivated to learn language through the app as they prefer to play rather than study. Although the concept of play-based learning, which is central to success in early childhood education (Wood & Attfield, 2005), was implied in teachers' responses, the teachers did not specify how play could support children's EFL learning. Developing a stronger understanding of children as foreign language learners is a prerequisite for designing effective play-based approaches to computer-assisted foreign language learning for children.

Conclusion

The findings of this study have significant implications for educational policy-makers, designers of computer technologies and associated teaching materials for language learning, and stakeholders involved in the implementation of such resources in EFL classrooms in primary schools. These

findings shed light on the crucial role teachers play in educational initiatives. Teachers often are the people who decide whether and how to implement educational policies into actual classroom practice, which is why considering the factors that affect teachers' uptake of new technologies early in the policy making process can help ensure success of educational initiatives involving such technologies. This study suggests that many interrelated factors can affect whether and how EFL teachers adopt a computer technology into their classrooms – age, training, teachers' beliefs about the technology's potential to support teaching and learning, teachers' confidence in their English speaking skills, and the quality of the technology. Understanding these factors is key to effectively resourcing CALL projects and providing appropriate professional development for the teachers and designers of learning materials involved in these projects.

To build a stronger understanding of the influence of these and other factors on the ways new technologies and learning materials accessible through them are integrated in teaching children EFL, however, this questionnaire-based study needs to be extended by studies that combine different methods of data collection such as interviews and observations of actual classroom practice. Future research can also provide deeper insights into teachers' broader views on computer-assisted language learning and on children as learners in general and foreign language learners in particular, and how these views relate to the implementation of computer technologies in the classroom and to student outcomes. Such insights can inform the development of guidelines for the effective design and use of computer technologies for supporting children's EFL learning.

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Role of Culture and Intercultural Competence in University Language Teacher Training Programmes

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Abstract

The present study aims at revealing the opinions of academics and trainee teachers at language teaching departments regarding the cultural components to be integrated into language teaching curricula. Inventory of Cultural Components (Razı, 2012) was administered to 620 students and 35 lecturers in the departments of English Language Teaching, German Language Teaching, Japanese Language Teaching, and Turkish Language Teaching at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University, Turkey. Descriptive statistics indicated higher values for such cultural components as country and means of communication in comparison to weather conditions and travel habits in terms of inclusion in language teaching curriculums. There were significant statistical differences between several categories of the scale and participants in different classes.

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Introduction

Training language teachers, either native or foreign, requires dealing with how to integrate culture with the target language (Baker, 2012; Nault, 2006). Due to a common belief in the existence of interaction between language and culture (Chastain, 1988; Su, 2008), language teaching curriculums are expected to familiarize learners with cultural aspects of the target language. To highlight the importance of culture, some researchers (e.g., Kramsch, 1993) even regard culture as the fifth language skill to be acquired. However, currently there is no consensus on the topics that should be presented to language learners as a part of their culture education (Baker, 2012; Bayyurt, 2006). The situation becomes even worse in the case of dealing with teaching different languages since the prioritized cultural components might vary according to the taught language. In this respect, the present study investigates which cultural components are privileged within the setting of teaching English, German and Japanese as foreign languages and Turkish as a native language.

Teaching culture, either explicitly or implicitly, has always been at the centre of language teaching (Nault, 2006). Although the pioneering researchers of the 1990s who were mainly influenced by Kramsch (1993) did not arrive at a consensus whether it was best to instruct intercultural communication (IC) on its own or to integrate it in language teaching implicitly, they did agree on the teachability of IC. However, more recent literature (e.g., Baker, 2012; Balboni & Caon, 2014; Galloway, 2013; Galloway & Rose, 2014; Jenkins; 2012) calls attention to the dynamic and ever-shifting nature of intercultural communicative competence (ICC), which makes it difficult to teach it separately. Thereby, rather than teaching ICC explicitly, awareness raising about different aspects of IC and ICC is highlighted instead of trying to teach them in the classroom.

Meyer defined ICC as "the ability of a person to behave adequately in a flexible manner when confronted with actions, attitudes and expectations of representatives of foreign cultures" (1991, p. 137). Thus, the traditional understanding of culture has been replaced by an intercultural stance (Ho, 2009). In accordance with that definition of ICC, Byram and Zarate identified an intercultural speaker as an FL learner who "crosses frontiers, and who is to some extent a specialist in the transit of cultural property and symbolic values" (1997, p. 11). International mobility has had an impact on such a shift (Canagarajah, 2007). Considering, for example, the mobility now available to members of the European Union may reveal how individuals change what they understand by "culture" (Münchow, 2012); an aspect that unavoidably supports the position of Byram (2008) who stressed that individuals now attach less importance to identities because they now have privileged

competencies.

With the advent of ICC, discussions on teaching culture in language classes changed direction in favour of ICC (see Baker, 2012). Thus, rather than simply focusing on a target culture (See Alptekin, 1993, 2002 for further elaboration on target language-culture relationship), which is directly related to the target language, aiming to create an awareness of the existing cultural plurality in today's globalized world is warranted (Nault, 2006). With regards to intercultural awareness - that is, Byram's (2008) cultural awareness - learners are primarily expected to be familiar with the components of their own culture (Ho, 2009), which in turn enables communication with people from other cultures (Baker, 2012). Thus, it is assumed that developing ICC is only possible through the development of intercultural awareness (Korzilius, van Hooft, & Planken, 2007). Learners who develop an awareness of what constitutes their own culture are then ready to search for the equivalences of their native cultural aspects in other cultures. Such an understanding also requires welcoming different cultural values (Dervin, 2010).

McArthur (1998) discussed discrimination between native and non-native speakers (NNS) and concluded that the former is superior to the latter with reference to the quality of their language. However, such discussions need to take account of Kachru's (1992) world Englishes (WE), Jenkins' (2000) and McKay's (2004) English as an International Language (EIL), Seidlhofer's (2004) English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), and finally Galloway's (2013) Global Englishes (GE) models in order to draw a clearer picture of the English speakers and their cultures in today's world. Kachru's WE paradigm categorizes different countries according to the legal status and use of English in those countries. He places the native speakers of English who dwell in such countries as the UK and USA in the inner circle. The second circle, which is called the outer circle, comprises such countries as India and Malaysia where English is not spoken as a native language but it is important because of its official role. Finally, the third circle, namely the expanding circle, includes a number of countries such as China and Turkey, in which English is neither a native language nor an official one. By considering Kachru's circles, McArthur (2001) estimated that non-native speakers of English outnumber native speakers; represented by the greater number of NNS English language teachers working in Outer- and Expanding-Circle countries (Bolton, 2006). Nevertheless, it is worthwhile considering the criticisms of Baker (2009) and Canagarajah (2006) on Kachru's circles since they are not closed and fixed and lack several important aspects, such as online communications and migration.

Although the Kachruvian WE paradigm has widely been used as a useful model in English Language Teaching Studies, it still needs to be evolved from a static perspective to a more dynamic one. From this aspect, Galloway's (2013) GE can be considered as a new and comprehensive model that brings together different discussions both on WE and ELF. As Galloway and Rose (2014) suggest, "with the increasing use of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF), it is no longer appropriate to associate English purely with 'native-speaking' nations, but with a global community of users" (p. 386).

Although in this study Kachru's WE was used to categorize English varieties, GE needs to be acknowledged as a more recent perspective as well as a persuasion on ELF discussions. Despite the abundance of theoretical ELF discussion, not much research exists when it comes to actual following of a GE-oriented paradigm in a real foreign language teaching setting, which requires also the creation and development of appropriate teaching materials and techniques. (Galloway, 2013; Galloway & Rose, 2014). Further research can be designed and conducted based on the application of a GE approach in a real language classroom. According to Galloway and Rose, an investigation into ELF interactions from a GE perspective will "better reflect the fluidity of ELF, which challenges traditional notions of 'variety' and geographically defined 'communities'" (p. 394). Galloway argues that learners' exposure to English varieties by means of different ELF interactions should be the first step to achieve a GE-oriented pedagogy in ELT. As Jenkins (2012) suggests, ELF researchers cannot however tailor particular teaching practices and materials that can meet all needs of language learners and teachers.

Teaching Culture

Previously, the main aim of learning a FL was to develop strong reading skills in the target language as FL learners had the intention of reading the target literature (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). Yet, contemporary language teaching methodologies have unmistakably integrated spoken communication skills into their curriculums due to the changing expectations of language learners. In this respect, the work of Heidari, Ketabi, and Zonoobi (2014) describes comprehensively how each language teaching method integrates the teaching of culture.

Previous discussions indicate that teachers should familiarize language learners with cultural elements (Su, 2008). However, this does not necessarily mean that FL teachers should encourage their learners to become bicultural (See Alptekin & Alptekin, 1984; Heo & Kim, 2013 for more on

biculturalism). Instead, this requires an awareness of native cultural values and welcoming unfamiliar ones (Baker, 2012; Ho, 2009). In the case of teaching English, this new perspective implies diversion from teaching cultural elements mainly from British or American cultures. Instead, samples from other existing cultures should be welcomed in EFL classes in a critical way (Dervin, 2010) as language learners mainly communicate in English, with people from different cultures, due to the lingua franca function of this language (see Seidlhofer, 2004). As Bayyurt (2006) suggests, "[t]he aim of English language teaching should be the development of the learners' 'intercultural communicative competence' in the English language to enable them to cope with issues that are related to the wider use of English in local and international contexts" (p. 234).

Related Research Studies

Bayyurt's (2006) study revealed that Turkish teachers of English mainly prefer cultures of inner circle countries for culture teaching in the language classroom. Some of the participants in her study also display a tendency to integrate the Turkish culture to English lessons for better comparisons between the target culture and local culture.

Hou et al. (2012) explored the impact of linguistic factors in IC by dealing with intercultural difficulties that Chinese overseas students in Australia experienced. Their participants varied with regard to their self-perceptions of L2 (second language) communicative competence. The results revealed the importance of self-perception of L2 communicative competence on intercultural difficulty management; thus, the strategies learners employed were related to their perceptions. Within the scope of the present study, it could be inferred that even in the acquisition of the same language, individual perceptions play a significant role, then, such perceptions should have greater roles in learning or acquiring different languages.

Mekheimer and Alsosari (2011) questioned the perceptions and attitudes of academics and undergraduates regarding literature teaching in the Saudi EFL setting. Their participants viewed literature as an essential component for learning about culture. The researchers concluded that literary texts teach culture either implicitly or explicitly, and that exposure to literature results in better awareness of ICC, suggesting that EFL teaching should encourage teachers to integrate culture into their curriculum with the purpose of developing cultural and linguistic competencies. Although EFL learners regard culture as an essential cultural component, it is worth considering this perception by dealing with the teaching of the other languages also.

Karakaş' (2013) study revealed that Turkish students' intercultural attitudes are quite sophisticated. In this respect, investigating such sophisticated attitudes of Turkish (prospective) language teachers should add to the understanding teaching culture.

Considering the lingua franca notion of English (Seidlhofer, 2004), it may also be beneficial to remember the findings of Morita's (2012) study conducted with international students in an oriental cultural setting, namely Japan. The results, like similar studies (e.g. Morita, 2010; Seargeant, 2009), highlight the necessity of using the Japanese language for daily matters outside the classroom, for which English is not regarded as an alternative means of communication. In such settings, IC might be rather challenging and even problematic, as Rosen (2000) warns.

With these findings and discussions in mind, the present study aims at revealing how prospective teachers of various languages regard cultural components of the curriculum. Research has already investigated the interaction between culture and language learning in Turkey from several perspectives, mainly dealing with teaching English as a Foreign Language (.e.g., Altay, 2010; Arıkan, 2011; Bayyurt, 2006, 2014; Devrim & Bayyurt, 2010; Genç & Bada, 2005; Etuş, 2008; Razı, 2012; Zehir , Topkaya & Demir, 2011). The present study aims to enlarge the scope by adding three other languages in addition to English. Since familiarization with cultural components is beneficial in terms of developing an awareness of one's own culture (Ho, 2009), this can contribute to better awareness of ICC (Baker, 2012). Such awareness is expected to be helpful specifically for policy makers in terms of developing ICC-friendly language teaching curriculums. In addition, language teaching education departments should also benefit from these findings in order to revise their programs in accordance with the cultural needs of their learners.

Methodology

The present study aimed at revealing the opinions of academics and trainee teachers at language teaching departments regarding the cultural components to be integrated into language teaching. However, it does not necessarily mean that the findings of the study identify the cultural elements to be included in language teaching classes; they reveal the differences, if there exist any, among the different departments under investigation with the hope of finding out how teaching culture is being regarded by the participants. Therefore, the findings are important in order to review the curriculums of language teaching departments by considering the concept of intercultural awareness (see Baker, 2012).

To develop effective ICC skills, it is essential to identify which cultural issues should be integrated into language teaching curriculums. The present study investigated how the components of culture are regarded in a variety of language teaching departments in order to identify the cultural aspects that (prospective) language teachers need to address in their own language classes to raise their students' cultural awareness. The findings will hopefully act as a gateway to reviewing the cultural elements that are already involved in the language teaching curriculums. The present study aimed at answering the following research questions (RQs):

RQ1: How much are the components of culture valued in language teaching curriculums of various programmes at Turkish university setting?

RQ2: Are there differences between language teaching departments in terms of valuing the components of culture in language teaching curriculums?

RQ3: Are there differences between the participants according to their year of study in terms of valuing the components of culture in language teaching curriculums?

RQ4: Does learning or acquiring more languages result in differences in valuing the components of culture in language teaching curriculums?

Setting

The present study was conducted in four sub-divisions of the Language Education Department of Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University (COMU), Turkey during the spring semester of the 2011-2012 academic year. The departments were the English Language Teaching (ELT), German Language Teaching, Japanese Language Teaching, and Turkish Language Teaching. The rationale for incorporating these four departments was to deal with language teacher candidates who would later instruct a language, either an L1 or an FL.

Participants

The study included a total of 620 students and 35 academics from the above-mentioned four departments. All participants consented to the use of their responses for research purposes. The participants answered the items in the scale anonymously.

The ages of the student-participants varied from 18 to 33 with an average of 22 at the time data collection. The vast majority ($n = 611$, 98.5%) reported holding Turkish citizenship. They mostly indicated being monolinguals ($n = 599$, 96.6%) along with a limited number of bilinguals

($n = 21$, 3.4%). It is worth mentioning here that they were instructed to regard themselves as bilinguals only in the case of having acquired more than one language before puberty, which resulted in native-like fluency in all aspects of each language. Participants all stated that they had studied at least one FL; however, more than half specified studying more than one FL ($n = 333$, 53.7%). Due to the female-dominant norm of language teaching departments in Turkey, there was a numerical superiority of female participants ($n = 429$, 69.2%) over males ($n = 191$, 30.8%). Table 1 presents the distribution of participants according to their year of study and department, as well as gender. All 4-year undergraduate courses in Turkey consist of two terms per year; therefore 8 terms in total are studied.

Table 1
Distribution of Student Participants

Language Teaching Depts.	Year								
	1st		2nd		3rd		4th		
	Gender		Gender		Gender		Gender		
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Total
English	39	13	40	17	29	12	47	17	214
German	32	7	11	3	24	3	13	1	94
Japanese	16	11	6	8	16	7	10	6	80
Turkish	45	17	39	28	26	21	36	20	232
Total	132	48	96	56	95	43	106	44	620

The ages of the academic participants (instructors, lecturers, etc.) varied from 25 to 66 with an average of 38 at the time the data were collected. Similar to the student participants, the majority ($n = 30$, 85.7%) reported Turkish nationality. None of the academic participants regarded themselves as bilinguals with reference to the criterion outlined in the student-participants' section. They all stated that they had studied at least one FL; in fact the majority reported studying more than one ($n = 24$, 68.6%). As opposed to the female-dominance of language departments in terms of students, this time there was a numerical superiority of male academic participants ($n = 22$, 62.9%) over female ones ($n = 13$, 37.1%).

Material

The Inventory of Cultural Components (Razı, 2012, see Appendix) was used to collect data from both the student- and academic-participants of the study. It consisted of 45 items under the categories of: intellectual values, unique values, behavioural values, media, artistic values, family, minor values, major values, formal values, people characteristics, daily characteristics, and linguistic characteristics. Author reports a Cronbach alpha value of ($\alpha = .94$) over 45 items for his inventory. The collected data in the present study also revealed a Cronbach alpha value of ($\alpha = .94$) over 45 items for the scale.

Procedures for Data Collection and Analysis

Copies of the scale were distributed as hard copies to the student and academic participants in the English, German, Japanese and Turkish language teaching departments by the researchers. The researchers informed the participants of the aims of the research, and instructed them on how to respond to the items. They were reminded to reflect on their own understanding of cultural components by considering the relation between language and culture, ensuring that the 45 items in the scale would be taken into account as components of culture. The participants completed the scale in approximately 20 minutes. The participants at the German, Japanese and Turkish language teaching departments were provided with a Turkish version of the scale whereas the ones at the ELT department (both academic and student) and only the academic participants of the Japanese language teaching department were delivered the original English version of the scale. The Turkish version of the scale was translated by the researchers of the present study, and back translation procedure was used to ensure the validity of the translated version. To enable this, an independent researcher was asked to translate the Turkish version of the scale into English. Two other independent researchers were provided with the original English version of the scale and its back translated version in English. They were asked to compare the items in terms of content and rate the relevance in terms of percentages. The mean scores from these two independent researchers indicated a value of greater than 90% and provided reliability for the translated version.

Descriptive statistics were used to report the participants' demographics and reveal the rank of cultural components in the scale. With regard to several criteria, ANOVA was used with Bonferroni post hoc criterion for significance to compare the four departments. In order to compare the student participants with academic ones, and the male- participants to female ones, independent samples t-tests were used.

Results and Discussion

The collected data were screened for univariate outliers. Although a total of 635 students responded to the items on the scale, 15 cases were discarded at the analysis stage due to missing data. No problems were observed in the answers of academics at this stage.

RQ1

To answer RQ1 (How much are the components of culture valued in various language teaching curriculums?), both student- and academic-participants' answers to the items in the scale were put into descending order (Table 2). On one hand, unsurprisingly, country received the highest score from the participants. This was followed by means of communication, verbal behaviour patterns, and traditional values, respectively. On the other hand, weather conditions received the lowest score and this was followed by travel habits, unique jewelry, and public holidays. The values of the components of culture in this RQ should be interpreted with reference to Weaver (1998), where these components are illustrated in the style of an iceberg. The observable portion of the iceberg consists of external components that individuals can see, hear, and touch. Since these components are concrete, it is considered relatively easier to develop awareness because individuals are already conscious of them. They are also believed to be altering rapidly and/or easily. However, the non-observable portion of the iceberg includes internal components that are abstract, such as beliefs, values, thought patterns, and myths. Such components are implicitly learned, and individuals are unconscious of them; therefore it is difficult to change them too.

Table 2

Inventory Items in Descending Order (*N* = 655)

Item	Mean	SD
41 country	4.30	0.85
19 means of communication	4.13	0.96
17 verbal behaviour patterns	4.12	0.99
4 traditional values	4.07	0.95
1 thoughts	4.05	0.94
30 literature	4.04	0.94
33 relations with each other	3.98	1.03

34 daily life	3.93	1.09
7 ideas	3.90	0.97
5 etiquette	3.89	1.03
31 family life	3.88	1.09
26 printed materials	3.86	0.99
16 non-verbal behaviour patterns	3.85	1.06
2 habits	3.85	1.01
20 reactions to particular situations	3.84	1.09
18 behavioural patterns	3.82	1.08
27 music	3.82	0.99
32 taboos	3.81	1.18
6 ethics	3.76	1.09
29 art	3.75	1.02
28 cinema	3.74	0.98
39 history	3.71	1.03
40 geography	3.59	1.06
14 food	3.58	1.17
25 scientific/technological accomplishments	3.56	1.08
3 beliefs	3.55	1.13
23 popular web sites	3.50	1.10
21 television shows	3.39	1.15
22 news broadcasts	3.34	1.12
44 politics	3.26	1.19
45 economy	3.26	1.12
10 hobbies	3.18	1.17
43 legal system	3.17	1.20
15 games	3.17	1.15
13 dressing habits	3.13	1.18
11 particular skills	3.11	1.13
8 unique dances	3.09	1.20
37 traffic rules	3.00	1.21

	2.96	1.13
12 unique tools	2.96	1.13
24 advertising	2.92	1.17
42 philosophy	2.92	1.15
38 travel habits	2.90	1.13
9 unique jewellery	2.88	1.24
35 public holidays	2.75	1.24
36 weather conditions	2.23	1.13

As already discussed, literature was previously regarded as the most essential component of classical language teaching methods (Lessard-Clouston, 1997). The results of this study highlight the essential place of literature in language teaching classes, as it appeared among the most important items. This is in parallel with the findings of Mekheimer and Alsosari's (2011) study, which emphasizes the contribution of literature to culture pedagogy in FL classes.

Because the scale categorizes the components of culture into 9 groups, descriptive statistics were also used with these groups. As presented in Table 3, the categories of behaviours and family received the highest mean scores as opposed to the lowest mean scores from minor values and lifestyles.

Table 3
Inventory Themes in Descending Order ($N = 655$)

Group	Mean	SD
Behaviours	3.95	0.85
Family	3.90	0.92
Intellectual values	3.87	0.75
Artistic values	3.83	0.83
Major values	3.63	0.79
Media	3.43	0.83
Formal values	3.23	1.00
Lifestyles	3.14	0.86
Minor values	2.72	0.86

While interpreting the findings of RQ1, it should be remembered that the results reflect the perceptions of all participants – both students and academics – from different language teaching departments. The differences between the departments will be addressed in RQ2.

RQ2

To answer RQ2 (Are there differences between the language teaching departments under investigation in terms of valuing the components of culture in language teaching curriculums?) ANOVA was run on the participants' mean scores from the 45 items of the scale and it did not indicate significant differences between the four departments, $F(3, 651) = 0.39$, $p > .05$. However, a deeper analysis of the component groups of the scale revealed significant differences in five of the cultural categories, namely, behaviours, $F(3, 651) = 5.55$, $p = .001$, artistic values $F(3, 651) = 9.30$, $p < .001$, minor values $F(3, 651) = 4.01$, $p = .008$, major values $F(3, 651) = 9.50$, $p < .001$, and formal values $F(3, 651) = 14.75$, $p < .001$. The direction of departmental differences in the scale categories retrieved from Bonferroni post hoc analyses are presented in Table 4.

Table 4
Direction of Departmental Differences in the Scale Categories ($N = 655$)

Component Group	Language Teaching Departments	Mean difference	p
Behaviours	Japanese > German	.46	.001
	Japanese > Turkish	.36	.003
Artistic values	English > Japanese	.33	.008
	German > Japanese	.59	.000
	German > Turkish	.40	.000
Minor values	German > Turkish	.30	.019
Major values	German > English	.49	.000
	Turkish > English	.20	.030
	German > Turkish	.29	.012
Formal values	German > English	.60	.000
	Turkish > English	.40	.000
	German > Japanese	.70	.000
	Turkish > Japanese	.50	.000

In total, there were 13 significant differences between the two sets of departments. Table 4 reveals the superiority of the German language teaching department over the others on 7 occasions. The superiority of the Turkish language teaching department was observed on 3 occasions whereas the Japanese language teaching was superior only on 2 occasions. Interestingly, the ELT department surpassed the others only in a single case.

With regard to the ELF perspective, the ELT department was compared to the other three language teaching departments. An independent-samples t-test was used to compare their mean scores. However, the results did not indicate any significant difference between ELF ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 0.59$) and non-lingua franca ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 0.58$), $t(653) = -0.05$, $p > .05$) perspectives. Lingua franca status of English may contribute positively to the professional lives of non-native English teachers. As Bayyurt (2006) notes, by appreciating the contribution of ICC, non-native ELT teachers may also become as successful as their native counterparts.

Since the aim of the Turkish language teaching department was teaching L1 rather than teaching a FL, the Turkish language teaching department was compared to the FL teaching departments to draw certain conclusions about possible differences between L1 student teachers and FL ones in terms of their perceptions regarding the cultural components under investigation. To this end, an independent-samples t-test compared the mean scores of the two groups; however, the results did not indicate significant differences between the L1 and FL teaching departments.

The relevant literature (e.g., Byram, 1997; Korzilius et al., 2007; Schnitzer, 1995) highlights the importance of bringing together FL instruction and ICC. However, common activities in FL classes may not be adequately addressing this aim. Thus, the development of ICC appears to benefit from using the target language for real life purposes, as in language acquisition.

RQ3: Are there differences between the participants according to their year of study in terms of valuing the components of culture in language teaching curriculums?

ANOVA on the participants' mean values from the totality of the scale items indicated significant differences between the participants according to their years of study [$F(3, 616) = 7.67$, $p < .001$]. Post hoc analyses using the Bonferroni post hoc criterion for significance indicated that senior year participants ($M = 3.69$, $SD = .57$) significantly scored higher than both freshmen year participants ($M = 3.39$, $SD = .62$, $p < .001$) and the sophomores ($M = 3.48$, $SD = .54$, $p = .007$).

