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Foreword

We are delighted to announce the publication of the third volume of the JACET ELF SIG Journal.

The JACET ELF SIG Journal is an annual, peer-reviewed online publication for the ELF SIG of the Japan Association of College English Teachers (JACET). It has aimed firstly, to publish selected papers from SIG regular meetings and ELF-related events. This third volume is also this kind. From 2020, it intends to publish peer-reviewed ELF-related articles. We will invite ELF SIG members for contribution from the publication of fifth volume.

The third volume includes two articles based on the regular JACET ELF SIG meetings held in Academic Year of 2018. The first contribution is a research paper by Daisuke Kimura based on his presentation at the 1st ELF SIG Meeting at Waseda University on July 20, 2018. His article discusses how ELF research and study abroad (SA) research can inform each other, in particular in the backdrop of the current situation which the number of students choose to study abroad in ELF contexts. He rightly points out that ELF research often assumes ELF users’ pre-existing competencies, and thus has not focused on language learning and acquisition of skills dealing with diverse intercultural encounters. At the same time, he problematizes that SA research assumes a direct interrelation between learning and the “target” language in the “target” culture. With backing of his own research data, he urges for “cross-fertilisation” of ELF and SA research.

The second contribution is a research note by Tomoyuki Kawashima that is based on his presentation at the 2nd ELF SIG Meeting at Chukyo University on December 8, 2018. In this article, he extensively reports the findings from his own previous studies, which explored the impact of teaching varieties of English on high school teachers and students. Four different studies conducted over several years aim at bridging the gap between theoretical proposals for changing English language teaching and actual teaching practice in light of World Englishes (WE). One thing to be noted here is that the series of his studies were conducted from the perspective of WE rather than ELF. The field of WE, however, shares the same important interests with ELF research: claiming the legitimacy of diversity of English in its own right and investigating “a paradigm shift in [ELT]” (Galloway 2017: 3). His article, therefore, certainly provides a valuable insight into the development of ELF-oriented pedagogy.

Short reports on some of the ELF-related events in the academic year of 2018 compiled by
Gilner are also included at the end of this volume. The reports this year focus on the illustration of presentations given at the JACET ELF SIG Meetings, which includes abstracts written by the presenters and the SIG poster created by Miyuki Takino and Paul McBride for the 57th JACET International Convention (28-30 August, 2018). We hope readers, particularly for those who were unable to attend them, to find informative and helpful.

We would like to express our gratitude to the chair (Prof. Kumiko Murata) and the vice-chair (Prof. Nobuyuki Hino), the members of the editorial board and the reviewers who provided their expertise needed for finalising this volume, the JACET ELF SIG Journal, Volume 3.

June 2019
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Part I

Academic Paper
Towards Cross-fertilization of English as a Lingua Franca and Study Abroad

Daisuke Kimura

1. Introduction

This article explores some ways in which English as a lingua franca (ELF) and study abroad (SA) may inform each other to further advance their respective research agendas. In recent years, ELF scholars have directed considerable attention to the role of English as an academic lingua franca across the globe, focusing on diverse issues such as communication practices in the classroom, attitudes among stakeholders, and institutional policies (e.g., Baker and Hüttner 2016; Jenkins 2014; Smit 2010). However, research has rarely considered SA as a springboard for language learning (but see Dervin 2013; Kalocsai 2014; Kimura 2019). Since ELF is now understood to be profoundly intertwined with multilingualism and global mobility (Jenkins 2015), such SA settings, particularly in non-Anglophone countries, hold great promise in providing participants with opportunities to cultivate skills and dispositions for dealing with linguacultural diversity in ELF-resourced translocal encounters. Giving due attention to aspects of learning, such line of research would offer new perspectives to ELF scholarship which hitherto has focused predominantly on unraveling ELF users’ preexisting competencies (see Section 4.1 for a discussion).

While ELF research originated against the background of contemporary globalization wherein language and culture are increasingly de-territorialized (Jenkins 2000; Seidlhofer 2001), SA as a scholarly field evolved in the context of foreign language education (Carrol 1967). This origin of the field has had significant bearings on how SA researchers have conceived of issues such as target language community, assumed purpose of studying abroad, ultimate goal of learning a second/foreign language. However, recent SA scholarship exhibits a growing awareness of global mobility and translocality which ELF scholars have always treated as central to their work (e.g., Mitchell, Tracy-Ventura, and McManus 2017).