These results can be interpreted as resulting from the impact of learning a second language on

cultural awareness. As the freshmen and sophomore year students in FL teaching departments at COMU do not study a second FL, their awareness of cultural items is thought to be restricted to their L1 and first FL knowledge. When they advance to the second language, the occasion of learning a second FL provides more opportunities for enriching their intercultural awareness. At this stage, they also have the opportunity of comparing two foreign cultures to each other by means of the languages that they are studying (see Su, 2008 for the relationship between language and culture).

Apart from the impact of a second FL, the effects of maturity in the field by means of departmental courses cannot be underestimated. Being senior year student teachers means that they are almost ready to become language teachers now. In other words, they should have gained an understanding of what constitutes culture by now. However, expecting such awareness from undergraduates who are at the beginning of their training would be unrealistic.

RQ4

To answer RQ4 (Does learning or acquiring more languages result in differences in valuing the components of culture in language teaching curriculums?) an independent-samples t-test on the scale mean values was run with an aim of examining the possible differences between learning a single FL and multiple FLs. The results indicated significant differences between language learners with single ($M = 3.47$, $SD = 0.60$) and multiple ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 0.57$), $t(653) = -2.21$, $p = .028$, $d = 0.17$) FLs with a small effect size. Such a difference might be the result of language socialization. As discussed by Shi (2006), individuals are exposed to primary language socialization during their acquisition of an L1, yet the socialization process does not end, and it continues with the integration of secondary language socialization in the situation of facing unfamiliar sociocultural contexts, for example, learning a FL. Thus, multiple FL learners experience more socialization processes than others, and this in return differentiates their understanding of culture.

Conclusion and Implications

Almost everyone, even those who are non-professionally interested in learning languages, accepts that there is a connection between language and culture (see also Su, 2008). For a vast majority of individuals, such an interaction can be triangled by the addition of country as cultural borders are synonymous to national borders to many (see Bayyurt, 2006). The results of the present study

confirm such an expectation as the participants scored country with the highest mean value to be included in language teaching curriculums. However, this finding should be approached with caution since the exact overlap of these three elements may not be possible in all instances. Consider the case of Japanese, for instance. Learners of the Japanese language easily match Japanese with Japan, as there is no other country on Earth which speaks Japanese. In this case, there is an exact match between the language and county where it is spoken as L1. As a result, when it comes to culture, they have an expectation that they need to deal with the Japanese culture, that is, the common cultural elements. This is similar in the case of Turkish to some extent. With a few exceptions, this generalization could also be extended to German language. However, when it comes to English, several alternatives should be considered (Rivers, 2011). An investigation into Kachru's (1992) circles reveals superabundant alternatives that are available. Moreover, the ELF perspective (see Seidlhofer, 2004) adds another dimension to the discussion. Here, learners of English easily find themselves in a situation of questioning which English to practise and whose culture to learn (Baker, 2012). Bearing in mind these considerations, developing ICC would appear to be vital for these learners (Baker, 2009; Byram, 1997).

The results of this study show that students in their last two years of undergraduate study have a higher expectancy regarding the integration of cultural elements into language teaching curriculums than those in their first and second years. To understand what causes such a change, it might be beneficial to examine which culture-oriented courses are provided by the four departments under investigation (Table 5). The ELT department appears to be the poorest in terms of familiarizing students with cultural elements. Thus, more culture-oriented courses seem to be vital in a future curricular reform in this department. However, this does not necessarily mean that the other three language teaching departments successfully deal with the development of ICC. Consider the Turkish language teaching department, for example, which was found to be the richest department in terms of culture-oriented courses. In spite of the abundance of culture-oriented courses, none of these courses takes the development of ICC as a direct aim. Instead, the main focus is on Turkish culture. This is very similar to the Japanese language teaching department in which all culture-oriented courses deal solely with the Japanese culture. Because the Japanese society is sui generis (Gao, 2005), the language of Japan is closely woven with its cultural values. Further investigation of the culture-related courses offered in these four departments reveals that developing awareness of IC is the concern of only the English and German language teaching

departments. From these aspects, a revision of the teacher-training programs of these four departments is essential. Policy makers of language teaching departments may refer to the procedure followed by Korzilius et al. (2007) in order to develop IC awareness among university students.

Table 5

Culture-oriented Courses in Language Teaching Departments at COMU

Language Teaching Departments	Term	Status	Course
English	3	Compulsory	English Literature I
	4	Compulsory	English Literature II
	5	Compulsory	Literature & Language Teaching I
	6	Compulsory	Literature and Language Teaching II
	8	Elective	Cross Cultural Communication
German	2	Compulsory	Comparative Cultural Knowledge
	3	Compulsory	German Literature I
	3	Elective	Literature of Turkish Immigrants
	3	Elective	The Image of Turks in Europe
	4	Compulsory	German Literature II
	7	Elective	Contemporary History of Culture
	8	Elective	Intercultural Education and Imagology
Japanese	1	Compulsory	Common Japanese Culture
	2	Compulsory	Common History of Japan
	5	Compulsory	Japanese Literature I
	6	Compulsory	Japanese Literature II
	7	Compulsory	Japanese Society Language Skills I
	7	Elective	Japanese Society
	7	Elective	Japanese Literature
	7	Elective	Development of Japan and Alteration of Society
	8	Compulsory	Japanese Society Language Skills II

Turkish	3	Compulsory	Turkish Folk Literature I
	3	Compulsory	Old Turkish Literature I
	3	Compulsory	Contemporary Turkish Literature I
	3	Compulsory	Contemporary Turkish Literature I
	3	Elective	Science of Folklore
	3	Elective	Contemporary Turkish Literature
	3	Elective	Turkish Sufism Literature
	4	Compulsory	Turkish Folk Literature I
	4	Compulsory	Old Turkish Literature I
	4	Compulsory	Contemporary Turkish Literature II
	5	Compulsory	Children's Literature
	5	Compulsory	World Literature
	6	Compulsory	Contemporary Turkish Literature
	6	Compulsory	Culture of Folklore
	7	Elective	Classic World Literature
	7	Elective	Cartoon Animated Movie Reviews
	8	Elective	Republican Period of Turkish Literature
	8	Elective	Humour in Turkish Literature
	8	Elective	Turkish Folk Poetry Reviews
	8	Elective	Turkish Mythology
	8	Elective	Turkish Culture and Civilization

In addition to new culture-oriented courses, more opportunities for FL learning are also welcome in these four departments. Since the English, German and Japanese language teaching departments aim to train FL teachers, these three departments offer a second FL as a compulsory course in the 5th, 6th and 7th terms. Yet the Turkish language teaching department offers a FL course only in the 1st and 2nd terms since its main aim is training L1 teachers of Turkish. As discussed previously, the process of socialization benefits from learning languages, and each new language makes an important contribution (Shi, 2006). The findings of the present study confirm this assertion, as learners of multiple FLs displayed a higher level of expectancy for the inclusion of more cultural elements in language teaching curriculums. In other words, the results indicate that each additional

FL results in more awareness of culture from an intercultural perspective. In this respect, the students of the FL teaching departments in this study – namely English, German and Japanese,– appear to be more advantageous than those of the Turkish language teaching department since they practice a second FL. Inevitably, such a socialization process contributes positively to their understanding of interculturality.

Awareness is indicated as the most important element of language learning by Ellis (2012); that is why the teaching of ICC should start with raising learners' awareness of their native cultural elements. This will help them identify the cultural elements in EFL learning environments more easily (see Bayyurt, 2006). In addition, an awareness of the multicultural world should also be provided (Baker, 2009; Nault, 2006). To do this, language learners should be familiarized with as many cultural components as possible. With reference to the findings of this study, such a familiarization process should basically focus on but should not be limited to the components of *country*, *means of communication*, *verbal behaviour patterns*, *traditional values*, *thoughts*, and *literature*.

The development of ICC should not be the concern only of FL teachers, however. For more effective results, cultural awareness should be targeted in L1 classes too. For example, the results of Elia's (2007) study reveal that traditional fables can be used in FL classes to raise awareness of ICC. In this respect, L1 teachers might be encouraged to integrate traditional myths and folk tales into the L1 teaching curriculum. In addition, Su's (2011) study designates a cultural portfolio project as an essential task for developing better awareness of culture. From this aspect, L1 teachers can also benefit from using the concept of cultural portfolios. More specifically, such activities will provide better opportunities for raising learners' level of intercultural awareness at an earlier age, which in turn will hopefully contribute to the development of better ICC skills. Moreover, L1 teachers should make efficient use of digital technologies. The relevant literature indicates that the integration of digital tools in FL classrooms may facilitate intercultural learning (Fuchs, 2007); therefore, while revising the programs of language teacher training departments, this should be taken into consideration. Furthermore, care should be given to provide outlines of the interrelationship between language and culture (Su, 2008). This appears to be possible via the integration of theoretical frameworks, as identified by pioneering researchers (Byram, 1989; Kramsch, 1993; Lange, 1999) in the field.

In the final analysis, this paper reported the results of a study conducted at a single university

in Turkey, thereby one should keep in mind that generalization of the findings to the whole population of language teacher training departments may not be possible. Nevertheless, with reference to the findings, it can be concluded that Turkish undergraduate teacher education programs contribute positively to prospective language teachers' perceptions of interculturality. However, teacher candidates should be reoriented to interculturality for a true understanding of ICC. Thus, for a possible revision of the current curriculums of language teaching departments this skill needs to be considered seriously for integration. Further researchers, then, can also deal with the cultural components to be included in language teaching from a more dynamic understanding of culture (see Baker, 2012).

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Appendix: *The Inventory of Cultural Components*

Dear participant,

This questionnaire is a part of a survey in which you will indicate your own understanding of cultural components by regarding the interaction between language and culture. Before responding to the statements, please provide demographic information about your department, class, gender, age, nationality, mother tongue and foreign language. Also answer the yes/no question before you move to the 45 statements in the inventory. Keep in mind that the information collected through this questionnaire will be used only for research purposes and it will not affect your course grades in any way.

There are 45 items in the inventory in nine categories which might be regarded as components of culture. While responding to the statements, please refer to your understanding of the components of culture. For each item, choose the statement that best indicates how much you value the item being included in the target language teaching curriculum. Remember that there are no correct or wrong answers of the statements presented in this questionnaire. Thank you for your contribution to the study.

Department	English Language Teaching	German Language Teaching	Japanese Language Teaching	Turkish Language Teaching
Year	1st year	2nd year	3rd year	4th year
Gender	Male		Female	
Age	....			
Nationality	Turkish	Other: *Please specify*		
Mother tongue(s): *(If applicable, indicate more than one)*	Turkish	Other: *Please specify*		
Foreign language(s): *(If applicable, indicate more than one)*	English	German	Japanese	French	Turkish
	Other: *Please specify*				

Do you think curriculums of language teaching should include cultural elements?	
Yes	**No**

If your answer is 'YES' to this question, continue with the following 45 items; however, if your answer is 'NO', DO NOT answer the following 45 items.

Items	Learning a language requires learning about different ...	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Always
Intellectual values						
1	... thoughts.	1	2	3	4	5
2	... habits.	1	2	3	4	5
3	... beliefs.	1	2	3	4	5
4	... traditional values.	1	2	3	4	5
5	... etiquette.	1	2	3	4	5
6	... ethics.	1	2	3	4	5
7	... ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
Lifestyles						
8	... people's unique dances.	1	2	3	4	5
9	... people's unique jewellery.	1	2	3	4	5
10	... people's hobbies.	1	2	3	4	5
11	... particular skills.	1	2	3	4	5
12	... people's unique tools.	1	2	3	4	5
13	... dressing habits.	1	2	3	4	5
14	... food.	1	2	3	4	5
15	... games.	1	2	3	4	5
Behaviours						
16	... non-verbal behaviour patterns.	1	2	3	4	5
17	... verbal behaviour patterns.	1	2	3	4	5
18	... people's behavioural patterns.	1	2	3	4	5
19	... means of communication.	1	2	3	4	5
20	... people's reactions to particular situations.	1	2	3	4	5
Media						
21	... television shows.	1	2	3	4	5
22	... news broadcasts.	1	2	3	4	5
23	... popular web sites.	1	2	3	4	5
24	... advertising.	1	2	3	4	5
25	... scientific/technological accomplishments.	1	2	3	4	5
26	... printed materials such as newspapers and magazines.	1	2	3	4	5
Artistic values						
27	... music.	1	2	3	4	5
28	... cinema.	1	2	3	4	5
29	... art.	1	2	3	4	5
30	... literature.	1	2	3	4	5
Family						
31	... family life.	1	2	3	4	5
32	... taboos.	1	2	3	4	5
33	... people's relations with each other.	1	2	3	4	5
34	... people's daily life.	1	2	3	4	5
Minor values						
35	... public holidays.	1	2	3	4	5
36	... weather conditions.	1	2	3	4	5
37	... traffic rules.	1	2	3	4	5
38	... travel habits.	1	2	3	4	5
Major values						
39	... histories.	1	2	3	4	5
40	... geographies.	1	2	3	4	5
41	... countries.	1	2	3	4	5
42	... philosophies.	1	2	3	4	5
Formal values						
43	... legal systems.	1	2	3	4	5
44	... politics.	1	2	3	4	5
45	... economies.	1	2	3	4	5

Translocal Literacy Practices with Korean Local Readers of English

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Bio data

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Abstract

The purpose of this study is to describe the ways Korean readers of English engage in translocal literacy as a way of imagining others' lives and critiquing the social issues they have identified. Previous research did not thoroughly investigate local readers' translocal literacy connections. A qualitative research design guided the analysis of six Korean elementary school students' literacy engagement with two researchers for 28 one-hour class sessions over two years. Translocal literacy was tracked with spatial markers in students' discourse. Our analysis shows that in local readers' translocal literacy practices, imagination plays an important role in making the silenced or unknown perspectives visible. Their imagined movements were dynamically marked throughout multiple locations that they physically and imaginatively

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navigated. When dynamic localities were included, these local readers' imaginations had greater potential to embrace critical perspectives that their local community did not necessarily encourage them to consider important.

Introduction

The research on translocal movements from cultural studies (Appadurai, 1996; Blommaert, 2003, 2005, 2008; Hannerz, 2009; Willis, Enloe, & Minoura, 1994) discussed the problematization of local and the global boundaries when making sense of cultural production and literacy practices. Even readers in a particular local context are bombarded by the movement of information and people, and of political, cultural, and financial commodities (Appadurai, 1996; Hannerz, 2009). Therefore, we cannot assume that their knowledge is truly local or global, but translocal. Instead of identifying what is statically present as legitimate local knowledge in local readers' literacy discussion, the hybrid translocal spaces readers brought to the discussion and readers' complicated mapping trajectories across different local boundaries (Bloommaert, 2003, 2005, 2008; Bloommaert & Van Der Donckt, 2002; Kearney, 1995) deserve more attention in order to understand the fluid nature of their literacy practices (Medina, 2010).

When local readers of English engage in translocal literacy practices, responding to different texts and connecting to stories in the absence of similar life experiences and issues would require a considerable degree of imagination. That is, it would be different from immigrant students talking about crossing the cultural borders (Bloommaert, 2003, 2005, 2008; Medina, 2010), as local readers would not have the direct experience necessary to imagine themselves in someone else's position. In this process, imagination (Appadurai, 1990, 1996; Green, 1995) would be enacted as a critical tool for unpacking alternative perspectives and de-naturalizing what is taken for granted in readers' local contexts. With local readers of English, we do not have enough information on how imagination facilitates students' critical translocal literacy when students might not have concrete personal resources and experiences to connect with others. More specifically, we wonder how Korean elementary school students' responses to the texts in English are embedded in mapping their diverse trajectories and movements across imagined spaces, places, and people.

The purpose of this research is to illustrate how the literacy discussions of Korean elementary school students emerge in terms of their imagined translocal movement. We analyzed two year literacy discussion of six fifth-graders in Korea and highlighted the two occasions that students

exercised translocal movements in their reading discussion. The method employed was a case study approach to answer the following questions: How is the literacy discussion of Korean readers of English produced and what dynamics are represented in their literacy discussion? How is translocality represented as a way of imagining critical perspectives in their literacy practices?

Literature Review

Translocality in Literacy Studies

Many anthropologists, literacy researchers and discourse analysis scholars identified the impact of translocality in different local communities (Appadurai, 1996; Bloommaert, 2005, 2008; Gutiérrez, 2008; Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003; Hannerz, 1990; Kostogriz & Tsolidis, 2008). They found that local and global boundaries are messy and blurred by globalization and translocality. For this reason, they argued that moving beyond the limits of the local and conceptualizing knowledge in an expansive globalized framework, "where borders are crossed and the mobility and flow of discourses exist" (Medina, 2010, p. 41), is central to how we interpret readers' participation in literacy events. Kostogriz and Tsolidis (2008) defined this type of framework as transcultural literacy. Borrowed from the notion of transcultural literacy, this study limited the definition of translocal literacy to literacy acts that invite multiple borders and flows across different cultural and local boundaries.

The concept of translocality comes from research on immigration, flows of global cultural commodities, and globalization (Bloommaert, 2003, 2005, 2008; Bloommaert & Van Der Donckt, 2002; Kearney, 1995). Within this framework, the notion of "local" becomes less meaningful as mass-mediation, migration, and the movement of people across communities interact with what it means to be local (Appadurai, 1996). Culture in a particular location cannot be understood as local, but should be addressed in consideration of "the sum of linkages and connections between places (media, travel, labor, import/ export, etc.)" (Mandaville, 1999, p. 672).

In describing translocal social processes, Kearney (1995) furthered this notion by stating that we construct hybrid spaces that are neither fully local nor completely global, as we negotiate multiple locations and reconstitute new cultural knowledge. Hannerz (1990) articulated how translocal flows and a hybrid mixture of cultural boundaries encourage a process from which a new reality emerges, transformed and complex, creating an original and independent reality that is discrete from the existing locality. Within this framework, translocality is a crucial component in

the understanding of the local, as the local would be re-created, re-emerged, and re-produced with "the reinscription" (Medina, 2010, p. 41) of local discourses. Translocal movement then becomes important when making sense of students' seemingly local literacy practices (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003).

Previous Research on Reading across Communities for Immigrant Readers

Translocal movement has been a key construct in research on immigrant children's reading practices (Gutiérrez, 2008; Medina, 2010; Kostogriz & Tsolidis, 2008). For example, with the notion of reading across communities, Medina (2010) suggested students' responses to literature are strongly associated with "mapping their trajectories and movements across spaces, places, time, and people" (p. 40). Their trajectories were prevalent when discussing their actual border crossing experiences and making intertextual connections with other mass media or oral tradition of their local culture. In this study, while students were physically situated in a particular locality, the U. S. A., their reader responses showed a strong ability to read across different real and imagined local communities. Students dynamically made sense of the multiple social locations they navigated across time, places, and people. In this process, instead of focusing on their identity and the cultural background of their original locality, the students' responses to literature reflected their navigation through different communities, visualized during their active participation in literature discussion.

In this study, we adopted the notion of 'reading across communities' to track our participants' reader responses and to understand how students make use of knowledge from translocal movement to different localities. It is under the premise that translocal movements represented in both imagined and real trajectories are relevant also with students in a local community. A translocal framework has rarely been implemented to understand local learners, such as Korean readers of English. What it means to read across different local communities needs to be unpacked with students from local contexts.

Another body of research on translocal literacies focused on the ways globalization influenced language learners and immigrant youth in their translocal or transcultural repositioning, or movements toward the direction of developing critical consciousness of power struggles (Appadurai, 1996; Guerra, 2007, 2008). They highlighted how their translocal experiences usually marginalized their resources from their original local space. For example, Appadurai (1996) explained this marginalization as realizing "the historical, linguistic, and political situatedness of

different sorts [of individuals] (p. 33)" as their local culture and knowledge do not transfer well and are not respected in a new social context. This phenomenon is defined as transcultural repositioning by Guerra (2007, 2008), based on the readjustment his own cultural and linguistic knowledge had to undergo in order to fit into a new academic community. In a similar fashion, Bloommaert (2008) argued how the resources related to one space often do not travel well, thus people from minority language speaking backgrounds are treated as unimportant in their new context. This type of direct experience facilitates immigrants' critical consciousness of power and critiquing their unfair situatedness. However, the process of unpacking situatedness has not been explored much with non-immigrants or local language learners that did not necessarily engage in physical movement between cultures. We believe that visualizing local learners' translocal repositioning can shed light on how reading across communities can facilitate local students' engagement with critical consciousness about power.

Imagination as an Indicator of Critical Reading across Communities
Imagining other local spaces and situating themselves in those contexts require students' ability to imagine others' trajectories and localities. Imagining others and their local experiences would be necessary in order to develop local readers' ability to read across communities. The ability to imagine others' lives is especially relevant when we study local learners' reading practices and track their imagined translocal movements. Scholars on globalization and literacy education conceptualize imagination as a social practice and consider imagination an essential component in the development of criticality (Appadurai, 1990, 1996; Green, 1995).

More specifically, Appadurai (1990) argued that it would not be appropriate to apply the traditional notion of imagination when interpreting today's translocal literacy by pointing out that imagination no longer addresses "mere fantasy […], simple escape […], elite pastime […], and no longer mere contemplation" (p. 49). For him, "the imagination has become an organized field of social practices, a form of work (in the sense of both labor and culturally organized practice) and a form of negotiation between sites of agency (individuals) and globally defined fields of possibility" (Appadurai, 1990, p. 49). When thinking of literacy as imagined social practices, envisioning new possibilities is about negotiating between readers' realities and what readers can imagine from different texts. Imagination is not fantasy, but rather contains socially and systematically organized literacy practices to think of new possibilities.

Green's (1995) notion of imagination also addressed the social practice of imagination as a way to see reality from alternative perspectives. For Green, the value of diversity and a plurality of ways of being are a foundation for imagination, as one's imagination cultivates "multiple ways of seeing and multiple dialogues in a world where nothing stays the same" (Green, 1995, p. 6). This concept of imagination connects to criticality, as readers continue to be conscious of the silences and what is lacking in their own life experiences. Imagination helps readers transcend their own local experiences and envision what can exist otherwise. Green focused on the transformative power of imagination in enacting social change or educational reform, in which we can be active agents who imagine a more inclusive and fair approach in our social interactions. With this notion, imagination is a very sophisticated and concrete tool to use when thinking critically about silenced and missing perspectives. Through imagination, we develop a social conscience and sense of responsibility.

Other educational psychologists, such as Baron-Cohen (2001), Fernyhough (2008), Johnston (1993), and McCollough (1992), also conceptualized imagination as an ability to make connections to others and to empathize with them, regardless of their discrete life experiences. As students' literacy practices from translocal movements require imagining others and connecting to critical awareness of their social issues, imagination can be an indicator when reading across communities from a critical lens. The role of imagination in critical translocal literacy will be investigated when local Korean readers are invited to move beyond their own boundaries and local experiences.

Methodology

Design

This research was part of a larger research project. The larger research project was a qualitative ethnographic case study and an action research study (Kemmis & McTaggart, 2005) on the possible implementation of English graphic novels in Korean English literacy practices. The study lasted two consecutive winters. The case study (Stake, 2005) presented in this paper highlighted how students responded to these reading materials from the framework of translocalities, with notion of imagination for critical reading across communities.

We collected multiple sources of data, including researchers' field notes, video-taped classroom sessions, video-taped students' oral and multimodal reader responses, students' writings and posters, and whole-group notes taken together. All the meetings were videotaped. Students'

artifacts—writing samples, posters created, collaborative writing, scripts for skits and role play—were organized. One researcher conducted the lessons and the other researcher observed and wrote her field notes. We met with 11 elementary school students (two groups) on a weekly basis for two winters, in 2013 and 2014. For this study, we only focused on one group, for a total of 6 students' reader responses, as this group showed rich class discussion and active engagement in translocal literacy practices.

Setting

The 28 one-hour class reading sessions were conducted and the researchers chose 11 English graphic novels for class discussion. When choosing the texts, the researchers considered their popularity, focusing on topics that students might be interested in and have some knowledge of from previous reading experiences, as well as texts containing creative content that these students could use to express their ideas and understandings from multiple perspectives in multimodal engagements. The participants read the assigned texts before each class and had in-class discussions and literacy activities. For the purpose of analyzing students' translocal literacy practices, this paper selected three graphic novels and in-class activities that demonstrated students' ability to read across communities critically. Table 1 illustrates the information on the three graphic novels and literacy activities.

Table 1
Overview of Activities

Materials	Literacy activities
Frankenstein (Shelley, 2008)	Retelling the story and reading aloud the important story lines Individual writing on Frankenstein∗ Whole group discussion on stereotypical representation in the text∗
The Tale of Despereaux (Dicamillo, 2006)	Summary writing for each illustration Individual writing and sharing about the main character's uniqueness∗ Whole group discussion on their connections to the texts from their everyday life experiences ∗
The Adventures of TinTin: TinTin in America (Hergé, 2010)	Creating a summary of the story in drawing in pairs Individual writing on character analysis∗ Whole group discussion on the evidence of racial stereotypes∗

∗ Data analyzed for this paper

Participants and Access

The participants were six male 5th graders at the time this research was conducted. They attended the same elementary school. The school is a public school located in the capital of Korea, surrounded by apartment complexes inhabited by parents of mostly middle-class socio-economic status. One researcher asked permission from a teacher of the school to introduce the study to mothers during a parents' day meeting. Two mothers showed interest in the study and they introduced other boys after obtaining their parents' permission.

The students' reading level was high and they were able to discuss the contents in English in less constrained manners. They were able to express themselves in English on most of the topics in class with the teacher's help. Their discussion reflected 90 % accuracy in comprehending the reading texts. All six students received an A+ in their English grades on their school exams. Table 2 summarized the participants' information from our interviews with their parents.

Table 2
Participants' Information

Student 1	Attending English-only kindergarten, private English institute and extensive reading program for five years
Student 2	Attending private English institute and extensive reading program for four years
Student 3	English camp for two months in the U.S.A, attending English institute and extensive reading program for four years
Student 4	Three year study-abroad experience in the U. S. A, attending extensive reading program for six months
Student 5	English camp for two months in the Philippines, English tutor for four years
Student 6	Attending private English institute and extensive reading program for four years

Student 4 had been abroad for three years and the others had only experienced short-term English camps or trips abroad. All students, except Student 5, participated in extensive reading programs at the time of this study; however, they only read story books with comprehension check-up questions. Their personalities were active and social, which seemed to lower their anxiety when speaking and making mistakes in English.

Data Analysis

The researchers first followed an overall open coding of themes from students' responses (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Coding across multiple data (students' multimodal discussion, writings, posters, acting out, etc.), we came up with several common themes. We then linked the themes and cross-checked them to see if there were overlapping meanings and interconnected contents. Through this method of axial coding, the researchers narrowed down the recurrent themes that emerged across the data. Those included: personal experiences; confronting social issues both through their own local experiences, and through direct empathy with others. Since the theme 'personal experiences' did not contain critical reading practices, this paper elaborated only on the theme 'confronting social issues through students' local experiences and through direct empathy with others.' Table 3 provides a brief description and student examples of this particular theme.

Table 3
A Target Emergent Theme across the Data

Emergent themes		Description of coded category	Student Examples (*book titles*)
Confronting Social Issues	Through local experiences	The students expressed their local experiences that contradict what the texts invited them to believe about the social issues.	Critiquing a local context where humans act evil and are not questioned / Comparing a local character, Hong Gil Dong in Choseon Dynasty, Korea and Frankenstein *(Frankenstein)* Articulating a benefit of being different from their educational context and local social experience / Articulating an example of unfair treatment of difference with the local experience with one smelly classmate *(The Tale of Despereaux)*
	Through empathizing with others	The students expressed their connections to others to challenge what the texts invited them to believe about the social issues.	Unpacking negative streotypes about Native Indians / Challenging the stereotyped representation of African Americans as not successful / Articulating unfair treatment of racial minority with an example of Park Jisung, a Korean soccer player (*The Adventures of TinTin: TinTin in America*)

With the identified themes, the researchers understood that the students brought multiple interpretive frameworks and integrated varied participation in diverse communities (both real and imagined). Their responses to the texts did not follow linear directions, but rather maneuvered in a complicated manner across different resources. The researchers decided to pay attention to the ways the students moved across different physical, textual, and imagined worlds and the ways their responses represented translocal literacy practices. Table 4 is a brief summary of the students' responses.

Table 4

Brief Summary of Students' Responses

Materials	Responses with localities	Examples of responses with localities
Frankenstein (Shelley, 2008)	Critiquing a society where humans are not questioned for their bad behaviors	Imagining an alternative space with different images (Student 4) Imagining a new translocal space where different social norms apply (Student 5) Critiquing his own space where people act evil and still are not questioned (Student 6)
The Tale of Despereaux (Dicamillo, 2006)	Imagined trip to an imaginative place where no one can be marginalized because of their differences or unique characters	Being different can be positive (Student 1) Articulation of benefits of being different (Student 4)
The Adventures of TinTin: TinTin in America (Hergé, 2010)	Imagined trip to TinTin's interactions with Native Indians Imagined trip to a world without racial stereotypes and discrimination	Extending the notion of racial discrimination to racial segregation of Native Indians (Student 1) Travelling to Korea where people often do not appreciate African descendants (Student 2) Connected to the racial discrimination of a Korean player in an English soccer league (Student 4) Relating racial issue in TinTin to an American boxing championship context (Student 5)

To understand the students' translocal movements, a particular focus was given to spatial markers embedded and implied in the students' discourses. As Medina (2010) analyzed immigrant students' spatial markers, this study also tracked spaces and special markers presented in students' written, oral, and multimodal discourse. Since our participants were local readers, except for Student 4,

their spatial markers were important indicators for their imagining others' spaces and their translocal literacy practices. For example, the spatial markers used in the students' discourse were explicitly stated sometimes, *such as our school, in my family, American TV*, etc. In these cases, we can identify their imagination of other spaces and their own spaces, as they articulate specific spatial markers. These illustrated how they interpreted their own spaces, while imagining others' worlds through translocal literacy movement to others' spaces.

But sometimes spatial markers were implied. In these cases, major content words and the ways they were connected with conjunctions and other pronouns or descriptors demonstrated how students traveled across multiple imagined locations, linking more than one locality (followed by Medina, 2010). As a sample analysis, while not included in this paper, when discussing *Big Nate Makes the Grade* (Pierce, 2012), Student 2 challenged how Nate's talents were not appreciated in school (Nate's locality) and our whole class discussion continued to talk about how we only emphasized academic grades (Korea) as follows: " I think if a test is important. And but the teacher look at us and teacher see ourselves and so students. Like, umm, student doesn't have a good grade, but if he if he is a kind? Or helps other students? I think he is a good student?"

The researchers investigated the relationships between the content words in the discussion with spatial markers. In Student 2's discourse above, the content words, *test*, and *important* were contradicted by the words *look at, see ourselves, doesn't have, kind*, and *help*. In this transcript, the conjunctions *and* and *but* linked these two ideas and showed how Student 2 maneuvered across Nate's locality (a presumably Western school that lets Nate fall behind), his own school experiences with exams and grades (in Korea where teachers only consider grades to be important), and a locality that appreciates not just students' grades but their kindness and where teachers *look at or see ourselves* in more details (an imagined locality with a different standards for being a good student). Identifying these three spatial markers, we understood that Student 2 imagined an ideal school culture that existed neither in Nate's locality nor in his own locality. Without imagining multiple localities, Student 2 would not have been able to articulate his newly emerging thoughts on how students should be evaluated in school. This type of imagination seemed to encourage his critical reading across communities to envision a better world that appreciates different types of students. As shown in this sample analysis, all the transcripts were analyzed with identifying spatial markers in connection to content words and conjunctions. Both implicit and explicit special movements were to track students' translocal movement through active imagination of others and

other spaces. Two researchers' spatial marker analysis showed 75% agreement and the other 25% was intensively discussed for consensus. One outside discourse analysis expert was invited to go through our coding and confirmed the validity of our data analysis.

Findings

Engaging in Critical Reading across Communities

One way to engage in critical reading across communities is moving to an imaginative world that the text invited, creating an alternative space that is more ideal and reflecting back on their own local culture to critique. The students in this study were able to imagine an ideal space and critique their own local culture as a result of traveling to different localities with different social norms.

A representative example of critical reading across communities was found after students read Frankenstein. Frankenstein by Shelley (2008) was a graphic novel version with a simplified storyline. Frankenstein, a monster who always terrifies people, was the main character. With scientific development, Victor Frankenstein, a smart scientist, created Frankenstein, a monster which destroyed the human world against his will and intention. Frankenstein did not intend to harm people but his existence troubled and disrupted human society in a mostly horrifying manner. Students were asked to write about what they wanted to change about this story. Student 4 (the first writing) and 5 (the second writing) wrote the following:
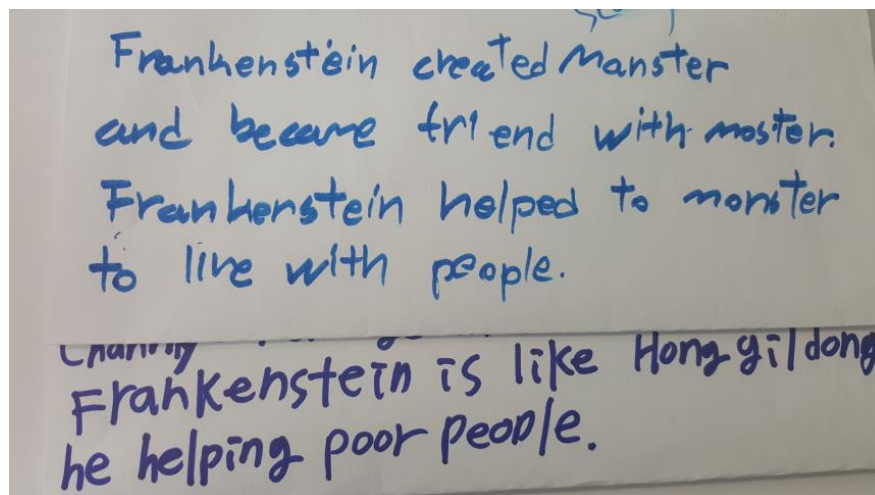

Figure 1. Artifact of Alternative Frankenstein of Students 4 and 5

(Artifact created on Jan 24th, 2014)

In their writings above, the content words, *become friend, live with people* and *helping poor people* were important, as both students found the original monster lacking these characteristics. Visiting a locality that the text invited, Student 4 imagined that this monster could become friends and live with people. To elaborate, visiting the space of Frankenstein, Student 4 seemed to realize that the monster could not *become friend* or *live with people*. Then, he imagined a new space where the monster actually can become friend or live with people. This is evidence of imagining an alternative space with different images or norms of what the monster should be like. In the process, Student 4 implicitly challenged how a monster was usually stereotyped as anti-social and not friendly. This is considered to represent the act of imagining a new translocal space where different social norms for a monster can apply.

In the second writing of Figure 1, Student 5 imagined a new space where a monster can be like Hong Gil Dong, a Korean fictional character from the novel *Hong Gil Dong Jeon* written by Geun Huh during the early 17th century (See Huh & Hu, 1991 for a later publication of the same story). Hong Gil Dong was a thief. He tried to steal from rich people and shared what he stole with poor people. Hong was criticized by people because of his disclosed theft, but his original intention was to help those in need. Student 5 seemed to read a space in the story of Frankenstein, where Frankenstein could not actually help poor people and made connections to a space in the story of Hong where people misunderstand Hong. In this translocal movement, Student 5 imagined a new emerging space where Frankenstein can help other poor people without being misunderstood or judged by people. Reading across different localities, in this case ancient Korea and the world of Frankenstein, seemed to encourage Student 5 to imagine a kind and helpful monster for poor people, which was not included in any of the localities he visited.

Following this writing activity, students were asked to act out a scene that reflected the changes they had made to the original Frankenstein. The following discussion further unpacked these students' journeys to different localities in which the monster is portrayed as kind and humans are portrayed as bad, reflecting their ability to critique their own locality.

> (…)
> (Students 4 and 5 acting out a scene)
> T: *Ok, good! Thanks for your acting out! Who can share what you think about their story change?*

Student 2: *It's funny.*

T: *Funny?*

Student 4: *Because humans need to be kind, but the monster is kind and humans are bad.*

T: *Yes, humans try to fight with each other just like the monsters!*

Student 4: *This monster looks evil, but his mind was kind?*

Student 6: *People think monster is evil, because he looks like so. But sometimes people are more evils.*

(…) (Transcript collected on January 24th, 2014)

In our general perception of a monster, a monster is not kind and humans are usually believed to be kind. In the students' journey to the reality in the text (Frankenstein stereotyped as evil) and to their own local reality (in which humans beings are more evil), they realize what people unquestionably believe to be true might be called into question. Good and evil can always be challenged in these students' new world and their imagination implied a space where a monster should not be judged by his appearance (*because he looks like so*), but by his character (*kind*). The conjunction, *but*, located in several places in this transcript, functioned as an important signifier for their questioning of a general abstract locality as well as their local context where a monster is stereotyped as evil (*but the monster is kind and humans are bad/ but his mind was kind?/ But sometimes people are more evils*). The last statement in Student 6's discourse, *But sometimes people are more evils*, showed how he critiqued his own space where people act evil and are still not questioned. This is evidence of their critical ability to read across different (text and their own local) communities as a way of questioning their own space. This critique was possible, because Student 6 could imagine an alternative space that the stereotypes of being evil and bad would not exist.

Similarly, *The Tale of Despereaux* also sparked students' critical reading across communities as a way of challenging their own local space. *The Tale of Despereaux* by Dicamillo (2006) is about the main character, Despereaux. He is a very unique and special mouse who is inquisitive about other ways of living, such as human life. He was brave enough to explore human language and music and behave differently from other mice. He would be willing to take a chance to experience unusual things that other mice would not even think of doing. Other mice thought Despereaux was strange

and considered Despereaux's behavior unacceptable within their own culture. During this reading, students noticed how the main character, Despereaux, was different from other mice. Students traveled to Despereaux's locality and discussed what it means to be different from others as shown in writing samples from Students 1 (the first writing) and 4 (the second writing).
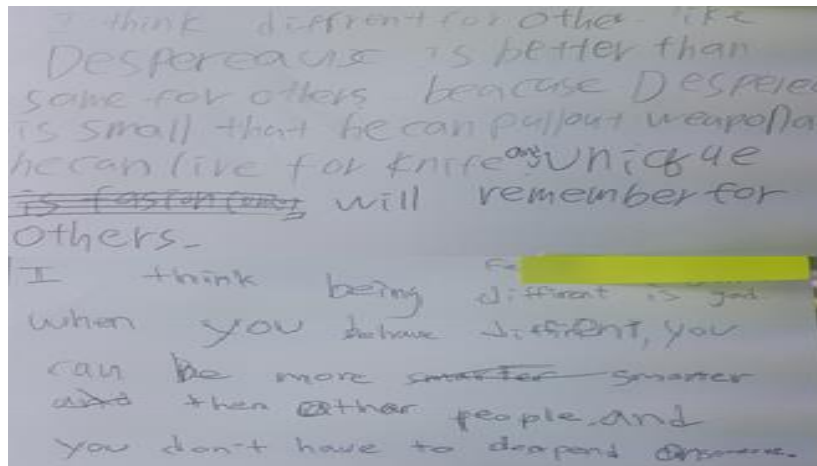

Figure 2. Artifact of Writing on Being Different of Students 1 and 4

(Artifacts created on January 17th, 2014)

In this sample, two students represent all the students' thoughts on being different. They all believed that being different can be positive, as they can be smarter, unique, popular, and positively noticeable to teachers and others. The actual keywords these students used, including *unique, more smarter*, *don't have to depend on everyone*, were indicator of their imagination of an ideal world where being different can be very positive and appreciated. As a result of travelling to Despereaux's space, they realized these keywords were not included in his world. In this sense, their writings seem to show their imaginative construction of an ideal space that rewards differences and empowers individuals. Our class had them further explain their writing and thoughts.

> (…)
> T: (To Student 4) *That's really interesting. Why do you think being different*
> *can make you smarter?*
> Student 4: *Umm, because when other people study one book? And you do*
> *two books? And you can be smarter!*

Student 1: *I think being different is good because being different can be my*

unique point. Also, being different is useful sometimes.

T: *That's interesting! Why do you think being different can be useful?*

Student 1: *Being different is useful, because if you play hide and seek,*

people can hide better.

(…) (Transcript collected on January 17th, 2014)

In this dialogue, Students 1 and 4 imagined a world where being different can be appreciated, as it can make you *smarter* and you can *hide better* when playing hide and seek. Their articulation of the benefits of being different seemed to be grounded in a locality where the cultural norm of being different is celebrated. The students suggested alternative angles from which to interpret being different based on how other mice responded to Despereaux. Their responses included the locality of Despereaux and a locality with an ideal culture of celebrating differences.

 The teacher then invited them to consider one more locality of their own:

 (…)

 T: *Good! Now think of your everyday life. Is being different respected in*

 your own life? Because in your writing, you all mentioned being different is

 good and we should respect being different.

 Student 1: *Being different is not respected!*

 T: *Yeah?*

 Student 1: *One boy in Class 11?*

 T: *Uh-huh?*

 Student 1: *He smells bad?*

 T: *Yeah?*

 Student 1: *He was teased my friends.*

 T: *Oh, how would you feel if you were him?*

 Student 1: *I would lose my friends.*

 (…) (Transcript collected on January 17th, 2014)

With the teacher's question, Student 1's discourse brought in a different dynamic, because he demonstrated how the viewpoints discussed in their writings and whole-class interaction did not match with his local context, because his friend *was teased* by his *friends* and he understood that he *would lose his friends* if he risked being different. With the teacher's guidance, *Now think of your everyday life. Is being different respected in your own life?,* Student 1 moved across three different localities (one locality of Despereaux, one locality with celebratory norm for difference, and his present locality with teased classmate who smells bad). He then started to recognize the gaps among those spaces, as he suggested a new world which celebrates differences while sharing his own local context where he observed unfair treatment for one unique classmate. Identifying the gaps between the ideal and his own life experience created the possibility of extending his critical reading practices and his reflections to their own local space. These students' critical reading across different communities revealed a pattern of moving to a world that the text invited, creating an alternative space that is more ideal and finally, reflecting back on their own local culture to critique.

Translocal Flows for Reading across Communities

The second dominant way to engage in critical reading across communities was to indicate multiple physical and imaginative localities in order to critique a social issue, even with the topics unrelated to the students' personal experiences from their own locality. In this way, students seemed to learn how to make connections to others that did not share similar types of experiences with them. This type of engagement was discrete from the first pattern reported above, because although they were unable to connect their own locality to the issues, they still managed to take journeys across diverse localities in their discourses. This required strong imagination practices for others' experiences and spaces.

For example, the students read *TinTin in America* written by Hergé (2010). TinTin, the main character, is a detective who can overcome any type of challenge when chasing bad gangsters and being chased by them. TinTin endured such dramatic obstacles yet always won and succeeded in sending the gangsters to jail. TinTin was a white Caucasian and the other characters were mainly Hispanics (the gangsters) and Native American Indians (described as very silly and irrational village residents who were kicked out of their own lands). There was one episode in which TinTin visited a village of American Indians and fought with the Hispanic gangsters. In the process, TinTin happened to find oil on the American Indians' village. Suddenly many White businessmen offered TinTin a

great deal of money to buy this land. When TinTin mentioned that this land belonged to American Indians, the business people negotiated with them for a very small amount of money (\$ 25.00) and kicked them out of their village. The whole class discussion about this episode follows below.

(…)

T: *What do you think about this particular scene we read together?*

Student 4: *Bad!*

T: *Yeah?*

Student 4: *Not enough money? They think Indians don't know lot about money like, that stuff? And they are not smart? So they just gave them a small amount of money.*

T: *Not enough money!*

Student 5: *I saw TV on for one hour before?*

T: *Uh-huh!*

Student 5: *There is a program about Black feet (a wording borrowed from "redfeet' in the text to indicate a particular Native Indian tribe) and white persons? There is a boxing, American champion. He is a black. So, he won a world champion.*

T: *Yes?*

Student 5: *There was a world champion, but he didn't want to fight with a black person.*

T: *Ok?*

Student 5: *So, black persons cannot be a champion, but then the world champion has changed and the black people won finally!*

Student 4: *When in English soccer league? One 관중?* [audience]

T: *audience?*

Student 4: *One audience told 박지성 중국 어쩌고 했어요. 꺼져 이렇게 말했어요.* [Park Ji-sung, blar blar blar! Get out of here, they said.]

Student 1: *It is really happening now? In America, Indians live here and Americans live there? So it is happening now.* (It = racial segregation)

Student 2: *I think in Korea some people think they didn't saw black people? They hand shake and talk? And some people think it is a little dirty?*

Student 4: *Because red people are born by reds? And black people were born as black?*

T: *Uh-huh*.

Student 4: *So you have to respect them? Because they didn't have any choice!*

Student 2: *Because Student 4 said, no choice? And they are same people?*

(...) (Transcript collected on January 25th, 2013)

In this transcript, the students' discussion indicated several translocal movements. Student 4's content words, *don't know, money, not smart, gave,* and *a small amount of money* were connected with the pronouns, *they* and *them*. It was clear that *they* and *them* (American Indians) were not treated well, because the money they got was *not enough*. This treatment was based upon what *they* (White businessmen who want to have oil) *think* and they just *gave them a small amount of money*. In this discourse, the verbs used to describe the actions of the White businessmen were all associated with the active behaviors of thinking and giving, expressed by the words as *think* and *gave*, while the words used in relation to the American Indians were passive and negative, in that it was assumed that they *don't know about money*, *not smart*, and were given *a small amount of money* for their own land. The association of the students' content words with the pronouns clarified how Student 4 understood the power relationships between the businessmen and the Native Americans. More importantly, it also illustrated how Student 4 moved from his own local perspective and was able to speak from both the businessmen's (*they think, they just gave them*) and the American Indians' (*not enough money*) perspectives. He actively made translocal connections across different spaces and times (America when the Trail of Tears occurred) and TinTin's imaginative situation (America where a racial minority was treated unfairly). Using his imagination, he traveled to the localities of the businessmen and American Indians, and thus Student 4 understood the unfairness of this transaction.

Regarding Student 5's journey to the text, his connection to a TV program on the American Boxing Championship showed the ways Student 5 related to the racial issue in the text. Although

Student 5's story seemed unrelated, his translocal movement to the local context of the American boxing championship demonstrated how he moved from Student 4's textual analysis to an American context where racial discrimination occurred and put himself in a black boxer's situation in that particular locality and time. Juxtaposing a White and a Black professional boxing player, Student 5 articulated how the original white boxing champion *didn't want to fight with a black person* and as a result, *the black persons cannot be a champion*. His conjunction, *but then*, however, had a dramatic impact on how *the black people won finally*! His discourse seemed to lead to his imagined world where people of any race can be champions if they try. His content word, *has changed*, indicated his maneuver toward a different locality from what he had described before. His trip to multiple localities (TinTin's imagined space, the locality of the American Championship in which racial minorities cannot compete, and his imagined world without racial discrimination) showed a strong connection to the issues of racial discrimination and marginalization that extended beyond his own local boundaries. Thus, Student 5 was able to empathize with those racial minorities in America during that time period.

Students 5's discourse suddenly sparked the other students' movements to multiple localities: the U. K., Indian Reservations in present-day America, the present Korean context, and an imagined locality without any type of racial discrimination. Student 4 was reminded of Park Ji-Sung, a famous Korean soccer player, who became a member of the Manchester United soccer team in the U.K. He connected with this Korean player with regards to the racial discrimination that he experienced in an English soccer league. Student 1 then brought in another locality, America, a place with American Indian Reservations. Student 1's translocal movement extended their notion of racial discrimination to racial segregation as a form of social marginalization or discrimination. Student 1 activated his previous experiences with American Indian Reservations, his reading experiences of TinTin, and his meaning making of other students' different stories from diverse localities (American Boxing Championship, U. K.). Along similar lines, Student 2 travelled from Student 1's America to Korea where people have some negative prejudice towards African descendants, treating them in an unkind and disrespectful way (*And some people think it is a little dirty?*).

These dynamic translocal literacy practices seemed to suggest an alternative world without the identified social issues or marginalization, as Students 4 and 2 articulated the core content words: *born by, respect, no choice, same people*. These students' complicated translocal

movements to multiple localities unpacked their active imagination of an ideal space where those identified social injustices do not exist. Their translocal literacy practices that were not bounded by their direct personal experiences seemed to activate and sometimes require their social imagination to envision an alternative locality without social injustice.

Discussion

Similar to immigrants' translocal literacy practices (Guerra, 2007, 2008; Medina, 2010), these Korean local students' knowledge production and literacy practices within a translocal framework illuminated how they, as Korean local readers, actively assigned relevance to multiple localities during their meaning-making. Their literacy engagement could not be interpreted as fully local or completely global. The students' local knowledge production sometimes seemed to be challenged by their journey to translocal spaces, leading them to revisit what had been commonplace in their own locality (the first finding, *Engaging in Critical Reading across Communities*). In this finding session, students challenged their local knowledge of humans not being questioned although acting evil, and also their school culture of marginalizing a unique and different classmate. Their seemingly local literacy acts were re-created, re-emerged, and re-produced with "the reinscription" (Medina, 2010, p. 41) of their local discourses as they were able to assume multiple translocalities into their literacy practices. Their localities were not confined in a self-contained and static fashion. Instead, students' emerging ability to read across communities, usually the communities of book characters and other imagined communities with ideal social norms, helped students appreciate dynamic and creative perspectives that were not related to a static local boundary of their own (Kostogriz & Tsolidis, 2008). In some parts of the data analysis, we observed how students' reading across communities facilitated their critical reflection on what was naturalized and unquestioned in their own local community. For example, these students visited multiple localities and critiqued their local culture of stereotyping humans as unquestionably kind and nice, while monsters are always thought to be evils. They also critiqued their school culture where differences are not respected. In this sense, the translocal literacy framework can describe the complexity of these students' meaning-making and how they extended their local knowledge to imagining multiple translocal movements. Building upon previous research (Guerra, 2007, 2008; Medina, 2010; Kostogriz & Tsolidis, 2008), we learned that local readers' responses to the texts should also be unpacked by mapping their diverse trajectories and maneuvering across globalized spaces.