Given these recent developments and emerging convergence between the two fields, time is now ripe for them to move towards cross-fertilizing one another for further advancements. The goal of this article is to initiate such reciprocal dialogues. Since the readership of this article will consist mostly of informed ELF scholars and teachers, I devote the bulk of it to providing an overview of SA research so as to allow the reader to explore how it may help advance his/her research agenda. Following the overview, I consider some specific ways in

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1 I use “skills” to refer to directly observable actions such as using certain words or strategies in interaction, and dispositions to mean one’s qualities or readiness cultivated through language learning experience that enable communicative engagement.
which ELF and SA can benefit each other.

2. Early Research on SA

As mentioned previously, SA, or “a temporary sojourn of pre-defined duration, undertaken for educational purposes” (Kinginger 2009: 11, emphasis in original), evolved as and continue to be a prominent topic of inquiry in foreign language education and research. The prominence of this topic is in large part anchored in the alleged promise of SA in facilitating language learning through provision of abundant exposure to the target language and opportunities to use and learn it for real-life purposes. Particularly prevalent among students and educators of foreign languages, such understandings of SA have been exposed by scholars using such descriptors as “a positive experience with many benefits” (Kubota 2016: 348), a one-size-fits-all solution for all language problems (Polio and Zyzik 2009) or even as “the only way to really learn the language” (Coleman 1997: 1) (see Kubota 2016 for a recent critique of the social imaginary of SA).

By and large, it was these unwarranted benefits that motivated early research on SA dating back to the mid-1960s. Juxtaposed with the formal language learning environment (i.e., classroom), earlier research typically considered participation in SA as an experimental variable and sought to identify its quantifiable advantages. Barbara Freed (2008), a prominent scholar in SA research, synthesizes studies from the formative period and identifies the following three research questions that they typically pursued (113):

1. Is there empirical documentation for the long-held beliefs that students who study abroad achieve greater L2 language skills than those who do not?
2. What are the specific differences in the language of students who have studied abroad as compared to those whose learning has been limited to the language-learning classroom at home? ²
3. What aspects of the SA context contribute to language gain abroad?

To answer these questions, scholars frequently relied on large-scale quantitative research designs to examine general proficiency gains and/or improvements in specific linguistic areas (e.g., vocabulary size, morphosyntactic complexity, and oral fluency).

Most influential in early SA research may be Carrol’s (1967) project, titled Foreign language proficiency levels attained by language majors near graduation from college. As the title implies, the purview of Carrol’s project was not restricted to the effect of SA per se;

² For English language learning, in particular, the viability of the distinction between “abroad” and “domestic” has become contestable in recent years, given the prevalence of English-medium programs in non-Anglophone countries and the associated increase of international students.
rather, his goal was to “discover the factors associated with variation in performance in order to make inferences about what makes for high levels of attainment” (132). Involving a sample of 2,782 graduating foreign language majors from 203 higher education institutions across the US, Carrol identified time spent abroad as the most reliable predictor of high proficiency levels. For Carrol, who had a firm belief in the promise of SA for language learning, this finding was “not surprising, for reasons that need not be belabored” (137). Strikingly, he went on to conclude dismissively that “those who do not go abroad do not seem to be able to get very far in their foreign language study [...] despite the ministrations of foreign language teachers, language laboratories, audiolingual methods, and the rest” (137).

After Carrol’s landmark study, a large amount of research was conducted in search of predictors of general proficiency gains in SA settings (e.g., Brecht, Davidson, and Ginsburg 1995; Coleman 1996; Davidson 2010). This line of inquiries expanded on Carrol’s rather simplistic finding. For example, Brecht et al. (1995) unraveled predictive factors of success for US sojourners learning Russian, including prior language learning experience, mastery of grammar, and gender (with males being more prone to greater gains than females)3. Alongside these studies on predictors of general proficiency gains, there have also been a number of studies that focused on specific linguistic areas such as oral fluency, vocabulary size, listening comprehension, literacy, and pragmatics (for syntheses of these studies, see Churchill and DuFon 2006; Freed 2008; Kinginger 2009, 2011; Llanes 2011). Overall, early research indicates that participation in SA can have positive influences on myriad areas of language learning, particularly oral production, vocabulary, and pragmatics (Freed 1995; Llanes 2011). In this respect, it can be said that the popular understanding of SA as a cure-all for language learning is proven to be true to a certain extent.

That being said, a closer look at individual cases suggests that outcomes of SA are quite variable within and across groups of sojourners (Kinginger 2009, 2011, 2015). In an attempt to account for this inherent variability, some have looked into behavioral variables (e.g., amount of time spent with target language speakers, as opposed to the mere length of stay) (e.g., Freed, Segalowitz, and Dewey 2004; Ginsburg and Miller 2000), with limited success in providing sufficient explanations for the puzzle of uneven outcomes. Parallel to the social turn in applied linguistics (Block 2003), these challenges have prompted scholars to pursue more case-driven and socially-oriented approaches to research (Block 2007; Kinginger 2009; Kubota 2016) in recognition of the limitations of large-scale quantitative research:

The nature of study abroad experiences is infrequently depicted, learners’ own

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3 In a more recent study by one of the authors, the gender was no longer as a salient predictor, which he ascribed to the changing gender roles in Russia and pre-departure training programs offered to students (Davidson 2010).
unique disposition toward language learning are not considered, and we do not learn why some students prevail whereas others display only modest gains in documented language ability (Kinginger 2009: 31, emphasis in original).

Increasingly, in-depth qualitative studies have come to constitute a prominent part of contemporary SA research. Particularly, giving due attention to issues such as identity negotiation, formation and maintenance of social networks, and situated communication practice⁴, the emerging line of qualitative studies offers grounded insights into the observed variability of the SA experience. In the following sections, I discuss these developments and discern some evolving convergence between SA and ELF.

3. The Social Turn in SA Research
3.1. Identity

With the rise of socially-oriented research, the majority of scholars now share the view that identities and subject positions play a more pivotal role in SA sojourns than in classroom language learning (Huebner 1995; Kinginger 2009; Kubota 2016)⁵. Not only is this because language learning in SA entails negotiation of difference (Block 2007) and identity transformation (Benson, Barkhuizen, Bodycott, and Brown 2013), but identity of sojourners and hosts also impact evolving social networks, social interaction, and situated learning opportunities (or lack thereof) (Kinginger 2015; Kubota 2016; Norton 2013).

To give readers a feel for the great variability inherent in narratives of the SA experience, this section reviews some of the important work on identity negotiation and transformation, focusing specifically on gender, nationality, and foreignness. While I treat these categories discretely, it is important to note upfront that they are not mutually exclusive; quite the contrary, the richness of the individual experience results from interplay of various subject positions that are available to a given sojourner. The demographic categories discussed here are the ones that have been frequently mentioned in the literature, bearing broad relevance to different contexts and populations.

Among myriad demographic categories, gender probably has received most attention in SA research. Dating back to the 1970s, John and Francine Schumann’s diary research on their own experience of learning Arabic and Farsi is considered a pioneering work on this topic (J. Schumann and F. Schumann 1977; F. Schumann 1980). Conducted as part of a larger project

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⁴ This does not mean that quantitative research has lost its place in SA scholarship; quite the opposite, outcome-based quantitative research continues to provide valuable insights (e.g., Du 2013; Llanes and Munoz 2009).

⁵ Following Block (2007), I use the term identity to refer to the continuous process of negotiating a sense of self shaped by the interplay of multiple agents as well as past, present, and future. In this sense, identity is not merely what one claims to be or is born to be. By subject positions, I mean “identity options, such as mother, accountant, heterosexual, or Latina” (Pavlenko 2004: 35).
to develop a causal model of second language acquisition, the Schumanns identified numerous psychological, behavioral, and demographic variables. Among these variables was “a woman as a language learner” (F. Schumann 1980: 55), which she regarded as an obstacle; language learning is “far greater an endeavor for a woman than for a man” because female interlocutors were not as available as males in public and interacting with local males was considered “off-bounds” (55) in her surroundings at the time (i.e., in Tunisia and Iran in the 70s). While providing captivating insight, Schumanns’ epistemology was essentially deterministic owing to the goal of the larger project. More recent work, by contrast, generally seeks to illuminate “a complex interplay of students’ dispositions, features of their environments, and host communities’ stances towards their guests” (Kinginger 2011: 58).