Related to the participants' discrete life experiences and their connections to critical reading across communities, it is noticeable that Student 4 was the only one who has lived abroad before. As the data analysis showed, Student 4 was very active in his engagement of translocal movement, seemingly reflecting on his previous experiences of living in the U. S. A. However, other boys were equally brining on their dynamic maneuver across different translocal (both imagined and real) movements across communities. For example, Student 5 made connections to another racial minority, an African American boxing champion without his previous experience of living abroad. Student 1 showed his empathy toward Native Indians who are segregated from other racial groups. Student 2 also articulated how some Koreans have strong negative stereotypes about African descendants, showing his empathy toward those who are marginalized without his actual experience with racial tensions. Different from previous research on translocal literacy heavily on immigrants (Guerra, 2007, 2008; Medina, 2010; Kostogriz & Tsolidis, 2008), we suggest dynamic translocal literacy practices can also occur with local readers even without direct translocal experiences and should be an important research focus in this globalized educational setting.

Next, imagination needs to be re-conceptualized as a critical component for reading across communities in translocal literacy research. Previous research on imagination (Appadurai, 1990, 1996; Baron-Cohen, 2001; Fernyhough, 2008; Green, 1995; Johnston, 1993; McCollough, 1992) did not make specific connection between students' imagination of others' lives with their developing empathy toward others when engaging in translocal literacy acts. Its explicit connection would strengthen translocal literacy educators' pedagogy for local students, as local readers can be effectively encouraged to read across different communities. This is so because students need to imagine other communities that are different from their own. The participants in this study were high-level English users, thus their imagination was effectively activated. In the second finding session of *Translocal Flows for Reading across Communities*, they imagined Native Indian's community in the period of Trail of Tears and the world where racial minorities were treated unfairly in America and in U. K. These students did not experience racial discrimination or marginalization within their own local boundaries. Imagination, however, helped them de-naturalize their own point of view (imagining a local culture without racial marginalization as a way to not taking for granted their own local context without much racial issues) in order to embrace alternative perspectives and experiences of others (those of Native Indians, American Boxing Champions, a Korean soccer play in U. K.). Being able to imagine others' situations or experiences beyond their

own local boundaries was closely related to their ability to read across the communities and speak critically about other perspectives. This clear connection was demonstrated in the analysis of students' translocal flows for reading across communities. Therefore, it is important for teachers to encourage imagination as a crucial component when students are trained to read across diverse communities and to think outside of their own local boundaries.

Emphasizing imagination should be even more intentional with other lower level English language learners, requiring teachers' strong pedagogical approach to include imagination and its connection to empathy toward others. Especially with lower level local readers of English, it is important to assist them in making connections to others when their local experiences and knowledge cannot support their active translocal engagement with others. Imagination at this point is critical when encouraging students' travel to different social spaces to empathize with others. It has been confirmed that imagination is more than fantasy, escape and pastime (Appadurai, 1990); it is a systematically organized social practice that particularly guides readers to consider alternative perspectives and understand those who hold different values and beliefs (Green, 1995). As the participants in this study showed evidence of imagining the social issues of others and were able to articulate the unfair consequences of these issues in the lives of others, other lower-level local readers can also imagine and connect to others translocally. Imagining in this case should be a very intentional and explicit pedagogical tool with possibility for these local readers' difficulties to imagine for alternative perspectives and worldviews. We argue that imagination can be a powerful pedagogical tool when engaging students in critical reading across different communities and suggest very well-organized pedagogy for imagination when local readers of English are taught to engage in translocal literacy practices for critical reading across communities.

Although it is not the focus of the present paper, the teacher's pedagogical approach played a critical role in this literacy group. Teacher had to be systematic and intentional to invite students to work on translocal reading across book characters' worlds and other imagined worlds that alternative perspectives were included. For example, while reading *Frankenstein*, teacher asked students to think of ways to change the original storyline as one pedagogical activity to think of alternative spaces, to activate their imagination on what can be otherwise, and to help them consider Frankenstein's space in more personally meaningful manners. As a result, they came up with a new translocal space where monsters are not stereotyped as evil or bad, and even further their analysis to critique their own local context where humans can act evil while not being questioned as evils. In *The Tale of Despereaux*,

teacher asked an explicit question to situate their imagined, ideal world without any type of marginalization for differences into their own local setting. With this explicit questioning, students reflected on how their own local community did not actually appreciate diversity and differences as much as they imagined. For example, Student 1 came up with an example of his classmate who was marginalized due to his difference. While not included in this paper, with *TinTin in America*, teacher focused on character analysis and how different racial groups were represented in this story. Teacher's constant questions, such as 'who has power?' 'how do you know who has power and who doesn't?' 'how are Native Indians treated?' and 'how would you feel if you were TinTin?' were used to initiate students' character analysis, depending on their racial backgrounds. Teacher's questioning that encourages alternatives and embracing more than one locality into class discussion should be considered for rich connection making across different cultural borders.

Conclusion

In conclusion, translocal literacy practices have a strong potential to encourage local readers' critical reading practices across communities. Extending previous research on translocal literacy, this paper introduced a translocal framework, which can also be useful for interpreting local readers' reading practices across communities. This research also showed even without direct personal experiences, local learners can make empathetic connections to others and can imagine alternative worldviews that are more critical and justice-oriented for all. Moreover, we learned that imaging others' spaces helped students to be more empathetic toward others, as they learn to reflect on social issues existing in other spaces. To elaborate further, with the pedagogical approach of imagination as a social practice, local readers learned to extend their local culture to be more inclusive in the sense of considering more than one perspective as they re-interpreted their local knowledge and practices, critiquing a more globally acceptable alternative. It was indeed edifying to observe how these local readers could imagine others' locality, because they demonstrated the potential of imagination as a strong pedagogical tool for local readers to read critically about multiple localities, thus developing their empathy and critical voices to create more justice for all in our local and global communities.

A translocal literacy framework should be further investigated in diverse local contexts, extending the existing body of research focusing on immigrants or cultural minorities' translocal movements. Considering the impact of translocality not only on immigrants, but on everyone,

understanding local learners' translocal literacy practices will shed light on the theoretical understanding of translocal literacy in diverse local settings. The role of imagination should be explored in critical literacy research in order to develop a pedagogical framework for teaching students to analyze other people's social issues without being confined by their own social justice issues. When we are able to imagine a translocal community with others, we can imagine a translocal place where diverse social norms and values are celebrated and respected. While this research does not intend to generalize translocal literacy practices to wider general population, the participants in this research was high in their English proficiency and their ways to engage in this particular literacy engagement should be interpreted within this particular educational contexts. Related to this, the findings should not apply directly to different students with diverse English proficiency levels and should be open for other ways to embody translocal literacy. More sophisticated guidance and progressive teaching methods should address translocal literacy practices for lower-level English readers. In addition, the data analysis included in this paper is only within this particular educational context and an ethnographic research design with diverse sources of data over time and alternative analytic tool for translocal literacy should be investigated and suggested to address the limitations of the present study.

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A Cross-national Study into Pre-service EFL Teachers' Career Choice Motivations in Germany, Japan, and Turkey

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Acknowledgments

Abstract

This study investigated career choice motivations and beliefs about the teaching profession for a cross-national diverse sample of German, Japanese, and Turkish pre-service English teachers. The Factors Influencing Teaching Choice scale was used to collect data from 85 participants. Kruskal-Wallis and Mann-Whitney U test results revealed significant differences between samples in all motivational constructs: 'self-perception', 'intrinsic', 'personal utility', 'social utility', 'social influence', and

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'fallback'. German participants reported having more positive perceived teaching ability than Japanese participants, who rated choosing teaching as a fallback career significantly higher than the others. Turkish participants were found to be more altruistically and intrinsically motivated, while more negative feelings were reported by German participants regarding the social status and value of the teaching profession in society. Following these findings, the role of context in career choice motivations and beliefs about the teaching profession are discussed.

Key words: Career choice motivation, Beliefs about teaching profession, Pre-service teacher education, English language teacher education, Cross-national comparison

Introduction

Recent concerns regarding the lack of highly qualified and motivated teachers entering the profession (Hanusheck, 1995; OECD, 2005) have led to a growing body of research investigating the reasons for choosing teaching as a career especially at pre-service level. Yet, when analytically studied, it is seen that several of these studies have approached their samples or cases by considering the subject areas of teaching and too often have been limited to local settings (see Boz & Boz, 2008; Moran et al., 2001; Thomson, Turner, & Nietfeld, 2012), whereas only a small number of studies can be cited providing insights into similarities and differences across culturally, ethnically, socially or economically diverse samples (see Watt et al., 2012; Moreau, 2014). Therefore, there seems to be a gap in the literature for cross-national comparative research studies.

On the other hand, considering that English is a world language, it is critical to provide effective English language education all over the globe to enable international learners to develop intercultural communicative competence with a global awareness. This need makes it critical to recruit highly motivated teachers because there is an agreement in the literature that teachers' enthusiasm and job commitment are regarded as basic determinants influencing learners' motivation and the quality of education teachers provide is relatively influenced by their career motivations (Minor et al., 2002; as cited by Aksu et al., 2010; Richards, 2008; Richardson & Watt, 2005). For that reason, it is important to understand career choice motivations of English teachers in different countries. This is the main concern of the present study. It attempts to contribute to our knowledge regarding career choice motivations by using cross national samples, which will possibly show the role of contextual factors, if any, in choosing teaching as a career.

Sources of entry motivations to become a teacher

Reasons for choosing a teaching career are usually categorised into three types of entry motivations: (a) altruistic, (b) intrinsic, and (c) extrinsic. Altruistic reasons are related to the belief that teaching is an important and socially worthwhile job (Kyriacou, Hultgren, & Stephens, 1999) and involve such factors as 'desire to help children to succeed' and 'desire to help society improve' (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000, p. 117). Intrinsic reasons are based on an individual's internal drives, comprising factors such as 'enjoying teaching' and 'being interested in teaching' (Boz & Boz, 2008, p. 138), while extrinsic ones refer to external rewards such as 'long holidays', 'high income', and 'job security' (Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000, p. 117).

According to Brown (1992), intrinsic factors are more important than extrinsic ones, since intrinsically and/or altruistically motivated teachers are likely to exert more effort to teach effectively and become more committed to teaching. Conversely, as found in Bruinsma and Jansen's study (2010), pre-service teachers with extrinsic maladaptive motives tend to remain in the profession for shorter periods. The most negative factor is regarded as teaching as a fallback career, namely choosing teaching as a last resort career choice, because people who wish to have a different career might feel unmotivated to teach.

Earlier studies found that teaching career decisions commonly rest on altruistic motives (Yong, 1995). Two research studies carried out in the US concluded that factors such as 'desire to work with children', 'desire to impart knowledge', and 'give service to society' were the main drives to become a teacher (Thomas, 1984; Lortie, 1975; as cited by Johnston, Mckeown, & Mcewen, 1999). Several other studies in the following years also revealed similar results (e.g., Joseph & Green, 1986; Book & Freeman, 1986; Goodlad, 1984; Richardson, 1988; Marshall, 1986).

However, there are studies which showed that people do choose to become teachers as a result of intrinsic and extrinsic motives as well. In Moran et al.'s quantitative study (2001), for example, pre-service teachers in Northern Ireland were found to mainly have intrinsic motives. Similarly, a study in the Turkish context (Boz & Boz, 2008) showed that pre-service chemistry and mathematics teachers were influenced by intrinsic factors such as 'enjoying teaching', and 'interest in chemistry and mathematics'. Conversely, in some other studies, extrinsic motives such as 'job security' and 'high income' were found to be more influential (e.g., Aksu et al., 2010; Bastick, 2000; Kılınç & Mahiroğlu, 2009; Kyriacou & Benmansour, 2002).

Rather than being driven by only one factor, teacher career decisions can be the result of a

combination of motivations. While several studies concluded that a combination of altruistic and intrinsic motives plays a significant role in choosing a teaching career (e.g., Kyriacou & Coulthard, 2000; Richardson & Watt, 2005; Saban, 2003; Watt & Richardson, 2007), some others found both extrinsic and intrinsic motives to be more influential (e.g., Erten, 2014; Johnston et al., 1999; Moran et al., 2001).

Similar to the findings summarised above, previous studies that focused on teachers of English revealed intrinsic, altruistic, and extrinsic motives as popular reasons to become an English teacher. For example, in a scale validation study in the Turkish context, Subaşı (2009) collected qualitative data from 642 pre-service teachers at a university and revealed altruistic and intrinsic motives as the most popular reasons. Similarly, a quantitative study carried out by Topkaya and Uztosun (2012) showed that pre-service teachers of English in Turkey mainly rely on altruistic and intrinsic motives. Amengual-Pizarro and Garcia-Laborda (2015) carried out a small scale survey study in Spain and found that intrinsic (e.g. love of children) and altruistic (e.g. improving education) were the most popular motives. In Korean context, Kim and Kim's (2015) study showed that besides intrinsic motives, global orientation (e.g. desire to communicate with people from different countries), extrinsic, and out-to-self (e.g. influence of others) motives play significant roles in become an English teacher. In a qualitative study carried out in Turkey, Erten (2014) found that pre-service teachers of English choose a teaching career by considering intrinsic (e.g. interest in the field and perceived success in the field) and extrinsic (job opportunities and popular language) reasons.

As can be detected in the findings of these studies, a variety of motivations affects teacher career choice, and therefore, it is difficult to identify the predominant ones. Consequently, at this juncture it is reasonable to approach this concept from a different point of view by investigating whether career choice motivations are similar across samples and whether there are distinct country effects upon the decisions.

Entry motivations to become a teacher in diverse contexts
Apart from the factors described above that mediate career choices, context-dependent factors play important roles in choosing a career, and therefore, career choice is seen as the outcome of long-established cultural norms and a product of socially and historically situated choices negotiated through structural constraints (Forbes Insights, 2012; Özbilgin, Küskü, & Erdoğmuş, 2005). In this respect, it is appropriate to state that career choice is a complex process that is shaped by discursive

constructions of teaching, gender and social class (Moreau & Jarty, 2010). For this reason, it is not possible to approach the construct of career choice without referring to the context. As such, individuals may not even have control over their career decisions and from this perspective, the concept 'career choice' could even be seen as an illusion (Özbilgin et al., 2005).

Several studies have provided evidence for the effects of context-dependent reasons that influence career choice. For example, in a study conducted in Cyprus, 'immediate employment after graduation' was found to be the main motive to become a teacher, since the Cypriot government offered a guaranteed two-year teaching position (Papanastasiou & Papanastasiou, 1998). Yet, in another study, differences in extrinsic and altruistic factors were detected between pre-service teachers in the US, Australia, Norway, and Germany (Watt et al., 2012). According to the authors, these findings might result from contextual differences in factors such as 'the requirements to obtain a teaching certificate', 'the flexibility of teaching hours', and 'the principles of unity and equality'. A recent qualitative study on secondary school teachers in England and France documented strong intrinsic motives of French teachers and altruistic motives of English teachers in choosing a teaching career (Moreau, 2014). Moreau (2014) argues that this is related to the individualist, Anglo-saxon tradition of England, where teachers are concerned with making a difference in children's lives, while in France, an egalitarian country, treating each individual child equally are seen as the most important aspects of education.

The findings of the few studies mentioned above support the argument that contextual factors could be determinative in career choice. However, little is still known about which contextual factors motivate individuals to choose a teaching career in different countries. Therefore, this study looks into the career choice motivations of pre-service English language teachers by using a cross-national comparison in Germany, Japan and Turkey. The following research questions guide the study:

1- What are career choice motivations of pre-service English teachers in Germany, Japan and Turkey?

2- Are there statistically significant differences between these participants in the reasons for choosing a teaching career?

3- Are there statistically significant differences between these participants in beliefs about teaching?

Research Context: A brief comparison of individualism/collectivism, teacher recruitment and education in Germany, Japan and Turkey

Several research studies that investigated career choice within a cross-cultural perspective refer to individualism/collectivism (Özbilgin et al., 2005), because individualist and collectivist societies have distinct characteristics that could influence an individual's career choice. In individualist societies, individuals are more autonomous and self-contained and build their life personally (Auyeung & Sand, 1997; Viebahn, 2003). Conversely, individuals in collectivist societies are interdependent and take into consideration the society or a group of people in making a career decision (Auyeung & Sand, 1997; Viebahn, 2003). The countries involved in the present study have different characteristics in terms of individualism/collectivism. According to Hofstede's Model on National Culture (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010), Turkey and Japan are collectivist societies and Germany is an individualist society (see Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2010, for details).

In addition to individualism/collectivism, there are both similarities and differences between these countries regarding issues related to the teaching profession, including teacher shortage, the status of teaching as a profession, and the qualifications required to become a teacher.

First of all, Germany is a federal republic that constitutes sixteen states each of which has different standards for teacher recruitment and teacher education (Coşkun, 2000; as cited by Uygun, Ergen, & Öztürk, 2011). Turkey and Japan are unitary republics and the qualifications required to become a teacher are standardised (Kitao et al., 1997; as cited by Aldemir & Er, 2012).

Second, in Japan and Turkey, access to teacher education is competitive and students take university entrance exams, whereas in Germany candidates' assessments during the last few years of university are taken into consideration. In all three counties, the contents of courses offered in pre-service teacher education are similar, in that students take classes that include field courses and educational science. In addition to these courses, 'science field' courses are offered in Germany, and 'general culture courses' are offered in Japan and Turkey (Aldemir & Er, 2012; Uygun et al., 2011). The weight given to the practice phase in teacher education varies across these countries. In Germany, four-year theoretical education is followed by a two-year mandatory practice phase (Uygun et al., 2011), where students practise teaching at schools and take classes at universities. In Japan, students take a school experience course in the first year, and teaching practice courses in the third and fourth years of their four-year university education. In Turkey, the practice phase is

offered through two courses in the last year of a four-year teacher education program: School Experience and Teaching Practicum.

Third, in Turkey teachers take a theoretical central exam to obtain available teaching positions offered by the Ministry of Education while in Japan, after succeeding in a central examination, teacher candidates are invited to give a teaching demonstration at schools to be employed as teachers. People commence a teaching career in their late twenties or early thirties in Germany, and in their early twenties in Japan and Turkey (OECD, 2005). In Japan and Turkey, teachers are employed as civil servants with high job security and in Germany the majority of teachers are civil servants depending on their federal states. This status makes teaching an attractive career choice.

Fourth, with regard to teacher salaries, the starting salary in Turkey is far less than in Germany and Japan. According to the OECD report (2011) in which the teacher salaries of 36 countries are displayed, a teacher with fifteen years of teaching experience working in upper secondary education earns $68,619 per year in Germany, $49,408 in Japan, and $28,076 in Turkey.

Lastly, the drop in numbers entering the teaching career and the high proportion of teachers aged over 50 are some of the concerns in Germany (OECD, 2005). To overcome this, policies have been initiated to attract and retain qualified young people in the teaching profession (OECD, 2005). On the other hand, in Japan and Turkey, teacher shortage is not an issue: limited teaching positions are offered by the governments and obtaining teaching positions is highly competitive (Erten, 2014; Kitao et al., 1997).

The issues discussed above mark contextual differences and similarities between Germany, Japan and Turkey, regarding individualism/collectivism, teacher education, and teacher recruitment. In all, however, the overall trend is clear. There is a growing need for attracting, developing and retaining an effective teacher workforce.

Methodology

Given the scope and aim of this study, a survey methodology was adopted, which enables researchers to collect data from a variety of settings even when the researchers have limited access to the participants. Furthermore, surveys allow for gathering comparable information (Mackey & Gass, 2005) through which quantitative analysis can be conducted to explore the statistical differences between variables.

Sample

A total of 85 pre-service English language teachers studying at particular universities in Germany, Japan and Turkey participated in the study. The universities were selected because of their convenient accessibility to the researchers. They are located in Lower Saxony in Germany, western Japan and western Turkey. The demographic information of the participants is displayed in Table

Table 1
Demographic Information of the Participants

Variables	Germany	Japan	Turkey	Total
Number of the	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)	N (%)
participants	33 (39)	24 (28)	28 (33)	85 (100)
Gender				
Male	14 (42)	9 (37)	3 (11)	26 (31)
Female	19 (58)	15 (63)	25 (89)	59 (69)
Age				
20-23	9 (27)	24 (100)	26 (93)	59 (69)
24-26	10 (30)	-	2 (7)	12 (14)
27-30	9 (27)	-	-	9 (11)
31-35	5 (15)	-	-	5 (6)
Year of study				
3rd year	2 (6)	21 (88)	-	23 (27)
4th year	15 (46)	2 (8)	28 (100)	45 (53)
5th year	12 (36)	1 (4)	-	13 (15)
6th year	4 (12)	-	-	4 (5)

As can be seen in Table 1, the majority of the participants were female. Although the sample of this study is small and the participation was based on voluntary participation, this finding seems to confirm previous studies which have indicated that more female students chose teaching as a career (e.g., Aksu et al., 2010; Kılınç, Watt, & Richardson, 2012; Watt & Richardson, 2007).

As for age, the German sample was more varied, which is probably because it takes longer in Germany to complete the teacher education programmes. This confirms that teachers start their career in their early thirties in Germany. The Turkish and Japanese samples being largely between the ages of 20 and 23 is compatible with the fact that people usually complete their university education when they are at an early working age (up to 24 years old) in these countries, which could reflect some context-dependent, social and financial reasons. For example, in Turkey,

mandatory military service for males becomes a barrier in finding a job if not completed. Similarly, low-level economic conditions of families encourage university students to look for a career that will provide them with a secure income and stability. Similar demographic and background characteristics have also been reported by different studies (see Saban, 2003; Kılınç, 2009). Yet, to fully understand how these factors influence career choice decisions in cross-national contexts, more studies should focus on the issue.

Instrument

This study implemented the Factors Influencing Teaching Choice (FIT-Choice) scale. The scale, grounded in Eccles et al.'s expectancy-value theory (1983), was developed by Watt and Richardson (2007). It comprises 7-point Likert-type items ranging from 'strongly agree' (7) to 'strongly disagree' (1). The reliability and validity studies carried out across different settings revealed strong factorial invariance indicating that the scale can be implemented in different contexts (Watt et al., 2012).

The original scale comprises three sections: (a) factors influencing teaching choice, (b) beliefs about teaching and the decision to become a teacher, and (c) teaching engagement and career development aspirations. This study focused on factors influencing teaching choice, beliefs about the teaching profession and decisions to become a teacher.

The first section of the scale included six motivational factors: (a) self-perceptions (perceived teaching ability), (b) intrinsic values (internal drives such as 'desire to teach'), (c) personal utility values (external drives such as 'time for family'), (d) social utility values (altruistic drives such as 'desire to 'make social contribution'), (e) fallback career choice (choosing teaching as a last resort career), and (f) socialisation influences ('influence of significant others') (see Watt & Richardson, 2007). The statements in this section follow the phrase, "I chose to become a teacher because ...", which was reworded into "an English teacher" in the present study because all participants were pre-service English teachers.

The second part comprises two factors related to beliefs about teaching and the decision to become a teacher: (a) task demand and (b) task return. Task demand includes two sub-scales: (a) expert career and (b) high demand. Task return includes five sub-scales: (a) social status (b) teacher morale (e.g. teachers feel valued by society), (c) good salary, (d) social dissuasion and (e) satisfaction with choice. In this study, social dissuasion was disregarded because it was decided

that 'socialisation influences', a subscale of the first section, would identify this type of motivation.

The original scale comprises 61 items, all in English. In the present study, items with similar meanings were merged into single statements and the scale was shortened to 32 items. For example, instead of including three items about intrinsic career value, the item 'I am interested in teaching' was disregarded and the two items – 'I have always wanted to be a teacher', and 'I like teaching' were used. Similarly those items related to promoting social equity were excluded in the belief that other items capturing the altruistic factor would suffice to detect this type of motivation. This version of the scale had been piloted in an earlier study (see Topkaya & Uztosun, 2012) and the reliability analysis showed high reliability values for each factor, including self-perception ($\alpha = .78$), intrinsic values ($\alpha = .71$), personal utility ($\alpha = .85$), social utility ($\alpha = 88$), social influences ($\alpha = .76$), fallback career ($\alpha = .83$), task demand ($\alpha = .72$), and task return ($\alpha = .82$).

Data analysis

Before analysing the data, a normality test was conducted to check the distributions of the data in each sample context by using SPSS v. 16. The results of a Shapiro-Wilk test showed that the scores were significantly non-normal with positive skewness ($p<.05$). Therefore, non-parametric tests were utilised. A Kruskal-Wallis test was implemented to explore the differences between the samples and a Mann Whitney U-test to explore the direction of these differences. Descriptive statistics were used to calculate the mean scores and standard deviations.

Findings and discussion

Research Question 1: Participants' career motivations to become a teacher

The descriptive analysis showed that, without taking individual countries into account, intrinsic motives, social utility values, and self-perception of teaching ability were found to be the primary inducements to enter a teaching career (Table 2).

Table 2

Entry career motivations of all participants

	N	Mean	Sd
Intrinsic	85	5.1	1.49
Social utility	85	5.08	1.14
Self perception	85	4.7	1.30
Socialization	85	4.0	1.30
Personal utility	85	3.78	1.22
Fallback	84	1.88	1.45

The dependence on intrinsic and altruistic motives is in line with the findings of previous studies. For example, Topkaya and Uztosun (2012), in a study including 207 pre-service English teachers in Turkey, reported social utility (altruistic) and intrinsic values as the primary career motivations. Similarly, investigating pre-service teachers in the US context, Thomson et al. (2012) reported the same factors as predominant. Several earlier studies have also shown similar findings (e.g., Ethington, 1988; Evans, 1988; Thomas, 1984).