In contrast to F. Schumann’s findings, sojourners in some studies are shown to be strategic in taking advantage of their gendered subject positions. Takahashi’s (2013) work on Japanese female students in Australia provides perhaps the clearest examples of students who turn their gender into their advantage to secure opportunities both to practice English and fulfill their romantic needs. Similarly, other studies also suggest the potentially facilitative role of gendered subject positions to varying degrees (e.g., Coleman 2015; Goldoni 2013; Trentman 2015; Mitchell et al. 2017).

In ELF-resourced, multilingual SA settings, gendered subject positions could lead to more complex situations. For one of Kimura’s (2018) research participants, Aiko (pseudonym), being a young Japanese woman facilitated her learning of the Thai language and culture given the popularity of Japanese women in Thailand while it compromised her opportunities to learn/use English with Thai and international students. As shown in the excerpt below, Aiko’s English use diminished drastically once she started dating a Japanese-speaking Thai student:

A: Opportunities to use English, I have them in classes since I have friends. But outside of classes, we rarely get together lately, so.
D: Ah. Then, you have been either on your own or with your boyfriend?
A: Yes. Otherwise, I would be with my Japanese friends. (my translation)

A: 英語を使う機会が、授業ではあるんですけど、友達はいるので。でも最近は授業外で一緒になるってことがありませんので。[…]
D: あー。じゃあ、だいたい１人でいるか彼といるかって感じ?
A: はい。それかまあ、日本人の友だちというかって感じですね。(original in Japanese)
It is important to note, however, the relationship (i.e., a product of Aiko’s gendered subject position) was not entirely deleterious to her multilingual development. She remained opportunistic and became increasingly invested in learning Thai language and culture with her boyfriend, which was of secondary importance to her at the outset of the sojourn. Having developed foundations in Thai through interactions with her boyfriend, Aiko gradually became proactive in meeting locals other than Thai classmates towards the end of her SA sojourn. Such occasions seemed to offer rich affordances for learning to make fuller use of her multilingual repertoire involving ELF:

A: I’ve been wanting to increase the chances to talk with local people, and I’ve been going to normal places to eat.
D: How do you talk with them? They are locals and not students, right?
A: Yes. Well, it’s not talking-talking, but like ordering food and asking “what are the differences between this and this” using English, gesture, and Thai. Well, I can communicate easy things. (my translation)

A: 地元の人と話す機会を増やそうと思って、レストランとか普通の食べるところに行って。
D: どうやって喋るの？学生とかじゃなくて地元の人でしょう？
A: はい。いや、喋っていても料理注文して、「コレとコレの違いは何？」っていうのを、英語とかジェスチャーとかタイ語を交えて。まあ、簡単なことだったら伝わります。（original in Japanese）

Another key demographic category in SA research concerns sojourners’ nationalities. In their temporary sojourns away from home, SA participants’ nationalities are often made relevant when locals treat them as embodiments of their home cultures. In other instances, when faced with challenges of being immersed in an unfamiliar culture, sojourners themselves resort to the comfort of forming a close-knit group with compatriots. For example, in his review of the SA literature, Block (2007) points out that this is particularly common in research on American students: “when the going gets tough for study abroad students, the subject position of American abroad emerge as dominant” (205). Quite often, such a tendency imposes an adverse impact on the unfolding experience by reducing opportunities to engage
with local social networks (Isabelli-Garcia 2006; Kinginger 2011). While most research has involved American students, this phenomenon is by no means idiosyncratic to this population; there have been studies showing similar tendencies among German students in France (Perrefort 2008)\(^6\), French students in Australia (Patron 2007), and Hong Kong students in the UK (Jackson 2008), as well as in more diverse, ELF settings (Kalocsai 2014; Kimura 2019). These studies suggest that while global mobility has, to a large extent, destabilized the connection between languages, cultures, and geographical locations, nationalities of individuals are still relevant today in that they are often foregrounded in negotiating identities in situ. The relevance of these issues is also implicated in the notion of native speakerism (see Section 4.1).

In the next section, I review studies that examine the role of social networks in accounting for the observed variability of the SA experience. In particular, I highlight how issues of identity are implicated in the formation and maintenance of social networks which, in turn, give rise to opportunities for language use and learning.

### 3.2. Social Networks

“[M]eeting new people can nurture new activities and new attitudes. This is the fundamental basis of learning through mobility. The new perspectives of new acquaintances allow and prompt you to re-invent yourself.”