In addition to these two constructs, the present study confirmed that perceived teaching ability also plays a significant role in choosing a teaching career. This finding is in line with that of Richardson and Watt (2006) who, in a large-scale study, found perceived teaching ability to be one of the primary drives for pre-service teachers in Australia. Similarly, Topkaya and Uztosun (2012) reported it as the third most popular motive for pre-service English teachers in Turkey.

'Influence of other people' and 'extrinsic reasons' were the next two influential career choice factors this initial analysis revealed. Finally, considering the lowest mean score for 'fallback', it can be inferred that the participants voluntarily chose teaching.

Overall, these results might indicate that the participants in this study were positively motivated and dominantly affected by intrinsic and altruistic factors rather than by extrinsic ones and choosing teaching as a fallback career, which are generally regarded as the indicators of negative teacher motivation (Aksu et al., 2000; Boz & Boz, 2008; Kaufman, 1984; Yong, 1995;). However, it should be noted that the high standard deviations for all motivational constructs indicate that there are differences in the participants' motivational sources, which tells us that this collective initial analysis should be approached with care and further analysis is needed to understand the differences and similarities between these cross-national samples.

Research Question 2: Differences and similarities between the countries in entry career motivations

The results of descriptive analysis, the Kruskal-Wallis and the Mann-Whitney U test revealed some differences and similarities between the countries, which are displayed in Table 3.

Table 3
Differences and similarities between the countries in each motivational construct

		n	Mean	sd	Mean rank	df	χ^2	Sig.	Mean Dif.	Sig.
Intrinsic	Germany	32	4.56	1.47	33.9					
	Japan	24	4.97	1.60	41.3	2	11.4	.003	T>G	.001
	Turkey	28	5.83	1.09	55.07				T>J	.044
	Total	84								
Social utility	Germany	33	4.73	.,00	33.3					
	Japan	24	4.76	1.35	38	2	17.1	.000	T>G	.000
	Turkey	28	5.78	.78	5.,5				T>J	.003
	Total	84								
Self-perception	Germany	32	4.93	1.29	46.8					
	Japan	24	3.66	1.09	23.4	2	23.16	.000	G>J	.000
	Turkey	28	5.33	.92	55.2				T>J	.000
	Total	84								
Socialisation	Germany	33	3.48	.96	34					
	Japan	24	4.06	1.35	44.3	2	8.5	.014	T>G	.004
	Turkey	28	4.56	1.39	52.4					
	Total	85								
Personal utility	Germany	33	3.88	1.22	45.7				G>J	.020
	Japan	24	3.19	1.02	30.4	2	9.3	.009	T>J	.004
	Turkey	28	4.16	1.23	50.5					
	Total	85								
Fallback	Germany	33	148	1.14	35.4				J>G	.001
	Japan	24	2.37	1.46	53.6	2	10.3	.006		
	Turkey	27	1.92	1.68	41.2					
	Total	84								

As can be seen in Table 3, overall, intrinsic motivation, social utility and self-perception are the top sources for a teaching career choice reported by the three nation samples, except the Japanese one, in which respondents reported self-perception to moderately influence their choice of teaching

career (M = 3.66). Fallback received the lowest ratings and personal utility, i.e. extrinsic factors, was the second lowest-rated source of career choice motivation identified by all three country samples. When all samples are compared, it is seen that the Turkish one gave the highest assessments for all constructs except for fallback.

When the findings in Table 3 are closely analysed considering the differences and similarities between the nation samples, it can be observed that the German participants rated self-perception (M = 4.93), social utility (M = 4.73) and intrinsic (M = 4.56) factors as their top reasons to become teachers. Their major source of motivation, i.e. self-perception, could be related to the length of pre-service teacher education in Germany. As Eccles (2005) states, perceived teaching ability is shaped by individuals' learning experiences in which they build awareness of their abilities. Considering this, as they experience initial teacher training for a longer period of time, the German pre-service teachers could find teaching more compatible with their personal abilities, self-image, and self-identity. This seems relevant to individualist characteristics of German society because people in individualistic societies can develop self-awareness more easily as they make their own career decisions. On the other hand, the German sample, not surprisingly, attached very low importance to choosing teaching as a fallback career and socialisation, in other words, the influence of others on career choice (M = 1.48; M = 3.48 respectively). In addition to the individualist characteristic of German society, state-level career path structuring may also explain these low ratings. As is known, in the German education system, children are encouraged to pursue a career path appropriate to their capabilities and the decision on a career path is made at early stages, after primary school, when children are nine and ten years old (Dustmann, 2004). This may result in avoiding choosing teaching as a last resort career or relying on other people's opinions in choosing a teaching career.

The Japanese sample reported a significantly low level of perceived teaching ability (M = 3.66) in comparison to the German and Turkish samples (M = 4.93 and M = 5.33 respectively, p < .050). This finding is in line with a recent report in which Japanese teachers showed lower levels of self-efficacy across all teaching domains and reported a higher need for professional development (OECD, 2013). Low levels of perceived teaching ability could indicate that Japanese participants were dissatisfied with the pre-service teacher education programme they enrolled in. Yet, it must be noted that the majority of the participants in this study were third year students and practice courses are offered in the third and fourth years of their teacher education, and hence, not

having had enough opportunities to sharpen their teaching abilities at the time of data collection for this study might also have caused this low level of perception. All in all, as can be understood, there may be several context-dependent, intrinsic and extrinsic factors influencing this perception. Therefore, more research is needed to determine the likely causes of this negative perception among Japanese pre-service teachers.

The Japanese participants also differed significantly from the German and Turkish ones with regard to the personal utility factor (M = 3.19; p < .050). In other words, external forces such as 'job security', 'lengthy holidays', 'short workday', and 'reliable income' were less important for the Japanese sample. Despite the fact that in all three countries teaching has a civil servant status and teachers hold permanent tenure with a steady and reliable income, this contextual similarity does not seem to be reflected in the findings, which makes interpretation difficult. Furthermore, the German sample placed less importance on extrinsic factors than the Turkish one (M = 3.88 and M = 4.16 respectively). Although the participants reported being more intrinsically motivated in this study, there are studies in the Turkish context which reported extrinsic factors to be the top motivators for teaching career choice (e.g., Çermik et al., 2010; Erten, 2014; Kılınç et al., 2012). These contradictory findings suggest a need for further research into the reasons that underlie extrinsic factors in career choice decisions across national samples.

Lastly, the Japanese sample also reported that teaching was a fallback career for them with the highest mean of the three countries (M = 2.37), which was significantly higher than for the German sample (p < .050). As discussed earlier in the paper, access to higher education is competitive in Japan and there is a high-stake university entrance exam. Thus, the Japanese students in this study might have felt obliged to choose teaching, since other career options were not accessible to them. Another reason for this relatively high rating can be the percentage of new graduates entering employment in Japan. According to the statistics of a 'school basic survey' by the Japanese Ministry of Education, in 2012, 63.9% of new graduates entered the profession, which could indicate that almost half of the new graduates were not probably determined to become teachers. In other words, it can be inferred that teaching profession "has lots its attractiveness to the younger generation" in the Japanese context (Morris & Williams, 2000, p. 278).

As for the Turkish sample, the participants reported significantly higher levels of motivation regarding intrinsic and social utility (altruistic) motives, with mean scores of 5.83 and 5.78 respectively, than the German (M = 4.56; M = 4.73) and the Japanese (M = 4.97; M = 4.76) samples.

This finding is in line with those of Kılınç et al.'s study (2012) which found altruistic reasons to be the most influential factor for pre-service pre-school, primary, and secondary teachers, and Boz and Boz's study (2008) which revealed that intrinsic reasons were more important for chemistry and mathematics teachers in Turkey. In the literature, intrinsic and altruistic values are regarded as favourable motivations and a number of studies have reported several benefits of intrinsic and altruistic drives. For example, Davis and Wilson (2000) found that teacher motivation is related to job satisfaction and job stress, in that "the higher teachers' intrinsic motivation, the more satisfied they are with their jobs and the less stress they experience" (p. 352). Likewise, Eren and Tezel (2010), who investigated the mediating role of pre-service English teachers' future time perspectives in Turkey, found statistically significant relationships among future time perspectives, intrinsic career value, and making a social contribution. In the light of these findings, the high levels of intrinsic and altruistic motivations of the Turkish sample could be promising for the future generation, in that prospective teachers of English are mainly driven by the intrinsic and altruistic motives for teaching, which is likely to foster their motivation to teach.

Along with the intrinsic and social utility factors, the Turkish participants also differed significantly from the German ones in terms of socialisation, i.e. the influence of others (M = 4.56; M = 3.48 respectively) while the Japanese sample also rated the same factor as the third most important source for becoming a teacher (M = 4.06). This finding is congruent with the findings of earlier studies in the Turkish and Japanese contexts, in which socialisation was found to be a significant factor in the career decision-making process (Kılınç & Mahiroğlu, 2009; Ito & Yamazaki, 1985; Kojima & Shinohara, 1985; as cited by Shimahara, 2001). In Kılınç and Mahiroğlu's study, for example, almost half of the Turkish participants reported the influence of other people's views in becoming a biology teacher. The researchers related this finding to the socio-cultural system of Turkey where other people's views, particularly family members, influence an individual's career decision. Similarly, in the Japanese context, especially having good, devoted teachers as role models might have an impact on career decisions (Shimahara, 2001, p. 86). This reflects the collectivist characteristics of these societies. In collectivist countries, individuals are "more closely connected with other people, especially those whom they consider important" (Auyeung & Sand, 1997, p. 15). Being part of collectivist cultures, these two groups of participants might attach greater importance to social capital, namely their parents, teachers and significant others, in their career choice. Another explanation can be that in Turkey almost all

university students depend on parental funding for their university studies. Thus, financial dependence also seems to be a significant factor in career decisions in the Turkish context. Yet, further studies are needed to truly understand how financial support might influence career choice.

Finally, similar to the other samples, the Turkish sample also reported fallback as the least important factor with the second lowest mean score (M = 1.92) yet with the highest standard deviation (sd = 1.62), which indicates that there were outliers in the sample. There are conflicting results in the literature regarding choosing teaching as a fallback career in Turkey. For example, in Aksu et al.'s study (2010), more than half of the 18,226 pre-service teachers from 51 faculties of education in Turkey reported to willingly choose teaching as a career. Conversely, Öztürk Akar (2012) reported that one quarter of 974 pre-service teachers chose teaching as a fallback career. In explaining this finding, the researcher argues that low admission requirements to teacher education programs in Turkey when coupled with poor secondary school performance lead students to choose a teaching career. In the same vein, when the socio-economic backgrounds of pre-service teachers are considered, several studies revealed that these students usually come from low or middle class families with modest incomes (Aksu et al., 2010; Bastick, 2000; Kılınç & Mahiroğlu, 2009), which makes it difficult for these students to pursue their first-choice careers. In this context, a teaching career becomes the second best option for many young people in Turkey as it provides a stable and secure career with a relatively high income.

Research Question 3: Differences between the countries in beliefs about the teaching profession

Exploring the differences in beliefs about the teaching profession was another concern of the present study. Out of eleven items, the Kruskal Wallis and Mann-Whitney U test results yielded significant differences in the five items that are displayed in Table 4.

Table 4

Differences between the countries in beliefs about teaching profession

		N	Mean	sd	Mean rank	df	χ^2	Sig.	Mean Dif.	Sig.
Teaching requires high levels of expert knowledge	Germany	33	5.69	1.23	36.3	2	6.66	.036	J>G	.010
	Japan	24	6.45	.83	52.4					
	Turkey	28	5.96	1.23	42.7					
	Total	85								
Teaching is perceived as a high-status occupation	Germany	33	3.72	1.30	35	2	6.04	.049	T>G	0.27
	Japan	24	4.41	1.38	46.5					
	Turkey	28	4.57	1.81	49.4					
	Total	85								
Teaching is a well-respected career	Germany	33	3.78	1.45	29.3	2	23.4	.000	J>G	.039
	Japan	24	4.54	1.02	39.7				T>G	.000
	Turkey	25	5.68	1.34	59.1				T>J	.001
	Total	82								
Teachers feel valued by society	Germany	33	3.12	1.43	26.7	2	24.6	.000	J>G	.001
	Japan	24	4.5	1.25	45.6				T>G	.000
	Turkey	25	5.32	1.57	57				T>J	.027
	Total	82								
Teachers earn a good salary	Germany	32	5.69	1.23	50.7	2	8.5	.000	G>T	.000
	Japan	24	4.2	1.53	41.5				J>T	.010
	Turkey	24	2.87	1.8	25.8					
	Total	80								

In the item that concerns whether teaching requires high levels of expert knowledge, a statistically significant difference was found between the German and Japanese participants, with the Japanese ones agreeing more that teaching requires high levels of expertise. As known, after graduating from a challenging teacher preparation program, Japanese teachers need to pass a highly competitive teacher appointment exam and following this initial step they participate in seminars, training sessions and other professional development activities. Furthermore, teachers in Japan usually spend 15-20 hours with their students and in the remaining time they collaborate with other teachers to plan and develop curriculum, do research, etc. They also devote significant time and effort to

other activities such as visiting other schools, attending seminars, conducting group research projects, and offering demonstration lessons to other teachers (Darling-Hammond & Ball, 1998). Thus, in such context, it is understandable that they believe teaching requires expert knowledge.

With regard to the perceived status of the teaching profession, the Turkish participants rated their perceptions significantly higher than the German ones. The socio-economic backgrounds of Turkish pre-service teachers can be given as an explanation for this result. As already mentioned, the majority of pre-service teachers in Turkey are from low-income families (e.g. Aksu et al., 2010; Kabadayı, 2008; Kılınç & Mahiroğlu, 2009; Saban, 2003), for whom teaching may be a high status job. The comparison of unemployment rates of Germany and Turkey may also explain this difference. While the Turkish Statistical Institute declared the unemployment rate in July 2013 to be 9,3%, the Deutsche Bundesbank announced it to be 5,2% in Germany. These data may indicate that for many young Turkish adults finding a secure job could be more important. However, it should be noted that there are also some conflicting findings in the Turkish literature regarding the status of teaching. For example, Erden (1998) and Özsoy et al. (2010) reported that their participants considered teaching as a low status profession, while in Kılınç and Mahiroğlu's (2009) study the participants reported mixed feelings. Therefore, more studies should be conducted in Germany and Turkey to have a clearer picture not only about the perceived status of teaching but also whether teaching is believed to have high or low status.

In the items that address whether teaching is a well-respected career and teachers feel valued by society, the German participants significantly and negatively differed from the Turkish and Japanese ones. The fact that the perceived status of a teaching career varies across countries is acknowledged in the literature (Kyriacou et al., 1999; Thomson et al., 2012). The negative perception in the German context about the status of teaching in society provided support for the findings of Watt et al.'s study (2012) in which the main ratings of the items related to the social status of teaching were lowest in Germany, compared to the US, Norway, and Australia. The reason why the German sample considers teaching as being low status may be related to the fact that in industrialized countries like Germany, the impact of teaching and teachers on social change and daily practices of people are less significant and observable that of lawyers, engineers and doctors or any other professionals with similar qualifications, who are often considered as professionals while teachers are viewed more as practitioners. In other words, as societies become wealthier, educational qualifications increase and employment opportunities expand, it may be the case that

teaching loses its appeal for many people (OECD, 2005, p. 5). Without a doubt, it is not possible to find one major reason behind this negative perception in the German sample. As Symeonidis (2015, p. 71) states "teacher status is clearly related to the national socio-cultural and economic context, job security, salaries and working conditions, teachers' professional development, representation of the teaching profession, professional autonomy, social dialogue, and environment in decision-making". However, to understand which ones apply to the German context definitely requires more studies. Yet, what is obvious is that societal, cultural, economic, governmental issues seem to influence this perception.

With regard to salary, the Turkish participants diverged significantly from the other two samples, indicating that teachers do not earn well in Turkey. This supports the data presented in the OECD report (2011) which showed that a Turkish teacher in upper secondary education with fifteen years of experience earns $28,076 per year. The equivalent is $68,619 in Germany and $49,408 in Japan. However, when the German participants' ratings of the items related to job salary and job prestige are compared, it becomes clear that, although they agreed that teachers earn a good salary, they believe that teaching is not a well-respected and valued career. Similarly, although the majority of the Turkish participants agreed that teaching has a high status and is a well-respected career, they reported that teachers are paid a low salary. This shows a disconnection between the salary and prestige of the teaching profession. This disconnection parallels the findings of the Global Teacher Status Index that shows the level of respect for teachers and of their standing in 21 different countries including Japan, Germany, and Turkey (Dolton & Marcenaro-Gutierrez, 2013). According to the findings, although German teachers earn one of the highest salaries, Germany ranked near the bottom of the Teacher Status Index, as participants reported low pupil respect for teachers, little trust in teachers to deliver a good education, and modest levels of encouragement for children to become teachers. On the other hand, while Turkish teachers earn the seventh lowest salary among other participants, Turkey ranked the third in the Teacher Status Index and respondents reported moderate high respect for teachers.

It is not easy to interpret the varying opinions about the status, prestige of the teaching profession in the samples of this study. Yet, it is for sure that any attempt to explain these views must include "contextual factors, such as national societal issues, the characteristics of each educational system, regional and local specifics, school organisation, and issues involving the teaching profession" (Symeonidis, 2015, p. 10). For example, in Turkey, the society traditionally

gives respect to teachers. Similarly, gender imbalance in favour of females within the teaching workforce in Turkey (see Oruç-Ertürk, 2014) may be given as another major reason why Turkish pre-service teachers had significantly higher perceptions with regard to teacher prestige, status, and value than the other national samples. In Turkey, teaching is usually regarded as a path to higher status for women from lower socioeconomic backgrounds. Although gender and socio-economic background are not considered as variables in this study, the dominance of female pre-service teachers in the Turkish sample also supports the feminized side of the profession in this country. Nonetheless, more research is needed to understand the relationships between factors influencing beliefs about the teaching profession.

Conclusions

This study investigated pre-service English language teachers' motivations to become a teacher and beliefs about the teaching profession through using a cross-national comparison including Germany, Japan and Turkey. Overall, the findings revealed both differences and similarities between the countries, suggesting that context is a factor influencing the decisions for becoming a teacher and beliefs about the teaching profession.

   The following points summarise the key findings of this study:

• When the data from all the samples are considered together, intrinsic and altruistic aspects, perceived teaching ability and socialisation were found to be the top factors influencing career choice decisions.

• For the entire sample collectively, as well as each national sample, fallback was the most lowly-rated factor. When closely inspected, though, the Japanese participants were found to regard teaching as a second career choice more than the other two groups and a significant difference was found between the German and Japanese participants.

• In the German context the participants reported self-perception as the main motivation source for their career choice decisions, which is followed by intrinsic and social utility factors. With regard to self-perceived teaching abilities, a significant difference was found in favour of the German sample when compared with the Japanese one. After fallback, the influence of significant others in the decision making process, i.e. socialization, was found to be the second most lowly-rated factor for this sample and a statistical difference was found between the German and Turkish participants.

- The Japanese sample rated intrinsic and social utility factors as their top reasons for career choice while self-perception and personal utility factors were rated significantly less than the other two national samples.

- The Turkish participants reported high levels of motivation for all factors except fallback. The cross-national comparisons between the Turkish sample and the other two revealed significant differences regarding intrinsic and social utility factors. In terms of self-perception and personal utility, the Turkish participants statistically differed from the Japanese ones who reported low levels of motivations for these two factors. Socialisation was also found to be a major source for career choice decisions of this group, which also statistically differed from the German participants.

- Regarding beliefs about teaching, all participant groups reported believing that teaching is an expert career, the highest mean coming from the Japanese group. Similarities and differences were identified between the sample groups in four questions capturing the social status of teaching, that is, whether teaching is high-status, well-respected, valued and well-paid. While the German sample believed that teaching is a well-paid job, they reported more negative beliefs about the status of teaching in their own social context. Of the three nation samples, the highest means were observed in the Turkish sample, except for the salary which was the lowest of all groups. Lastly, the findings showed that the Japanese sample held moderate beliefs about the social status of teaching.

These findings indicate that language teachers' career motivations cannot be offered in a simply way on both cross-national and intra-national levels. Nevertheless, the findings of the present study allow for making some implications regarding career motivations in Germany, Japan, and Turkey.

First of all, the relatively low emphasis put on personal utility factors and viewing teaching as a second choice career as driving forces for career choice in all three samples indicate that despite the several challenges that teaching profession face such as underfinancing, governmental attitudes, employment, societal values at varying degrees and forms in all these countries, pre-service English teachers mostly operate on intrinsic and altruistic motives. Given the fact that career motivation is closely related to affective commitment, job satisfaction, and work engagement, it is possible to expect that these pre-service teachers have the potential to become effective teachers. On the other hand, this finding provides an important implication for governments and teacher education policy makers as well as teacher education programs since they need to find ways to enhance, develop and support these already existing positive feelings of pre-service teachers.

Second, despite certain similar tendencies existing in the career choice motivations of the three nation samples, there are also some differences observed in the samples with regard to socialization and self-perception. These findings in general support the idea that individuals do not make career choice decisions in a vacuum. As supported by the discussions in the previous section of the paper, larger national social systems, such as education, cultural tendencies promoting individualism or collectivism, and economic difficulties limiting available career options, are just a few external factors that seem to play a part in the extremely complex process of an individual's career choice decisions. However, it should be noted that despite the rich descriptions and explanations that this particular study and similar ones try to present, to conceptualize cross-national diversity concerning teacher career motivations and identify the key factors explaining these differences is still a challenge. Therefore, to better understand the interplay between these and other factors, such as individual and personal differences and how and under what conditions these factors impact career motivations, different cross-national studies need to be carried out.

In this endeavor, the biggest challenge lies in making teaching an appealing profession for high academic achievers. Although this study did not question the academic success of the participants, examining career motivations in relation to this factor might yield important results for the policy makers of these countries. This could allow for understanding how to make teaching an attractive, high status profession and inform policies to increase the competitiveness of teaching with other high status careers in terms of salary and professional development.

Limitations of the study and implications for further research

Although the design of the present study allowed for exploring the differences in motivations to become a teacher across three diverse samples and the findings are consistent with those from the majority of previous studies, there are limitations to this study that could be addressed by future research. First, the use of a questionnaire to collect the data left no room for understanding in depth how the participants shaped their ideas for career choice. Therefore, this study captured a static snapshot of the factors influencing career choice decisions. Another limitation regarding the data collection instrument is the likelihood of socially desirable responses and self-deception, which are usually considered as limitations in self-report research (Dörnyei, 2003). In this study, the participants might have agreed with the statements in a way that will be viewed favourably by others. Subsequent research may overcome these limitations by adding a qualitative dimension to

the research design. Yet another issue with the instrument is its reliability. In this study, an adapted version of a scale was used and the reliability was checked with different participants only in Turkey (see Topkaya & Uztosun, 2012) because access to participants in other contexts was limited. Therefore, it was not possible to check the reliability of the instrument by involving participants from different departments in other countries. Last but not least, due to the limited number of participants involved in the study, it cannot be claimed that the findings are representative of these countries. It should also be noted that the data collected for each country came from only one university in that particular country. As a result, designing more complete and comprehensive studies on the subject including a variety of quantitative and qualitative data collection methods and using larger samples is required.

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Researching and Publishing in the English Departments of Chinese Tertiary Institutions: Status and Challenges

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Abstract

Since the 1990s, many countries have established national systems for the assessment of quality in higher education (Brennan & Shah, 2000). Given that teaching and research are considered key indicators of quality, a nationwide quality assessment of English major curriculums was initiated in China in 2006. Following the 2006 initiative and with a view to gauging teaching and learning quality, the educational bureau in a northeast province administered a large-scale institutional review of the English curricula in higher education institutions across the whole province in late 2012. One major outcome of the 2012 review – the focus of the current paper – was the extent to which research capacities, number and quality of outputs varied among English departments in the different institutions. The research questions were: How do academics perceive conducting teaching and research in English departments in Chinese higher education institutions? In what ways do academics view the teaching-research nexus in English departments in Chinese higher education institutions? Outcomes revealed that the need to research and publish created constant pressure in all institutions with varying strategies employed to cope with these pressures; also, institutional academic leaders revealed a variety of coping strategies to mitigate tensions in the teaching-research nexus.

Keywords: researching; publishing; English departments; China

Introduction

Research now plays an important part in a Chinese academic's life. Academics are expected not only to provide effective teaching but are under pressure to conduct research and to publish in quality venues. The current study examines Chinese academics' perceptions of research and

publishing, and their perceptions of the teaching-research nexus.

Participants in the study were academic teaching staff across a range of institutions in a northeast province. Through a qualitative inquiry, consisting of both data collected through documents submitted for institutional review and semi-structured interviews, the study attempts to delineate the current status of academic research in higher education institutions in the investigated province, and contribute to our understanding of the teaching-research nexus.

Background

Research and publishing play an increasingly important role in the life and work of academics (Gilmore et al., 2006, p. 468; Robbins, 1992). Publishing scholarly papers is currently not only a job requirement for academics in terms of maintaining their position, obtaining tenure, promotion, etc. (McGrail et al., 2006), it is also the means by which universities gauge their own sense of value by using university league tables such as those produced by the Times Higher Education [http://www.timeshighereducation.co.uk/world-university-rankings] and Quacquarelli Symonds (QS) World Rankings [http://www.topuniversities.com] (Lunenberg & Hamilton, 2008). In the general context of pressure to publish, it should be noted that Gaillet & Guglielmo (2014) make the case that 'contingent', i.e., non-tenured, short-term contract staff, have a much more difficult task when trying to research and publish than tenured, or 'non-contingent' staff". They argue that it is vital that such staff should be provided with opportunities to collaborate with tenured staff. In addition, 'contingent' staff should be assisted and supported in publishing. Very recently, a study for the UK's Guardian newspaper revealed that more than half of lecturers are employed on a non-permanent or hourly basis (17/11/2016 – https://www.theguardian.com/education/2016/nov/20/uk-universities-have-developed-a-casual-disregard-for-their-staff). See also from Personnel Today: http://www.personneltoday.com/hr/universities-accused-sports-direct-style-zero-hours-contracts/.

From a university's perspective, quality teaching and research – as reflected in different worldwide rankings – are important for maintaining a university's quality and reputation (Brink, 2010). Research performance counts strongly as an important indicator and driver of the need for high quality research and publication output in institutions (Marginson & van der Wende, 2007). To maintain or enhance reputations, many tertiary institutions strive for a good research profile, which largely depends on the output of their academic staff (Lee, 2014). While this is understandable from an institutional perspective, it does, however, put considerable pressure on

academics to publish (Lee, 2014; Miller et al., 2011).

A quantitative survey of US tenured or tenured-tracked academics in 104 management departments across the USA indicated that 94% of participants reported pressure to publish in peer-reviewed journals, as the quantity of output acts as an important factor in decisions about tenure, promotion, salary level and career opportunities (Miller et al., 2011). The pressure to publish is exacerbated, however, by the low acceptance rate of major international journals, often as low as 10% (see e.g., Coniam, 2012). The pressure to publish is also notable in Asian universities. In Taiwan, universities – with an eye on a higher rank among world universities – push their academics to publish through both tenure-track and monetary reward systems. Academics in Taiwan are caught between the pressure to publish, in particular in English-medium journals, and the challenges they face, such as difficulty writing in English, locally-based topics and biases against submissions (Min, 2014). Over the past decade in mainland China, priorities have begun to shift, with much more attention attached to publications in international journals and to citation indices. Such a move follows international trends – in that over 95% of the articles published in major data bases such as Pysch Info and Web of Science are in English (Hanauer & Englander, 2013). Getting published in journals in English puts considerable pressure on those researchers whose first language is not English, as researchers' home institutions evaluate the quality of their publications as well as examining the ways in which their publications can reach a broad international audience (Hanauer & Englander, ibid). They point out that scholars' accounts demonstrate that participation in academic research networks functions as a key resource for publishing.

Consequently, Chinese academics' publications are now important in ensuring job security, getting promotion and gaining career opportunities and salary increases. Indeed, in certain Chinese universities, employment has been terminated because academics have not published the requisite number of articles in international journals (Li et al., 2011). In a study of perceptions concerning conducting academic research, college English teachers' responses demonstrated the crucial role that conducting research played in the promotion mechanism (Borg & Liu, 2013). The research pressure is also greater for younger academics than it is for established researchers (Bai & Millwater, 2011).

This pressure raises the vexed issue of 'paying to publish'. Fitzpatrick (2011) examines the likely changes to scholarly publishing in issues such as online technologies, peer review and an

'author pays' model. Shatz (2004) discusses the revolution taking place as the field of scholarly communication in which peer review is located shifts from a print to an electronic online medium (ibid. p. 9). Scholarly publishing has been lucrative for many publishers who charge universities for their print journals (see e.g., Fitzpatrick, 2011, p. 44). This situation is, however, changing with open-access journals, where, instead of universities paying for print journals, the author pays a fee to publish. While charging the author results in a much speedier publishing format, and one which is resulting in an increased number of citations, the system is also being criticised in some quarters where it is asserted that scholarly publishing is denigrated through a 'pay-to-play' mentality. This argument is bolstered by the emergence of 'predatory publishers' (Beall, 2012) [Note 1].

Despite the importance attached to conducting research and publishing, it should not be forgotten that a key mission of higher education is to teach (Lim, 2001). However, a good balance between the two – teaching and research – is not always easily achievable, as both teaching and research vie for academics' time and resources (Brew, 2012). Indeed, it has been argued that an increasing emphasis on research lowers the status of teaching (Serow, 2000). Academics in a research university in the USA have revealed that undergraduate teaching receives less attention from faculty leaders – as long as the quality of teaching meets basic requirements (Serow, 2000). Consequently, an inverse relationship between teaching and research is beginning to arise, with findings suggesting that academics with a high research capacity are regarded by their students as being less effective in their teaching (Ramsden & Moses, 1992). Ramsden and Moses (ibid) suggest that academics' teaching quality and research ability should be evaluated separately; and that teaching and research activities should be assigned separately to different institutions. They assert that academics who 'underperform' in terms of research output can nonetheless still be good academics (Ramsden & Moses, 1992). In Miller et al.'s (2011) study of academics' perceptions about conducting research across 104 management departments in various institutions in the USA, junior academics who were not tenured agreed more strongly than their colleagues that teaching detracts from publishing in peer-reviewed journals (Miller et al., 2011). Curry & Lillis (2010) and Lillis & Curry (2013), provide the findings of a longitudinal study of junior European academics and reveal the problems they faced in getting published. They too emphasise the importance of persistence in attempting to get published and the invaluable support that research networks provide in helping them to get published.

Despite the tension between teaching and publishing, there is also an 'integrationist' view

which asserts that teaching and research can overlap and can contribute to each other. With a view to enhancing the relationship between teaching and research, teaching in an academic's own research field can make better use of academics' expertise, with students' own ideas also possibly the catalyst for new research ideas (Ramsden & Moses, 1992). Academics – in particular senior academics who taught English at a Chinese university – believed that research enhances teaching through exposing academics to teaching, to different learning theories and by provoking thinking (Bai & Millwater, 2011). If teachers can make the connection between research and classroom practice, they are likely to develop a deeper feel for their own teaching, a better understanding of the rationale for teaching as well as more concrete future career plans (Borg & Liu, 2013). Such a positive relationship can also be achieved through curricula which have been developed on the basis of academics' research interests, or through involving students in conducting research and understanding what is involved in the process of conducting research (Elsen et al., 2009). Brew (2012) suggests creating a community of practice between students and academics whereby professionals, academics, students and other stakeholders share in the practice of negotiating meaning and building knowledge.

However, connecting the two activities of research and teaching runs counter to the reality of the situation in tertiary institutions both in China and worldwide for a number of reasons. Resources, available facilities and the time for doing research are limited (Elsen et al., 2009). Junior academics receive insufficient support or guidance from senior academics and have not enough time or access to networks and resources to conduct research (Bai & Millwater, 2011; Belcher, 2007). Research productivity is also associated with the number of full professors and the research culture within a department (Dundar & Lewis, 1998). To provide more support for junior academics, McGrail et al. (2006) suggest the provision of writing courses and writing coaches and the creation of writing support groups for those junior academics as do Gaillet & Gugliemo (2014). A recent study – Hallinger and Bryant (2016) – illustrates how productive research should be predicated on support from various resources, such as research centres, funding, research support staff, and library resources. While workshops have a role to play, one-to-one mentoring throughout the process of conducting research is considered to be more beneficial – since such mentoring requires a greater depth of commitment by academics (Moore, 2011).

Conceptual Framework

A conceptual framework is a set of concepts, broadly defined and systematically organized which

provide a focus, a rationale, and a tool for the integration and interpretation of information. The conceptual framework of this paper can be viewed as Descriptive Research – describing the different types of institution and the findings that emerge from a grounded theory approach to the analysis of the documentation, research output and qualitative staff interviews (Schunk et al., 2008).

Research Questions

The study investigates two research questions:

1. How do academics perceive conducting teaching and research in English departments in Chinese higher education institutions?
2. In what ways do academics view the teaching-research nexus in English departments in Chinese higher education institutions?

Research Setting and Participants

Research participants were purposively selected to achieve the best possible explanation of the research phenomena (Stake, 2005), with six different types of institution selected to maximize the different perspectives. Of the 38 tertiary institutions which participated in the 2012 institutional review in the province, 12 were selected after obtaining the consent of the deans of the foreign language faculties. These comprised seven polytechnic institutions, one comprehensive university [Note 2], one physical education institution, one teacher-education institution, one foreign language university and one privately-owned institution. The participating institutions were coded to reflect the institution type. The seven polytechnic universities are referred to as PT1, PT2 … PT7 respectively, the comprehensive university as CP, the physical education college as PE, the teacher-education university as TE, the foreign language university as FL, and the privately-owned college as PO. Table 1 outlines background detail on the 12 institutions.

In terms of the nature of the different institutions, each institution type has its own focus and discipline. The polytechnics were generally strong in natural science and technology-related disciplines (although with different disciplinary focuses); the English departments in such institutions generally received less attention than the science departments. In the physical education institution, as the major discipline was physical education, the English department was somewhat marginalised. The teacher education university produced teachers (in all subject areas) for primary and secondary schools; consequently the English department was a core department due to the

status of English as a school subject. In the comprehensive university, attention was given more evenly to all departments. The private institution was a vocationally-oriented institution, so conducting research was not one of its major focuses. The foreign language university, compared with all the institutions mentioned above, was noted for its strength in foreign language (including English) teaching and research, as shown by its excellent performance in producing students with good language proficiency and a wide range of disciplinary and interdisciplinary knowledge, as well as its rich number of research outputs, as can be seen from the data presented in Table 3 below. Out of the 12 institutions, three are 211 and/or 985 universities, which indicates that such institutions have stronger research capacity, receive more research funds and generally attract more high-ability students [Note 3]) than the others. The institutions that constitute the current study include institutions of different types and of different ability levels, and broadly reflect the bigger picture of tertiary institutes in China.

Table 1

Participating institutions

Institution	Institution type	Status as 211/985 university	Band
PT1	Polytechnic	211/985	One
PT2	Polytechnic	N/A	Two
PT3	Polytechnic	N/A	Two
PT4	Polytechnic	N/A	Two
PT5	Polytechnic	211/985	One
PT6	Polytechnic	211	Two
PT7	Polytechnic	N/A	Three
CP	Comprehensive	N/A	Two
PE	Physical education	N/A	One
TE	Teacher education	N/A	One
PO	Private-owned	N/A	Two
FL	Foreign language	N/A	One

Key informants were invited to the semi-structured interviews. Key informants were approached through the dean of each institution, with consent eventually obtained from 37 participants. Interview participants, purposively selected in the current study to achieve the best possible explanation of phenomena (Stake, 2005) included 8 deans or associate deans (in Foreign/English Language faculties), and 13 department heads or associate department heads (in English Language

departments), 14 English language academics and 2 teaching secretaries. The latter post is an administrative post in Chinese universities with teaching secretaries having responsibility for assisting in the educational management of the institution. The deans, associate deans, and/or department heads were key informants because they had a clear picture of their respective departments' research status and were also actively engaged in departmental research themselves. The academics in the English departments provided a ground-level picture of academic research in their institutions by articulating their own experiences of conducting research. Interview participants were assigned codes that echoed the institutional codes, with the specific letters referring to different participants occurring after the institution's codes. D denotes deans/associate deans; H represents heads/ associate to the head of department in the foreign language university FL. Given the variety of heads of English departments; CA refers to course academics in the English subject; and TS refers to teaching secretaries. For example, PT1-D1 referred to the dean in the polytechnic institute PT1, and FL-H1 refers to informants. It is thus possible to view this study as a 'collected case study' (Stake, 2006), with each institution as a unit of analysis.

Given that institutions vary in their educational goals and research capacities, it was believed that the inclusion of a range of tertiary institutions with diverse backgrounds would help maximise the data's potential insights (Merriam, 2009).

Data Collection

The data were collected through documents submitted by institutions in the institutional review through on-line data collection, and through semi-structured interviews.

Document Collection

The documents collected in the study included detailed information about institutional performance – research performance being an important element of the data. The information relating to research performance included selected examples of research articles and research projects. In the subsequent interviews, relevant documents were then drawn upon and referred to as and when necessary in the course of the discussion.

Interview Data Collection

The interview team comprised senior academics from a key mainland China university and a

trained interviewer. All interviewers were native-speakers of Mandarin, proficient in English. The senior academics coordinated the interview process, created the pilot and subsequent versions of the semi-structured interview guidelines, carried out interviewer training and standardization and were involved in interviews. The research team drafted the first version of the interview guide from subjects' responses in the institutional review, focusing on areas in the questionnaire data worth following up. The trained interviewer and senior academic visited each English department and conducted interviews in the participants' own universities. Altogether 31 interviews were conducted, including 28 individual interviews, one paired interview and two group interviews of three and four participants respectively. The choice of individual or group interviews depended on participants' willingness and availability. Each interview lasted from 20 minutes to an hour. Follow-up conversations were conducted where necessary through telephone or email.

Semi-structured interviews are more constrained than open-ended interviews but they permit content validity to be maintained by adherence to topics/areas of significance while allowing open-ended discussion if an interviewee so wishes (Rubin & Rubin, 1995). In this study, training and standardisation followed an iterative framework by establishing guidelines, then piloting and re-piloting the semi-structured interview. Efforts were taken to protect the validity and reliability of the study e.g. data collected through multiple sources and multiple methods were triangulated using a "sources x method combination" approach (Long, 2005, p. 4) for the purposes of validity. Research ethics were upheld by adherence to topics/areas of significance while allowing open-ended discussion. Interviews were conducted in Mandarin, the interviewees' mother tongue, after which they were transcribed and translated into English by members of the team, and then back-translated by another colleague. An independent, Mandarin-speaking professor sampled the translations for purposes of reliability.

Data Analysis

For the analysis of interviews, audio-recordings were transcribed and checked by the research team. NVivo 8 was used to analyze the data in a grounded theory mode of analysis (Edhlund, 2011). An inductive approach was taken and codes were generated through a "spiral process" (Creswell, 2007). Codes and themes were developed from the data provided by informants' responses, which were then checked and revised after being applied to different transcripts in the coding process. After initial codes had been generated by one member of the research team, the whole team

discussed and refined the codes together, after which the codes were put into tree nodes, then categories and themes. As the data analysis was conducted in a grounded manner, attention was paid to key issues that emerged from participants' responses. For example, "teaching and research" emerged as a main category because participants dwelt substantially on how teaching supported or restricted their research. As a result, interview data related to teaching were coded as "teaching and research". That is to say, no a priori list of predetermined categories was created before data analysis; rather, issues which participants were concerned about were allowed to emerge over the course of the interviews and in the subsequent analysis.

Addressing the Research Questions

As the section above has described, the investigators approached the data from a bottom up, inductive descriptive analytic approach, out of which three major issues emerged (see below). Once these had then been categorized and analysed, it was possible to see how much and how far they answered the two research questions below:

RQ1. How do academics perceive conducting teaching and research in English departments in Chinese higher education institutions?

RQ1 is addressed through respondents' perceptions of aspects that affect the quantity and quality of research and publications across different institutions.

RQ2. How do academics view the teaching-research nexus in English departments in Chinese higher education institutions?

RQ2 is linked to RQ1 in that the teaching-research nexus was important to productive research.

Detailed Research Findings

This section reports on the three themes which emerged as most salient in the data analysis:

1. Pressure to research and career opportunities

2. Factors affecting institutions' research performance

3. Teaching-research nexus

The themes and sub-themes which emerged in the data are summarized in Table 2 below. The number of responses from all participants is reported, except for the sub-theme 'variation in research performance' where the data were drawn from the documents submitted by each participating institution.

Table 2

Findings classified by theme and participant

Themes and sub-themes	No. of resources	Participants			
		Deans (N=8)	HoDs (N=13)	Eng Lang academics (N=14)	Teaching secretaries (N=2)
Pressure to Research and Career Opportunities					
Competitiveness in conducting high-quality research	23	5	8	9	1
Research and career opportunities	22	4	10	7	1
Research pressure and unwanted consequences	8	4	2	2	-
Factors Affecting Institutions' Research Performance					
Variation in research performance	n/a				
Nature of the institutions	14	3	4	7	-
Library resources	18	5	7	4	2
Research atmosphere and faculty support	16	5	7	3	1
Teaching-Research Nexus					
Teaching workload and research	15	3	7	5	-
Integrating teaching and research	10	3	6	1	-
totals	126	32	51	38	5
		25%	41%	30%	4%

As can be seen from Table 2, with the exception of teaching secretaries, who formed only a small part of the sample, participants' comments in the different categories show a fairly equitable split among deans, head of departments and teaching academics. This broad participation suggests that the data may be seen to be generally representative of a wider viewpoint in that it is not completely dominated by one particular group.

Pressure to Research and Career Opportunities

One key theme in this paper is the pressure caused by doing research. Interview participants expressed how competitive conducting research is, how research was related to their career opportunities, and the negative consequence caused by doing research.

Competitiveness in conducting high-quality research

An issue addressed frequently by participants was the pressure and competition involved in winning a project through various screening processes, internally and externally. Of the 37 participants, 23 mentioned the considerable pressure that arose in conducting research that either they or their colleagues had experienced. As PT4-D2 noted,

> *Last year only two projects were awarded to the Faculty of Foreign Languages. We have 8 English major academics and 40 general English academics, with every one of them wanting to be PI of a project. You can imagine how difficult it is to get a project (PT4-D2).*

The grant application process, moreover, poses demanding requirements for applicants. For example, some grants require applicants to be at least associate professors, or that a certain percentage of applicants have to be below the age of 35 (TE-T1). PT1-H1 made the point that since everyone in his department wished to have their own projects, junior academics consequently felt somewhat frustrated and less willing to try for a grant, as they were in a less favourable position compared to senior academic staff.

In line with the willingness to bid for research projects, academics were also expected to publish. In virtually all institutions, when asked to talk about publications, respondents noted the difficulties they experienced in getting published, in particular in Tier 1 journals (i.e., SSCI, A&HCI and CSSCI [Note 4]), as shown in responses below:

> *Everyone is having headaches about publishing journal articles. There are a limited number of Tier 1 journals and it is very difficult to get accepted in these (PT1-H1).*
> *It is not so difficult to get published in a small journal. As a senior teacher, I would now like to get published in high quality journals. It is, however, very difficult (TE-AC1).*

The documents submitted by the English departments show that high quality publications, such as SSCI journal publications appeared only in the profile of key institutions, i.e., PT1, PT5, PT6 and FL, which further supports the reported difficulty in getting published in top journals. TE-AC1 explained how academics in all institutions, were expected to publish in Chinese CSSCI journals

if they were to safeguard their career opportunities. Nonetheless, with space in journals limited, it is not easy for academics to get their articles accepted. CP-AC1 commented that, in view of the difficulty of getting published in Tier 1 journals, most academics in her institution were only able to get their papers accepted in comparatively low-level journals.

Research and career opportunities

A key factor related to the pressure of conducting research was the status of research in the light of career opportunities and in getting promoted, as mentioned by 23 out of 37 informants, for example:

> *If you want to get promoted and obtain an academic title, you need journal articles. This motive encourages academics to want to get published. In recent years, our academics have had articles published in prestigious SSCI and CSSCI journals (PT6-D1).*

> *Now we are employed on a contract basis. We need papers for contract renewal, as well as for promotion (PT2-AC1).*

> *If I want to get an academic title, I must get published. All academics know this so they are trying to do some research (PT7-AC1).*

The responses above indicate how important research publications are to academic life, with the emphasis on research projects and publications having become increasingly more acute over the past decade, and institutions setting increasingly high standards for publications. For example, in PT1 (a 211/985 institution), academics were expected to publish in a variety of journals rather than merely in their own university's journal – even though the latter happened to be a CSSCI journal. Contract renewal was also determined by research output, as well as by academic rank. PT5 had a "3-5-8" policy, under which the university would terminate contracts if doctorate holders were not able to get promoted to associate professor in three years, master's degree holders in five years, and bachelor's degree holders in eight years – with the key determinant of promotion being the number and quality of publications recorded over the appraisal period.

Research pressure and unwanted consequences

High requirements of academic research resulted, understandably perhaps, in certain unwanted consequences. The requirements regarding publications also caused a proliferation of low-quality and 'pay to publish' journal articles in low-tier journals; in the words of PT4-D1:

> *Our academics mainly publish in small local journals. There are so many journals in China now. Many are of low quality, and others charge a high publication fee. It is quite difficult to publish in renowned journals. As academics want to get promoted, they try to publish in these low quality ones (PT4-D1).*

From an academic's perspective in this study, the growing need to 'pay to publish' represents an option for junior academics to meet the publication requirement and a dilemma for academic leaders who eschew this new aspect of the phenomenon.

It was revealed that, in some institutions, academics received external rewards if they published in top tier journals or obtained a research project at the national level (PT6-D, FL-H1). CP-AC1, however, was critical of such a situation: where research was continually being associated with academic titles and rewards. She stated that the meaning and purpose of conducting research was being distorted if academics only conducted research with the intention of getting promoted, or winning departmental awards, rather than from a deep-seated interest in conducting worthwhile research per se.

Other effects caused by the requirements to publish included: certain journals charging high publication fees (CP-H1, PT4-D1); journal editors deciding which articles were to be published on the basis of an institution's reputation or prestige (TE-T1); academics citing each other's work to increase the number of citations with their own institutions (which was considered to be an important factor of the research capacity in the institutional review) (CP-AC1). Such problems reinforced the pressure that academics are experiencing. It is understandable that it is difficult for academics to get published, given that in China there are hundreds of institutions at different levels (PT4-D1). Such a scenario raises the issue of the extent to which all academics' performances should be evaluated using the same standard.

The current section has identified the intense pressure on academics, with research performance being closely associated with career opportunities, and the pressure to conduct research giving rise to a number of problems – in particular the proliferation of low-quality journals,

the pay-to-publish phenomenon, and, in some cases, a lack of intrinsic motivation to publish.

Factors Affecting Institutions' Research Performance

Whereas staff across all institutions experienced pressure to conduct research, there was considerable variation in their research performances. This section outlines the variations among different institutions and discusses factors causing such differences, including the nature of the institution, library resources, the research atmosphere and faculty support.

Variation in research performance

Table 3 below presents the picture of research outputs across the 12 participating institutions. In the calculation of the number of academic research papers, only these published in SSCI and CSSCI journals were included, since these latter two sources were considered to be primary indicators of good research performance, for example, in institutional reviews, staff recruitment and evaluation in China.

Four institutions, PT1, PT5, PT6 and FL, performed particularly well in academic research, with over 19 articles published in prestigious journals, as shown in Table 3, whereas the number of articles in prestigious journals reported in the other institutions ranged from zero to eight. PT4-the private institution, was the least productive in research, with no SSCI or CSSCI journal papers published.

Table 3

Papers published in prestigious journals

Institution	Number of papers
PT1	19
PT2	8
PT3	3
PT4	0
PT5	20
PT6	29
PT7	2
PE	9
TE	7
CP	4
PO	2
FL	40

In terms of published output, academics in FL (the foreign language university) performed particularly well. FL-D1 (a Faculty Dean) was proud that his department outperformed all other English departments in Liaoning Province in terms of the quantity and quality of research projects (i.e., 64 research projects at the provincial level or above).

Nature of the institution

With regard to why there were differences among institutions, the nature of the institution where academics worked was considered to be a factor affecting the number of research outputs, as the quotes below indicate:

> *The English department is a marginalized department in a physical education university. We did not get much support from the university in terms of conducting research (PE-H2).*

> *Your article gets an immediate reject when the editor sees that your affiliation is not a 211 or 985 university (PT2-AC1).*

It is difficult to do humanities research in a university renowned for its scientific research. We do not have established researchers as a guide. We won very few language research projects and were therefore not able to develop much as a department (CP-AC1)

The responses indicate that English departments received little support in institutions where English was not a major subject. In the polytechnic institutions – where the English departments had a lower status than the science departments – PT3-H1 suspected that the small amount of funding allocated to the English departments, was due to the fact that departments in such universities were not particularly strong in research – even language research. Project success rates were even lower at the privately-owned institution. PO-D1 stated that the proposals submitted by PO were always rejected at the initial screening process.

Library resources

Library resources were considered to be another factor in supporting research. In the architecture university PT3, the head PT3-H1 complained how academics were only able to get access to Chinese academic resources, and that the majority of the English resources that they were able to access were not language related. The English department head in PT7 (a transportation-focused university) mentioned that while the university had access to such databases as SAGE, articles available for downloading were limited to science journals – with humanities journals excluded. PE-AC1, in the physical education university, noted that there were very few language studies-related books and electronic resources in their library.

In contrast, in the foreign language university FL where language research was valued, there were quite lavish library resources. FL-D1 was proud that his university had a resource-rich library and that the library had the funds to obtain any resource that academics wished to access (see Welsh & Metcalf, 2003). Similarly, TE-AC1 responded that she was satisfied with library resources, as she could find any resource she needed in the library. As a teacher education university where English had a long history, the library had a lot of books related to English language and had the funding to purchase resources which academics needed. Library resources are related to the nature of the institution, and, not surprisingly, institutions where the English department was a major department also provided considerably richer library resources for language learning.