(Coleman 2015: 42)

In recent years, analysis of social networks has come to constitute a well-established line of inquiry in SA scholarship (e.g., Dewey, Bown, and Eggett 2012; Isabelli-García 2006; Trentman 2015), as it provides a means to investigate the SA experience as an individual-specific phenomenon, and not as a unitary experimental condition. By attending to “the informal social relationships contracted by an individual” (Milroy 1987: 178), scholars have unraveled what sojourners are doing outside the classroom, with whom and how frequently, all of which critically shape their “access to linguistic and cultural input, and the quantity, nature and functional converge of target language interactions” (Coleman 2013: 29). In keeping with the original use of the concept in variationist sociolinguistics, most research in SA has been quantitative in nature, focusing on correlating parameters of social networks (i.e., size, dispersion, and density) and linguistic gains. In one of the earliest studies of this sort, Isabelli-García (2006) examined the relationships between oral proficiency development, L2 learning motivation, attitudes to the host culture, and social networks outside the

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\(^6\) Written originally in French and translated by Kinginger (2013).
classroom. In this in-depth study of four US students in Argentina, the author concluded that students with high motivation and positive attitudes developed more extensive social networks, which in turn “correlated with gains in linguistic accuracy” (256). There have also been larger studies of this kind with various population sizes, lending support to Isabelli-García’s findings (e.g., Dewey et al. 2012).

Alongside correlational research on social networks and language acquisition, there have also been a growing number of qualitative and mixed-methods studies in the field, as quantitative research can hardly show how the formation and development of social networks are intertwined with identities and dispositions of the parties involved. One of the first, though relatively modest, efforts towards this direction was undertaken by Dewey, Ring, Gardner, and Belnap (2013) in their study of American learners of Arabic in Jordan and Egypt. Through a questionnaire survey with several open-ended questions and weekly journal entries, the authors found housing location as one of the key factors influencing networking patterns and types of networks. Qualitative analysis also suggested that having access to local residents with compatible personalities, interests, and demographic backgrounds (e.g., male vs. female) was essential for forming and sustaining social networks, regardless of the housing location. Though the study was an important milestone towards qualitative research on social networks in SA, the findings were framed as general statements, with individual variations left underexplored. Moreover, as the authors themselves were cognizant, the interrelationship between social networks and language practice were not examined, as they assumed extended social networks with locals would automatically facilitate language learning.

Mitchell et al. (2017) and Kimura (2018, 2019) represent some of the more situated inquiries into social networks in SA. The Language and Social Network Abroad Project (LANGSNAP), led by Rosamond Mitchell and her associates, is the most comprehensive mixed-methods study of social networks in SA research. The project tracked 57 British university students majoring in Spanish and French during their yearlong sojourns in Spain, Mexico, or France. Using a battery of qualitative and quantitative methods, such as oral interviews, questionnaires, and language tests, Mitchell et al. examined the interplay of identity, social networks, and (reported) language practice. Particularly relevant to ELF research, the authors found that for these British students, “English as tradable cultural capital” (194) played a major role in facilitating the development of their social networks. However, since English was “the unmarked form of communication” (190), they had to put conscious efforts to secure opportunities to use their target languages. Similarly, Kimura’s work on Japanese students learning to communicate through ELF in Thailand also found that while their subject position as Japanese assisted them in the formation of extended social networks,
it simultaneously made it more challenging for them to practice English and Thai, as many local students were invested in learning Japanese language and culture and possessed some proficiency in Japanese (Kimura 2018, 2019). Collectively, these two studies, among others, show the intricate interplay of identity, social networks, and language learning in SA, and thereby help complicate the findings of earlier correlational studies on social networks and language gains. To further explore how language use and learning transpire in SA settings, the next section zeroes in on communication practices situated within sojourners’ social networks.

3.3. Situated Communication Practice

To understand the SA experience in a fuller sense beyond correlational terms, one must examine social interactions wherein actual learning opportunities and constrains emerge and are negotiated (Kinginger 2009). While this line of inquiry is not new to the literature, the social turn has accelerated the amount of research produced in recent years (e.g., Cook 2006, 2008; DuFon 2006; Iino 2006; Kinginger, Lee, Wu, and Tan 2016; Kinginger, Wu, Lee, and Tan, 2016; Wilkinson 2002). Typically, interactional studies in SA employ microanalytic methods (e.g., conversation analysis) and examine naturally-occurring audiovisual interactions deriving from recurring events, such as mealtime conversations with host family members. Shedding empirical light on how different subject positions and communicative dispositions play out within social interaction, this strand of research has provided contextualized insights into the great variability in the SA experience and uneven outcomes.