Research atmosphere and faculty support

Academics in research-active institutions were asked why their institutions were productive in doing research. FL-D1 attributed his university's good research performance to the *research atmosphere* in the university, and the *support* given by the faculty as well as the university. FL-D1 noted:

> *We have a good research environment within the faculty. Supporting academics' research is a priority. We provide support and involve new academics in projects as far as possible. As dean, I discuss doing research with academics whenever I have the chance. We hold faculty workshops to support research project applications and give feedback on all applications (FL-D1).*

The dean In FL supported academics doing research by creating a supportive research atmosphere and involving as many academics as possible. The document data revealed that research projects in FL were spread evenly among academics instead of being owned by one or two key persons, such as deans or department heads – as was the case in other institutions (PT2, for example). Cooperation among academics in FL was common, with academics working together to revise their research proposals and provide each other with feedback when applying for research projects (FL-H1; FL-D1).

In TE, where different academics were involved in research projects, TE-D1 reported that she encouraged both novice and established academics to do research through involving them in departmental projects. TE-AC1 stated that she herself started to do research by working with research-active researchers who had on-going projects, and through this she gradually developed an awareness of how research projects might be conducted. To help academics write up papers and apply for projects, the English department in TE also arranged seminars and workshops for their academics.

The importance of *faculty support* was also mentioned by academics in the two 211 universities. PT6-H1, for example, commented:

> *Providing guidance is necessary. I ask academics to start by reading articles and books in a related area, and getting to know the area. I also encourage them to try low level journals*

first. It is not possible to start with a CSSCI journal, but they can make it gradually. (PT6-H1).

In PT5, PT5-H1 mentioned how the dean supported his academics' research by offering workshops and seminars related to project application. She considered this helpful as her department had succeeded in winning projects where they had been unsuccessful before. The responses above demonstrate the kind of support provided by the faculty, which seems to be important for the development of academics' research capacity.

In contrast to the strong emphasis on support in the four institutions FL, TE, PT5 and PT6, research support was less frequently alluded to in the other institutions. In those institutions, respondents mainly mentioned how their deans or department heads evaluated academics' research proposals or provided feedback prior to project applications; in such institutions, generally, however, there was a lack of an elaborated response on how support was provided, from which it can be inferred that quite probably insufficient support was provided. It would appear to be the case in institutions with stronger research capacity and more projects that greater – and more inclusive – research support is provided, and that such institutions appear to be more successful in developing their junior academics, or novice researchers.

The above findings demonstrate how the research performance of different institutions is affected by the extent to which research is encouraged in an institution, the research resources available, and the support provided at faculty and department level.

Teaching-Research Nexus

As both teaching and research are important in academic life, the relationship between teaching and research emerged as a main theme in the interviews. Effective teaching was ranked highly, on the grounds that students would only become capable learners when academics were able to teach or facilitate learning effectively (FL-D1, PT4-D1). In this section, the conflict between teaching and research is first addressed, after which discussion moves to how teaching might be better integrated into research.

Teaching workload and research

In talking about teaching and research, academics complained that the *workload* in their various

English departments restricted the time that they had available to conduct research. PT6-H1 explained that academics in English department taught, on average, 10-12 hours per week, and had to teach three or four different courses. They also needed to spend time after class marking assignments and preparing lessons, leaving little time to do research. Interviews with staff in PT5 revealed that they taught even more hours than staff in PT6. PT5-H1 stated:

> *Our academics teach 12-16 hours a week, and teach three or four different courses. The university monitors academics' teaching quite closely, so they need to put a lot of effort into their teaching. They want to do research, but just don't have enough time to do it. (PT5-H1).*

It is clear that in English departments, the pressure on staff to publish is exacerbated by the heavy teaching workload that such staff have to undertake. Not only do they have to face all the pressures that other types of staff encounter, they have further pressure because of the efforts they must make to cope with higher workloads.

In this connection, the dean in PT5, PT5-D1 admitted that the task of handling both teaching and research was challenging, especially for young academics. Young academics needed to do research in order to get promoted. But if they spent too much time on research, they had less time than was desirable available for teaching. The teaching workload was heavier in teaching-oriented institutions than in research-oriented institutions and heavier still in English departments than in other departments. In PT3, academics in the English department had to spend more hours teaching than academics in the architecture department, for example, as compensation for the department's poor research performance. This policy left academics with even less time in which to conduct research (PT-H1).

Integrating teaching and research

In addition to heavy teaching workloads, another factor inhibiting academics from doing research was the disparity between teaching and the kind of research academics were undertaking. Some academics were doing research that was not relevant to their teaching – for example, research in theoretical linguistics or literature. In the light of these problems, FL-D1 emphasized the importance of integrating the two activities. The academics in FL initially felt that the introduction

of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) courses (see, e.g., Kasper 2000) increased their lesson preparation workload and reduced the time available for research. The faculty dean, however, held the view that all effort and action devoted to the CLIL courses could become part of the department's research agenda. FL-D1 encouraged academics to collect ideas and insights that emerged from the implementation of new courses and to work the data up into research papers. In such a way, academics were likely to combine research with teaching; this resonates with Coniam (2015)'s argument that successful publishing can emerge from one's own teaching. FL-H1 described how he attempted to integrate the two activities, i.e. teaching and research:

> *All our projects and papers come from our teaching. I had a project on student emotion change. I identified the changes in students' emotions after the introduction of CLIL courses, so I decided to study students' emotions. My colleague and I continually observed students' behaviour in class, we sent out questionnaires, and we got feedback from students on what they thought about the new courses. In this way, we integrated teaching and research – which can clearly benefit from each other (FL-H1).*

FL-H1's response demonstrates how daily teaching can be integrated into research. The research ideas emerged from the teaching, with the study integrated in the teaching process. FL-D1 mentioned that after getting experience in research projects related to CLIL courses, two colleagues who previously had only engaged in pure literature research began to study more effective ways to teach literature. Hence integrating teaching and research could benefit both activities. FL-D1 reiterated to his academics that while being good at teaching was their prime objective, being good at research would contribute further to their personal development. CP-AC1, for example, agreed that unless the two activities were closely related, academics would focus on research and spend comparatively less time on teaching. PT1-D1 believed that academics' research capability would contribute to the ongoing improvement in teaching.

Although integrating teaching and research would appear to be a valid way to promote the development of teaching and research, this view was only mentioned by 10 of the 37 participants – with the majority in research-active universities – possibly because of the challenges referred to above (such as the heavy workload and lack of alignment between teaching and research). Current staff promotion mechanisms appeared to place comparatively greater emphasis on staff research

capacity than teaching ability. PT5-D1 suggested that both teaching and research should be evaluated to develop a positive relationship between the two. Academic CP-AC1 in the comprehensive university CP complained that teachers in her university devoted a lot of attention to teaching and individual tutorials to help students; however, such efforts were not acknowledged under current evaluation mechanisms.

Discussion

The paper has delineated academics' involvement in research in the English departments of a number of tertiary institutions in one province in northeast China. Unsurprisingly, conducting academic projects and publishing journal articles were an indicator of institutional quality, with the conduct of academic research being crucial to academics' career opportunities, promotion, and salary increases (Li et al., 2011; Miller et al., 2011). In the light of English departments' heavy teaching workloads, the study has identified intense pressure and high anxiety in terms of conducting research for the purpose of career opportunity and promotion, although the pressure is expressed to a lesser extent in research-active universities. Academics in the current study not only need to publish, preferably in higher ranking journals, they also need to win their own projects and carry a heavy teaching load. The requirement – across different institutions – concerning academics having to conduct projects and produce publications results in the conduct of research with recognised output becoming a highly competitive process. The competition is particularly acute for junior academics and for academics in less research-active institutions, or institutions where English is not a strong subject. This echoes the issues raised by Ramsden and Moses (1992) about how far it is necessary for all institutions to do research, and if research and teaching responsibilities can be assigned to different institutions. This view has nonetheless been challenged by those who feel that, even in non-research-intensive institutions, research should be carried out (EMBO, 2007).

The variation in research performance across different institutions brought up factors affecting institutions' research performance: faculty and departmental support, research resources, peer support and team work (Elsen et al., 2009). In research-active institutions, junior academics had the opportunity to participate in projects, thereby gaining experience of doing research. The findings also lend credence to the notion that support from faculty leaders and cooperation among academics is likely to lead to more fruitful research (Dundar & Lewis, 1998). A supportive and cooperative research atmosphere would appear to be highly conducive to productive research. This

current research supports the contention that one way to mitigate the challenges facing academics in conducting research is through teamwork and cooperation between staff (McGrail et al., 2006), with the current study identifying cooperation strategies such as teamwork within projects, and seminars, workshops or peer feedback and mentoring as a means of support (Borg & Liu, 2013). In the current study, academics in research-active universities tended to cooperate more closely on research projects. In research-inactive universities, in particular science universities where English is not a key subject, English departments are marginalized, with fewer research resources and support provided for English departments. Such a situation could be seen to have a somewhat deleterious effect on academics' research performance.

Continuing the issue of 'marginalization', compared with resource-rich fields such as physics and biology, humanities faculties – such as those containing English departments – are resource poor. Academics in the humanity fields are more involved with teaching than with research (Lee, 2004). Consequently, disciplinary differences would appear to account for the majority of the variance in research performance, with, not surprisingly, more publications appearing in the hard disciplines such as the medical and health services than in the soft disciplines such as arts, humanities and social sciences (Shin & Cummings, 2010). The variance may be due to available resources, the preference for doing research in a specific discipline, the chance to participate in different research projects, as well as the research epistemology and methodology that exist in those disciplines (Shin & Cummings, 2010).

Even among the different English departments, however, it will have been noted that research performance and the allocation of research resources differ. Universities with a greater number of quality publications are mostly "key" universities with more accessible resources and more research funds from either the institution or from municipal, provincial or national research funding institutions (Xu, 2014). English departments whose research performances are considered weak are likely to receive fewer research funds from the institution itself and from other funding organizations.

Along these lines, Xu (2014) in a study investigating academics' research experience in one 211-type university in China outlines how research activities are constrained by a variety of factors, such as heavy teaching workloads, a lack of resources (e.g., access to international journals) and a lack of support from more experienced researchers. Further, in terms of the quality of student intake, Gu (2009) states that in some institutions, students are enrolled into the English department not

because of an interest in English, but because their matriculation marks were not high enough for them to be admitted to the department of their first choice.

The importance attached to getting published has raised the issue of the teaching and research nexus (Ramsden & Moses, 1992). While there is a strong emphasis on conducting research in China, academics' research agendas appear at times to be derailed through two inhibiting factors – heavy teaching workloads and the potential mismatch between academics' teaching and research. The findings in the current study support the contention that heavy teaching loads are likely to detract from publishing (Miller et al., 2011), in particular in departments that are teaching-oriented. All, however, is not lost. In a sample of submission history documents for accepted and rejected manuscripts submitted to an applied linguistics journal that was compiled and analysed in an effort to shed light on these questions, Belcher (2007) found that, among other things:

> *.. authorial persistence, that is, willingness to continue revising and resubmitting when faced with extensive critical commentary from reviewers, can result in publication. (p. xx)*

These conflicts between teaching and research have highlighted two issues: one, whether it is necessary for all academics across all institutions to do research; two, whether, if undertaking research is compulsory, in what ways can the two activities be integrated. As can be seen from the current study, there is a clear gap in the research ethos and capacity of top research-oriented institutions and other tertiary institutions.

Conclusion

The current study has identified instances of how teaching and research might be combined or integrated. As academics struggle to put more effort into research, it may be that enhanced research pressures mean that they are less likely to teach as effectively as they could. Across different institutions, ten academics in five different institutions (PT1, PT6, TE, CP and FL) expressed a desire for a better alignment of teaching and research, the assertion being that when research areas and courses taught are related, academics might more profitably use time and energy more efficiently. It would appear to be the case that in the above five institutions – where academics believed there should be a better alignment – academic staff were more confident in coping with the pressure associated with conducting research. Compared with Brew's (2012) proposal about

how the two activities might be integrated through building a community of practice where students and academics develop knowledge and research skills through communication and negotiation, the way in which teaching and research is integrated in the current study could be applicable in the current context where workloads are heavy and academics' and students' research capacities are limited. Across all 12 institutions, academics acknowledged the crucial role that quality teaching plays as a definer of an English department's overall quality and prestige, Curriculum leaders emphasised that academics need to balance their time between teaching and research – an expectation that echoes the needs for synergy between the two activities. The current study suggests that a more positive relationship between teaching and research can and should be developed. It also emphasizes the role of mentoring and collegial support in assisting research endeavours (Curry & Lillis, 2010, Lillis & Curry, 2013). It also raises the question of the extent to which academic research should be used as the sole criterion to evaluate the performance of all institutions as well as all academics.

The implications of the findings of this study for the rest of China and other Asian EFL contexts is significant. It is clear that the findings in this paper are already reflected elsewhere in the world (see Belcher, 2007; Curry & Lillis, 2010; Gaillet & Guglielmo, 2014; Miller et al., 2011) but the implications for Asia are significant too given that disparities between tenured and non-tenured staff already exist, that workloads of EFL staff are heavy, and that researchers are not developed in the same way as other disciplines because EFL staff often come through the school-teaching route where they arrive in tertiary institutions as relatively naïve researchers.

Notes

1. Beall maintains a list of questionable, predatory publishers. As of October 2016, this included over 1,100 publishers as well as 1,100 journals (http://scholarlyoa.com/2016/01/05/bealls-list-of-predatory-publishers-2016/).

2. A comprehensive university is one which encompasses most areas of teaching and scholarship with a large number of faculties e.g., science; engineering; medicine; dentistry; arts; social sciences; agriculture; law; architecture; business, management and economics; education. A polytechnic university is one which has a specific (usually science-focused) discipline such as engineering, aerospace, technology.

3. The "211" project started in 1995, with the aim of supporting around 100 key higher institutions,

improving their education quality, research capacity, management and educational output (Ministry of Education, 2008; 2011). The aim of the "985" project was to construct world-class universities and included 39 top mainland Chinese universities from among the "211" project universities.

4. SSCI is an abbreviation for Social Science Citation Index, A&HCI for Arts and Humanity Citation Index and CSSCI for Chinese Social Science Citation Index. All three indices indicate that the journals published are high quality journals.

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Exploring the L2 Motivational Self System of Japanese Study Abroad Students

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Abstract

This paper describes a qualitative study of the motivations that undergraduate Japanese students had about their study abroad experiences. This study draws on the L2 motivational self -system theory proposed by Dörnyei (2005, 2009) to examine how the different types of motivation affected the students' outlook and actions concerning studying abroad. Findings indicate that the students were motivated more by their ideal self since the ideals of the host culture fostered the availability of options.

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Key words: International students, study abroad, motivation, Second Language Motivational Self System

Introduction

Given the prevalence of international students in American higher education, much research has been conducted on the ways to help this population succeed, with a focus on adjustment processes (Glass & Westmont, 2014; Marginson, 2014), English pronunciation and comprehension issues (Jin & Liu, 2014), and academic achievement (Glass & Westmont, 2014; Rienties, Beausaert, Grohnert, Niemantsverdriet & Kommers, 2012). Forming cross-cultural relationships and developing second language confidence have been identified as significant factors in successful study abroad experiences (Glass & Westmont, 2014). Each of these factors plays a pivotal role in the international students' success in a study abroad setting.

Successful study abroad experiences also depend on the motivations of the international students. While initial motivations to study abroad come from a variety of factors, it has been proposed that the motivations might shift after the study abroad experience commences (Weger, 2013). Given the variable nature of motivation (Csizér & Dörnyei, 2005), studying the factors that contribute to the language learning motivation of study abroad students can provide insights on how to facilitate appropriate language learning experiences for them. The purpose of this paper is to explore the linguistic motivations that fifteen international students from Japan had to study abroad, using the framework of L2 motivational self-system, proposed by Dörnyei (2005, 2009).

Theoretical Framework: Language and Motivation to Study Abroad

Recent research has found that study abroad does not necessarily translate into increased language proficiency (Allen, 2010). Specifically, Freed, Segalowitz and Dewey (2004) found that study abroad students were more likely to spend time with peers that speak their native language rather than to use the target language with local students. Allen (2010) also noted that many study abroad students lack access to social networks in the target language that would facilitate their language development. Additionally, Glass and Westmont (2014) found that lack of extracurricular social networks could lead to the international student's isolation and increased stress level. Since contacts from their home countries often do not understand the linguistic and cultural challenges that an

international student faces (Rienties et al., 2012), study abroad students do not have the same level of support that they would have experienced had they stayed at home. With such findings, it is evident that study abroad experiences in and of themselves do not necessarily translate into improved language proficiency.

In order to understand the relationship between study abroad and second language acquisition, it becomes necessary to examine the international students' motivation to learn the language in a study abroad context. Instrumental motivation refers to language learning that occurs for a specific pragmatic purpose, such as employment (Hernandez, 2010). As such, Norton Peirce (1995, p.17) argued that instrumental motivation "generally presupposes a unitary, fixed, and ahistorical language learner who desires access to material resources that are the privilege of target language speakers. In this view, motivation is a property of the language learner- a fixed personality trait." However, Norton Peirce (1995) went beyond instrumental motivation to suggest the term of investment, which acknowledged that the complex identities of the language learners change as they interact with the world around them. Norton (2000) expanded her earlier definition to portray investment as a gain of cultural capital that the language learner can use to obtain resources that were previously unavailable in the absence of language knowledge. These assets can take the form of emblematic or physical materials (Chen, Warden, & Chang, 2005), such as achieving a high score on a test, which might result in a lot of praise from peers, or using the high scores from the exam to get into a prestigious university. From such a perspective, learning a language reflects a personal investment in the language learners' own development (Norton, 2000).

On the other hand, integrative motivation suggests a desire to learn a language in order to better acculturate into a new culture through social interaction with the host culture's community members (Gardner, 2001). Such a model is important to language learning because it portrays language skills as critical to the social development of its learners (Chen et al., 2005). However, such a singular focus on the social development of language learners has been widely criticized in latter research because of its inability to apply to an educational context (Papi, 2010; Ushioda, 2006). Furthermore, Sampson (2012) argued that integrative motivation does not match the reality of World Englishes where there is not necessarily one solitary culture that a language learner seeks to embrace. Within a global multicultural context, the language has become separated from its native culture, thereby complicating the issue of integrating into a culture (Kormos, Kiddle & Csizér, 2011). Weger (2013) also asserted that oftentimes, international students do not make a

personal choice to learn English, but instead see English as a required part of the educational process in today's globalized society.

Additional research findings in second language motivation have highlighted further obstacles to integrative motivation. First, the attitude of members of the host culture towards second language learners often limits the international students' opportunity to learn English and/or discourages the language learners' integration (Norton, 2000). Too often language learners are viewed as an imposition on the host culture, and their personal assets are not recognized (Norton, 2000). Similarly, language learners may be more committed to developing a relationship with native speakers than members of the host culture may be interested in engaging with the language learners. In support of this claim, Lee and Rice (2007) found that members of the host country may not find benefit in developing relationships with language learners and may hold prejudiced views of them. Finally, real life concerns such as money and family issues can hinder the efforts to integrate into the new culture (Islam, Lamb & Chambers, 2013). Given these issues with traditional models of motivation, recent research has aimed to more fully explain the issues of second language motivation.

Specifically, this study used the model of the Second Language (L2) Motivational Self System (Dörnyei, 2005; 2009). This three pronged model of the "ideal L2 self", "ought-to L2 self" and the "L2 learning experiences" addresses the different areas of motivation that influence the language learning process. Such a model recognizes that the motivation to learn a new language is a combination of internal and external forces, which interact to create the unique language learner experience. With its emphasis in multiple intersecting forces, it provides a holistic view on motivation to learn the language while studying abroad.

The ideal L2 self refers to the self that English language learner wants to become as he or she speaks a second language (Dörnyei, 2005; 2009). This concept includes all of the hopes and ambitions that the language learner would like to achieve. This aspirant model of identity is contrasted with the reality of the current identity as the learner tries to change the current language identity to meet the norms of the romanticized version of a language speaker (Dörnyei, 2010). Csizér and Dörnyei (2005) proposed that the L2 ideal self expands integrative motivation to include diverse learning environments even if the language learner has little actual contact with the L2 culture. The L2 ideal self is constructed as individuals learn the realm of possible selves from those who are around them (M. Lamb, 2012). The ideal self serves as a powerful motivator for the

language learner to make the personalized goals a reality by bridging the distance between the actual present self and the ideal self (Papi, 2010; Sampson, 2012). Instrumental and integrative motivation would be paramount here as the L2 learner seeks to learn language to achieve social or utilitarian goals. For instance, aspiring to become a successful professional in the host country could motivate a language learner to become proficient in the official language (s).

The second part of the L2 system is the "ought-to L2 self" which addresses the qualities that the language learner feels are needed to meet the norms of the L2 culture in which he or she is learning the language (Dörnyei, 2009; 2010). This construct encompasses extrinsic motivation as the learner relies on external forces to determine which characteristics should be emulated (Csizér & Kormos, 2009). The motivation within the ought-to self includes the external pressures and internalized rules which learners believe that they should follow (Dörnyei, 2009) Furthermore, this ties into the notion of investment (Norton Peirce, 1995), in that the ought-to self is viewed as a behavior that should be adopted in order to gain cultural capital to meet the norms of that particular culture (T. E. Lamb, 2011). Therefore, this ought-to-self is mainly socially constructed in response to the perceived expectations of others in order to avoid failure (Sampson, 2011). Papi (2010) found that ought-to self is a significant source of language learning anxiety. Previous research found that the ought-to-self was influenced by desires of international students to please their family and to avoid failure and was often more prevalent in collectivist countries (Dörnyei, 2009; M. Lamb, 2012). However, Csizér and Kormos (2009) argued that the ought-to-self has less motivational influence than the ideal self because the internal ideal self exerts greater influence than external factors in the ought-to self.

The last part of this model is the L2 learning experience, which is a situation specific model related to the unique characteristics of a language learning experience (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013). This would include factors related to the teacher, the curriculum, the learning environment, and the fellow students involved in the learning process (Dörnyei, 2009; Papi, 2010). The context in which language acquisition occurs is pivotal because learning conditions can impact the motivation of the language learner (Papi & Teimouri, 2014). Csizér and Kormos (2009) argued that the positive student attitudes towards the teacher and the learning environment have major influences on the amount of effort that the learner puts into studying a second language. A learning context can promote or discourage the attitudes towards the globalized role of English (Csizér & Kormos, 2009), which in turn would influence a learner's motivation in that situation. For instance, if a

student is studying English in a context that promotes only one version of standard English, the student might not be motivated to learn that standard English if he or she does not plan to remain in that context indefinitely.

Dörnyei's model of motivation is especially salient to this study of Japanese students who are responding to globalization because the language learners' identity is depicted as a fluid entity that changes through the interactions that are detailed in each of the three components to this model. Through this model, English is recognized as having multiple varieties and functions in diverse contexts (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009).

Methods

The data reported in this paper are part of a larger study that aimed to understand changes to the ethno linguistic identity of the focal population. In this section, the context of the study and the participants are described along with the data collection and analysis techniques.

Context and Participants

This study was conducted in a mid-sized university in the western United States. Three percent of the university's population was international students who were studying abroad during the semester of data collection. The focal population was undergraduate international students from Japan, who for the given semester represented ten percent of the total population of international students.

Participants were recruited through the identification of a key informant and then chain referral sampling methods were used (Dörnyei, 2007) to identify more participants who expressed an interest in this study. Data collection took place over one academic semester. A total of fifteen students participated in semi-structured interviews that lasted between 30 and 50 minutes. The sample consisted of thirteen females and two males. Most students had been in the university between six months to a year and a half. Only one participant had been at the university for four years. The participants came from various specialization areas including music, veterinary medicine, education and international business. Questions asked during the interviews addressed the students' current academic and social experiences at the university, their social life in the U.S., and their perceived future professional goals.

Data Analysis

The fifteen interview transcripts were analyzed initially separately by the two researchers through the process of thematic analysis, which provided the researchers with in-depth details of themes viewed across different data sources (Braun & Clarke, 2006). In addition to manual coding for the identification of initial themes and categories, Nvivo software was used in order to guide the analysis and provide connective themes across transcripts. When the initial categories were formed, the researchers met and discussed the identified themes. Through deliberation, certain sub-themes were merged together and others were replaced by broader concepts in order to focus in on the salient themes that applied to the research questions proposed at the outset of the study.

Results

The presentation of the findings follows the three aspects that were described in the theoretical framework, drawing from Dörnyei's model. Language motivation and study abroad experiences will be examined throughout the presentation of all themes.

The Ideal L2 Self

The participants discussed their emerging ideal self by focusing on a newly found realization of the possibility of new options in one's life (academic, professional, personal, and social). Our findings revealed that the thought of an ideal self was a new concept that the students were considering, which is consistent with Kormos et al (2011) who found that encounters in the host culture might alter the students' language learning goals. In the current study, the experiences of studying abroad and learning English did not necessarily change the participants' language learning goals, but instead allowed them to be aware of options for their ideal self.

Once the students had become aware that more possible selves were available to them (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009), they began to explore their motivations in the ideal self. For instance, one participant explained that the study abroad had changed her perspective saying, "I have more time to think what [I] wanta do in the future in my life and it's really important, important point to think, yes. I really work in, on my life by myself." This push for her own independence in figuring out her own goals for her future showed that the ideal self created a personalized intrinsic motivation, which made her more motivated to achieve that goal (Papi, 2010). Another student took advantage of the availability of possible selves when she changed her major.

I first, I was first majoring international affair but I realized I don't like to study politics and economics. No way. So I changed. I realized I like to study about human so I change from the major to psychology but I took sociology class last semester and that class was amazing. That class was so fun and yeah. I felt I wanta study this. I wanta study about society, about how society influence humans' behavior. So uh huh, that's why I chose sociology.

This quote demonstrated that this participant felt the freedom to pursue the major that was more fulfilling to her. She later remarked that this flexibility in choice was a primary factor in choosing to study in the United States. She explained, "Yeah, that's why I didn't wanta go there [Japan] We have to choose our major before we go to college and I couldn't choose my major, I was in high school." However, the freedom of choice in the United States led her to explore multiple options as part of her ideal self.

Many students talked about their projections and goals for themselves as part of an ideal L2 self. The ideal self was tied in to their future professional aspirations as they viewed English proficiency as essential to achieving their professional goals as part of the concept of investment (Norton Peirce, 1995). These students viewed the English language as essential to their plans for their future career. Participants described how they were becoming aware of the multitude of options that were available to them as reflected by the following quote: "I haven't decided the actual, the dream, not yet, but I'm planning to I like to travel the world, travel around the world and like so and using English and do some jobs like that." This quote illustrated that the participant perceived that English would be needed to achieve her desired goal even if the exact profession was not determined yet. This aspirational attitude of the ideal self is supported by Islam et al. (2013) who define the ideal self as an individual's projection of a future L2 using self. Several students wanted to remain and work in the United States, so they had a vested interest in improving their English proficiency. For instance, one student stated,

If I can, I wanta stay here… cuz I wanta be a teacher and, yeah, if I were a teach (sic), I were being teacher in Japan, I have to go to university one more, Japanese university to get a license.

As this quote illustrated, the ideal self was predicated on personal goals that were grounded in an awareness of the conditions in both their home and host cultures, thus making an ideal self that was a plausible goal (Dörnyei, 2009). Other participants had professional goals for English that extended beyond the United States. For instance, one student explained, "I think photojournalist, you need to speak English cuz they have to go all over the world to take many kinds of pictures. That is why I think English is necessary for them. And Japanese university doesn't have a good journalism, journalism major. So I can, I can get good skill". Such an example showed the power of the ideal self when language proficiency is central to achieving a specific personal goal (Dörnyei, 2010). This example also acknowledged the global impact of learning English as lingua franca so that the participants could communicate with people from many different cultures.

Aside from professional goals for the use of English, some of the students indicated personal goals for their ideal selves. When asked what her future goals were, one participant remarked, "I would probably be in California with my family, grandmother, near my grandmother and my aunt. Well, I [sic] hoping to be a veterinarian in the future." While she had a professional goal, her personal goal seemed to take precedent over that. Ideal selves encompass aspirations that go beyond simple career goals. When one participant was asked about where she saw herself in the future, she replied, "I would be married but my life would be going on in Japan, I expect. And, but I really wanta use speaking English and I wanta be support American students who study in Japan." Such a goal reflected her positive attitude towards American speakers who had hosted her study abroad and her desire to return the favor. The fact that this student saw her future in her native country did not diminish her investment to learn English. Dörnyei (2010) explains that it is difficult to promote an ideal self of a culture that a person does not admire. Clearly, this did not seem to be the case with this one student. This person may have found that she was supported by her native-born peers in the U.S. and wanted to return the favor. That, of course, required proficiency in English.

Other participants described more immediate social desires as part of the ideal self; one person remarked, "I want lots of friends in America." Similarly, one student said, "I wish that the conversation with American student is more natural." This statement demonstrated Sampson's (2012) finding that sometimes ideal goals were clearly articulated, but they had not really been operationalized by all students so as to offer a definite plan on how to achieve this objective. Without this plan, Dörnyei (2009) proposed that the objective of the ideal L2 self would remain

elusive for the language learner. Nevertheless, one student had identified one way to break through existing barriers and engage with U.S. peers. This participant attended a Japanese conversation partner program and "made a friend." Of course, the duration or quality of this friendship would influence the sustainability of this relationship and its impact on language learning. Overall, the students' view of their ideal selves tended to focus on aspirational career or personal goals for the future, with some students focusing more on more immediate social goals of becoming friends with more American students.

The Ought-to Self

Many students had definite ideas of the practical actions that they thought they should take as part of their ought-to-selves. The ought-to selves that the participants described can be broken down into two categories: strategies to develop their English proficiency (Papi, 2010) and steps to adjust to perceived expectations of cultural norms for interaction (Sampson, 2012). First, many participants described methods of improving their proficiency in English that they proposed they wanted to implement. For example, one student commented, "I often Skype, talk through Skype with my mother. She advised me to try to speak more English because you are in United States. So yeah, I think so I have to speak more English." This pressure to conform to external expectations demonstrates the power of the ought-to self as the participants tried to adopt the suggestions for linguistic improvement (Csizér & Kormos, 2009).

In addition, students mentioned the demands that they received from their native speaking peers. These pressures play a dominant role because the ought-to self regulates behavior in order to minimize negative consequences (Dörnyei, 2010; Islam et al., 2013). For instance, one participant stated, "If I keep quiet, they [U.S.-born peers], they consider me as non-participant so…" The same person concluded that once the ability to speak English was improved, the invitations "why don't you come over" increased. Another student mentioned "I don't like using Japanese, Japanese many times in public place because they think we should use English." This statement exemplifies the preventative nature of the ought-to self which seeks to avoid negative consequences (Dörnyei, 2010). Furthermore, one participant saw the hidden benefit to their American counterpart's expectations as shown in the following excerpt:

It's good point many American friends or American people think we, international students

*can speak English. They, they, they expect, expect so they're speaking very fast so I really…
I don't know. Oh, how to say, catch what they're saying. But it's, it's very good point other
side because they, they think we are equal.*

This quote demonstrates that participants realized that peers can be powerful influences on
language learners as part of the ought-to self (Sampson, 2012). Additionally, this student also
recognized that meeting the expectations of others as part of the ought-to self not only avoided
negative consequences (Dörnyei, 2009, 2010), but also resulted in some positive outcomes for the
language learners. This dual focus of motivation highlights that the ideal self and the ought-to self
are two ends of a continuum where one or the other tends to take more dominance at a particular
time (Papi & Teimouri, 2014). Similarly, the perceived demands that the students felt in order to
perform for a person of authority resulted in increased anxiety to model their best English in order
to match their teacher's expectations, which is a common component of the ought-to self (Papi,
2011). One student explained,

*When I talk to friends, I don't feel like pressure or challenges but when I talk to professors,
I feel like nervous. Because I feel like I have to speak correctly, I have to like be polite, be
smart when I talk to them.*

Such an example demonstrates that some of the ought-to self-motivation came from the perceived
expectations of authority figures (Sampson, 2012).

Other participants commented on the perceived behavior of native speaking people that they
felt compelled to imitate. One student who lived with an American host family had a conversation
with her host parents about the expectations for communication. She explained,

*I'm kind of focusing on listening but I try to improve my… how can I say? Interrupting skill?
Like to reach my host father's communication style. But compared to me, he, he's also need
to improve his listening style to be waiting, waiting until my convers, my sentence is
completed. He always kinda interrupts.*

With the goal of becoming more assertive about her opinions and beliefs, this ought-to self was

based on her desire to be less reticent as she learned to be more assertive in conversations. This participant recognized that such a strategy was needed in order to gain the status of an accepted equal participant, so she was willing to stretch her communicative repertoire, which refers to the collection of ways that a person uses language, and other means to communicate in a variety of settings (Rymes, 2012). Without such an effort, she remained a marginal member of the community and was waiting for full community members to provide her with an entry point into the conversation. As such, Kormos, Csizér, and Iwaniec (2014) argued, oftentimes study abroad students can feel overlooked by their native speaking peers. Similarly, another participant remarked, "Here, everybody say their opinion, even though it's…they don't care if it's mistake or right or wrong. So I think I'm getting used to those person to be such person. Recently so I can say "No" or "I hate", "I don't like", "yeah"…. I think it's really good way of changing for myself." The change in personality was a personal choice that this student made in order to conform to the norms that were promoted by her peers. Others, similarly, seemed to desire for such a potential change as indicated by their "wish that the conversation with American student is more natural" and their prompt for Japanese students to "attend more native [English speaking] communities." Although much of the students' ought to selves focused on their activities that they thought they should engage in to improve their English proficiency skills, some students focused on personality traits that they felt that they should adopt in order to fit in to the host culture.

L2 Learning Experience

The last component of Dörnyei's model is the L2 learning experience where situational factors influence language learning motivation (Islam et al., 2013; Dörnyei, 2009). In this case, the participants described what they felt were the significant factors that contributed or impeded their language learning experience. Thus, one participant remarked, "Conversation makes, yeah, friendly…but making a really big boundaries and really big wall to them [U.S. peers], to me, and to the other guys, or just I'm making the walls to them." The experience of being an outsider trying to overcome obstacles in the host country was a significant factor in the English language development of these study abroad students. One participant mentioned "We, Japanese students, are really isolated" and another stated, "it's really hard to get American friends." Language was a contributor to that as indicated by the statement "I have a disadvantage in English, so when I talk with some American students, they are a lot of words I can't understand." In addition to language,

lack of cultural knowledge contributed to the participants' isolation within the classroom. One person stated "when I was in chemistry class, the professor is funny and he says like a joke and everyone is laughing and [I was wondering] 'what are they laughing about?"

On the other hand, the experience of being in American university classrooms had profound effect on the language development because it had motivated them to practice and improve their English in order to succeed in their classes (M. Lamb, 2012). Students in this study described how their English proficiency had changed through their activities in the classroom. For instance, one participant recalled,

First time when I had first academic class, I couldn't participate in the group discussion. We tried not to take that class actually. But now I'm majoring in communication and we have many discussion in class and I felt really excited and it's such a great thing we could talk about our own idea in the class. And everybody listen me. Sometimes I was really nervous and felt really ashaming to say my own thing.

Over time, participants found themselves becoming more comfortable and confident in class routines after learning the behavioral expectations. Beyond the classroom context, students used multiple strategies to improve their English proficiency. For instance, one student stated, "I try to get a chance to talk to American friends. And read books, not only textbooks but like novel or something." Another student identified another way to enhance oral competency. This person shared "Since I don't have many opportunities to speak English with American students, so when I am doing my assignment or reading, I try to… how to say… read [a]loud." One student relied on resources and friends stating "I sometimes use dictionary and if other friends around me, I would ask them how to say this and they will like help me" while yet another relied of social media by "prefer[ing] to read English on my Facebook." However, it is important to note that motivation often propels language learning, but not necessarily precipitates immediate results (Papi & Teimouri, 2014). From such a perspective, the language learning experience can have an underlying influence on the language development of study abroad through engagement with the community around them (Papi, 2010).

While the language learning experiences often had a gradual effect on the language learner, some students talked about the steps that they had taken to manage their environment in order to

facilitate their language proficiency development. One participant had taken the step of moving in with non-Japanese students. She remarked, "Now I live with American friends so it's kinda, it's more opportunity, I have more opportunity to talk to, with them, in English so it's really good idea." By proactively placing herself in a setting where she was forced to use English, the ought-to self acted as a compelling motivator to change her living environment in order to become more immersed in the language in order to improve her English proficiency (Papi, 2010). The participants in this study discussed the language learning experience in terms of the classroom expectations that the students learned to meet as they became more adjusted to their studies in their new environment. Still other students helped to shape their own language learning environment by proactively following their own personal strategies to improve their English proficiency.

Discussion

This research provided some important findings to the research on L2 motivation. First, most of the previous research in this area has been conducted in European and Asian contexts, so the addition of an American context highlights how cultural values of the host country, such as individualism and flexibility, can influence study abroad students' motivational factors. The findings demonstrated a greater emphasis on the ideal self from previous research, which may have been heavily influenced by the prevailing attitudes that were present in the host culture, where many may subscribe to the notion of the American Dream. Students in this study discussed that they were not used to having opportunity to pursue different options in their home country, but they valued the experience of changing their major during their study abroad experience. The context of the L2 language learning experience tended to foster the availability of options for the ideal L2 self in that the context of the United States emphasized the freedom of choice for career options. Such flexibility allowed the students to make individualized goals that they had not previously felt allowed to think about. It seems that throughout the construction of the participants' ideal selves in the future in all different contexts, acquisition of English was of primary importance. Acquisition of English was critical in achieving future academic and professional goals and in securing personal and social interactions irrespective of location (i.e. reunification with family in the U.S. or interaction with American students in Japan).

Unlike previous research on the L2 Motivational system that found that the ought-to self did not play a significant role in the language learner's motivation (M. Lamb 2012; Kormos and Csizer,

2008), this study demonstrated more of the prevalence of the ought-to self as the students felt pressure to meet the expectations of others. Our findings supported M. Lamb's (2012) study that found the ought-to self would be more prevalent in Asian or Arabic cultures where there is more of a respect for the views of elders. The participants commented more about the pressure of their peers as part of the ought-to self since this group interacted with them on a daily basis (M. Lamb, 2012). Furthermore, given this was a study abroad context, the pressures from family might not have seemed so influential given the physical distance between the students and their home country of Japan. Nevertheless, some students mentioned the role that family pressures or perceived instructors' expectations had in their desire to become proficient in the English language.

The findings of this study indicate that it is critical for academic personnel to understand and recognize the impact of classroom procedures, the teachers, the content, and grades on the students' motivation to learn English (M. Lamb, 2012). The participants discussed both challenges and possibilities that they found in their efforts to learn the language while studying abroad. More importantly, the environment did influence their motivation by fostering creative ways to acquire language skills that ranged from read-alouds to dictionaries and from asking friends for help to reading novels and using English on social media (Kormos et al., 2011). The ways in which the participants discussed the learning conditions exceeded traditional classroom-based techniques. In so doing, the participants demonstrated the ways in which they were positioning themselves as active learners in the context of their study abroad, despite the multifaceted challenges that they may have faced.

This study had a few limitations in that the interviews were conducted at one moment of time, so it could not provide data about longitudinal change. Secondly, the students' attitudes relied on self-report, so the information could not be triangulated. However, the participants spoke of their own free will of the goals for language learning in the study abroad experience. The contribution of this work lies in the identification of the complex and multifaceted ways in which students discuss their motivation to study abroad and the central role that language learning has in their current and future lives.

Conclusion

Overall this study offers some significant contributions to the research on the L2 Motivational Self Model. First, this research illustrated that the values of the host culture can influence the learner's

views of the ideal self. When the learner perceives multiple options for the future as promoted by the cultural values of the host culture (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009), the ideal self becomes aspirational and focuses on the dreams of the learner. In this particular study, the ideal self exerted a significant influence on the thoughts and plans of the students. The ought- to-self centered on strategies that the student thought that they should employ in order to improve their language proficiency. Unlike previous studies of the ought-to-self which shows the ought-to-self based on other's expectations (Sampson, 2011), this study showed that the students had internalized notions of language learning strategies that served as the impetus in the ought-to-self. They did want to match the expectations of their learning, linguistic, and cultural context and navigate out of the position of the outsiders. Realizing the disconnect between knowing and implementing the language learning strategies, international students should be encouraged to specifically set attainable goals in their language learning experience where they could be paired with other language learners for the purpose of accountability. The L2 learning experience in this study played an important role in the students' language learning motivations because the students were living in a dominant English environment where English was needed for everyday functions as well as the means for academic instruction in the university classroom. The participants in this study voiced positive attitudes towards their instructors as shown in Csizér and Kormos (2009). However, the participants' positive attitudes about their L2 learning experience seemed tempered because they remarked that they were shy about interacting with native speaking students. University personnel could facilitate this interaction by providing opportunities for international students to engage with native speaking peers in a low-stress environment such as a cross-cultural conversation club or small group interactions. Perhaps, the most significant contribution of this study is a renewed call for multifaceted attention to the integration needs to international students.

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Foreign Language Education in Japan: Exploring Qualitative Approachesa

Sachiko Horiguchi, Yuki Imoto, and Gregory S. Poole (Eds.). Sense Publishers, Rotterdam 2015. Xi + 191 pp.

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Foreign Language Education in Japan: Exploring Qualitative Approaches edited by Sachiko Horiguchi, Yuki Imoto, and Gregory Poole provides a detailed account of various contexts involved in language education in Japan. Previous use of qualitative methods (Kubota 2011), have proven valuable for understanding the influences and motivations of those involved in foreign language education in Japan. The use of qualitative methods in each chapter allows for individuals directly involved in each context to be given a voice not often shown using quantitative methods.

The book contains four section covering ten chapters plus a foreword by Ryuko Kubota and an afterword by Neriko Musha Doerr. It is not only intended for those interested in Japan's foreign language education, but also appeals to those interested in relations of power in language education, cultural identity, and implementing language policies.

The opening foreword and chapter introduce key background information about the perception of language in Japan. The foreword is critical of perceptions of language in Japan, especially that "global" or "foreign" language is often associated with English, even though the definition should be more inclusive of other languages. English is also shown to be in high demand in Japan, despite a lack of need for English in the local context according to Kubota. The opening chapter, written by the editors details some of the policies Japan's education ministry, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) and explains the current situation for English education in Japan. The chapter also outlines its aim to promote discussions about language policy and practice by bringing together Japanese and non-Japanese researchers.

Section 1 (chapters 2-3) deals with the implementation of national education policies. Chapter 2 is the only chapter that is centered outside of Japan. It follows the difficulties of a weekend Japanese language school in the United States. The school is supported by MEXT and is given a

curriculum to follow to help students meet Japanese national education standards. The school has taken creative steps to implement policies, balancing the needs of local students that will not go to Japan, while also supporting students that will eventually move to Japan. Chapter 3 details the process of a company writing an English textbook for junior high schools in Japan. The textbook must follow strict guidelines to follow MEXT policies and the conflicts and debates that arise in the process are indicative of similar debates happening on the national level.

Section 2 (chapters 4-6) involves the implementation of policies by institutions not bound by national policy. Chapter 4 contains two case studies. The first is from an engineering school in Tokyo, while the second follows a software engineer from India working in Japan. The study shows that even though English is in high demand by the government, businesses, and schools, Japanese is the language that will benefit careers the most. Chapter 5 examines the attempted implementation of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages at a Japanese university and some of the challenges faced while implementing this new policy. Chapter 6 observes two private primary schools with English immersion programs. Both schools struggle to balance a "global" education while still addressing the needs and desires of the local community.

Section 3 (chapters 7-8) focuses on expectations and discourse in classrooms at Japanese universities. Chapter 7 examines student and teacher expectations of "a good language learner/teacher" through essay responses and directed interviews. Chapter 8 follows a cohort of junior college English majors as they take English courses from a Japanese instructor and another from a native English speaker. The relations of power displayed in this chapter allow insight into the thought process of a group of Japanese learners and offer a case study for larger debates regarding relations of power in the classroom. The studies from this section are the only studies that place their focus inside the classroom and provide results regarding learner/teacher identity.

Section 4 (chapters 9-10) discusses learning outside the classroom. Chapter 9 involves nine college student volunteers at the annual Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) conference. The study used recordings from a 120 minute group discussion to better understand the experience of the volunteers. This study makes the case that similar volunteer activities can help to reduce apprehension about language use and promote a willingness to communicate. Chapter 10 chronicles a Japanese teacher of English during a one year internship in a graduate program at a Japanese university learning to teach using communicative methods. The data were collected via a personal journal and responses by the advisor to the intern. The data reveal growth

in understanding communicative teaching approaches although doubts still exist for the intern about implementing communicative approaches in the Japanese classroom.

Foreign Language Education in Japan: Exploring Qualitative Approaches aims to begin or further discussions about foreign language education in Japan. The areas addressed by this book help to give the reader a greater understanding of the context of Japan while providing criticisms in a constructive manner. A weakness of this book is that there are issues that could have been explored further. These include teaching methods, relations of power involving the use of native English speakers in team teaching classrooms, and foreign language education other than English or Japanese. Further exploration into these topics using qualitative methods would be valuable to furthering the discussions started by this book. While there are still aspects of foreign language education in Japan to be explored, this book includes unique perspectives on the language education process, including materials development and teacher training, features not often accounted for in research and should provide valuable insight not always accessible. For those not particularly interested in Japan, this book still can provide a valuable case study of more universal discussions in the ESL/EFL field, such as relations of power in language education, cultural identity, and implementing language policies. As such, this book can provide thought provoking discussions for newcomers and experts alike in a wide range of fields.

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Bio data

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Discourse Analysis: Putting Our Worlds into Words

Susan Strauss and Parastou Feiz. New York: Routledge, 2014. Pp. vii + 424.

Reviewed by Colin Walker, Myongji University, South Korea

The relationship between language and the context in which it is used has long been a topic of interest for language teachers and researchers alike yet most books on the topic of discourse analysis have been constrained in context or theoretical scope. Drawing from academic lectures, narratives, commercials, cooking recipes, conversations, and texts taken from social media (e-texts), *Discourse Analysis: Putting Our Worlds into Words* serves as a comprehensive introduction to the field of discourse analysis and how meaning is constructed and interpreted in situated contexts. Each chapter introduces a collection of terms then highlights their use in discourse. Along the way, the authors engage the readers with interesting discussion questions and provide reader-friendly summaries at the end of each chapter.

The introductory chapter conceptualizes discourse as the "social and cognitive process of putting the world into words, of transforming our perceptions, experiences, emotions, understandings, and desires into a common medium for expression and communication, through language and other semiotic resources" (p.1). Through this lens, the authors argue that all discourse is imbued with some element of stance, which they interpret as the "reflection, creation, shaping, re-creation, and reification of meaning in situated contexts" (p.3). With basic linguistic items discussed in the opening chapters to broad, abstract concepts covered in the latter half of the book (i.e. include identity, agency, stance, and critical discourse analysis), this book presents both micro and macro levels of discourse analysis. The introductory section concludes with a short synopsis of each chapter that follows.

Chapter 2 explains how the nouns, verbs, adverbs, and adjectives can be manipulated to convey different meaning. In an insightful example, large fruits such as watermelon and cantaloupe tend to be expressed as a singular noun whereas smaller fruits such as apples are expressed as plural nouns. Chapter 3 conceptualizes genre, register, and modality. Appealing to their audience, the

authors explain these terms in simple language suggesting that genre characterizes the *what* (i.e. purpose and content) whereas register and modality signal the *how* of discourse analysis.

In Chapter 4, the authors discuss two types of reference, general and specific, followed by a discussion on the topics of deixis and stance. Analysis of these features lends insight into the closeness or distance speakers or writers wish to have with their respective listeners or readers. Chapter 5 employs a broader theoretical framework by describing information structure and cohesion with an interesting focus on how direct and indirect articles communicate meaning: the latter refers to shared or given information whereas indirect articles are a means to introduce new information. Citing works from Chafe (1972, 1974), the chapter then explains how sequenced bits of spoken discourse, or what the authors term "intonation units" (p.139), reflect consciousness. This serves as a nice prelude to Chapter 6 on conversation analysis.

Drawing from Sacks (1984) and his colleagues (Sacks et al., 1974), Chapter 6 details human interaction by examining turn taking, overlapping talk, adjacency pairs, continuers, assessments, and repair. Similar to their discussion of intonation units, the authors use diacritics to highlight differences in speech volume, pace, and discernible pausing. Chapter 7's summary on pragmatics uses Grice's (1989) cooperative principal maxims (i.e. quantity, relevance, and manner) to explain inference and conversational implicature. The chapter culminates with a summary of Searle's (1976) speech act theory categories: representatives, directives, commissives, expressiveness, and declarations. By understanding context and shared knowledge between interlocutors, these frameworks allow readers to identify meaning that goes beyond the literal text.

The final sections of the book, Chapters 8 and 9, present macro approaches to analyze discourse. Expanding on Chapter 4's description of deixis, Chapter 8 focuses on indexicality, and its relationship to stance, identity, and agency. An excerpt titled The Purpose of Education by Chomsky (see Learning Without Frontiers, 2012) serves as a salient example of agency – a call to action that illustrates how discourse can be used for persuasion, which in this case, is pointed out through a cause and effect relationship. Further analysis of Chomsky's choice of words lends insight into his stance on the topic and his identity as an educator. Critical Discourse Analysis, the topic of Chapter 9, draws together concepts from previous chapters to examine cognitive conceptualizations and social motivations of discourse with objective being "to encourage resistance against such ideologies to effect social change" (p.333).

Overall, *Discourse Analysis: Putting Our Worlds into Words* is a valuable contribution to EFL literature. As an introductory textbook, content within each chapter is presented in a writing style that seems well suited for an audience who is less familiar with the theoretical underpinnings of discourse analysis. Each chapter presents a collection of terms and concepts then draws the reader's attention to their application in discourse. At times, however, descriptions of some of these terms may be a bit nebulous for the intended audience. For instance, "agency in discourse is both fluid and scalar [...] it may be variably constructed, self-constructed, or evaluated as highly agentive, moderately agentive, slightly agentive, and non-agentive" (p.239). In the pages that follow, the authors include excerpts but do not explicitly note how agency fits within these characterizations. These instances are rare and should not overshadow the authors' expansive knowledge on the topic of each chapter. As this review illustrates, each chapter cites seminal works from respected scholars within the subsets of discourse analysis, and also includes an impressive list of suggested readings. To that end, this book can serve as a useful starting point for those seeking to identify their research interests in the field of discourse analysis.

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THE REVIEWER

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