Among various communicative settings researched to date, homestay comprises the most typical one in the literature. Research has shown that the sojourners’ experience is largely dependent on communicative dispositions of the parties involved. For example, a study conducted by Iino (2006), some sojourners reported “that they were treated like babies and dolls in the family,” which severely compromising their opportunities to engage in what Block (2007) refers to as negotiation of difference. In contrast, Cook (2006) demonstrates that even when sojourners are exoticized via stereotypifying assertions, negotiation of difference is indeed possible. Cook’s analysis of recorded interactions shows that her participants contested such assertions 40.4% of the time by providing counterexamples, resulting in two-way negotiation of stereotypes. Similar findings have also been reported by Kinginger et al. (2016a, 2016b) wherein participants were found to engage in negotiation of folk beliefs with their host families.

While the studies discussed above focus on topical dimensions of interaction taking place in homestay settings, scholars have also attended to specific linguistic items and sequential routines. Cook (2008) analyzed the use and learning of the polite verb ending *masu* in Japanese and showed that host families used *masu* with SA sojourners as displays of
parental authority and responsibility. Being exposed to the uses of masu that did not simply conform to the formal-informal binary (which they had learned in the classroom prior to SA), sojourners were afforded opportunities to learn to use masu for identity construction. Masu was also found to be employed in reported speech, which exposed the students to the out-group speech style. Cook’s study suggested the role of mealtime conversation as a site for learning the subtleties of Japanese sociopragmatics.

With respect to sequence organization, Wilkinson (2002) analyzed interactions between American students and their host families in France. Contrary to the assumed benefit of SA in providing naturalistic exposure to the target language, the data analyzed in the study featured a large number of pedagogical action sequences, such as the Initiation-Response-Evaluation (IRE) sequence, other-initiated repair, and corrective feedback. Strikingly, when these features were absent, student participants would explicitly introduce the classroom norms into the conversation at hand or to (mis)take the interlocutor as not willing to help. Wilkinson observed that this may not have been intended by the participants; quite the contrary, for these students who had been socialized to use French almost exclusively in the classroom, “[s]peaking French entailed relying on instructional norms” (Wilkinson 2002: 169).

Beyond homestay, there is also a body of research examining naturally occurring interactions in a variety of other settings. Diao (2014) studied the acquisition of affective sentence-final particles (ASPs) by American sojourners in student residence halls in China. Based on the audio recordings of interactions among peers, Diao found that their learning trajectories were gendered; while a female participant was encouraged to use more ASPs to index femininity, a male student who had previously been socialized to use ASPs in the classroom was ridiculed by his Chinese peers for sounding too feminine. In contrast to the studies discussed so far which analyzed sojourners’ interactions with those who were in regular contact with them (e.g., host family members, friends, and professors), Shively (2011) took up a study of seven American students engaged in service encounters in Spain. Owing largely to their previous learning experience, these sojourners characterized Spanish service encounters as direct and unfriendly. Though they gradually adapted themselves to Spanish norms on the surface, they clung to their initial interpretation throughout the sojourn to a large extent based on additional data.

All in all, the studies reviewed in this section reveal myriad layers of complexity that are implicated in social interactions in SA settings. Parallel to the points made in the previous section on identity, learning and use of language in SA are shaped by issues such as demographic categories (e.g., nationality and gender), communicative dispositions of sojourners and hosts, and prior language learning experience. Research into such complexity contributes to our understanding of the nature of SA experience beyond the view of SA as a
unitary experimental condition. As discussed below, situated research on SA sojourners would benefit ELF research in bringing about theoretical developments centered on issues of language learning and lives of ELF users outside institutional settings.

4. Towards Cross-fertilization of ELF and SA: What Can Each Field Give to the Other?

The previous sections have reviewed developments in the SA literature that place increasing emphasis on the great variability of the SA experience, breaking away from the notion of SA as an experimental variable. Focusing particularly on issues of identity, social networks, and situated communication practice, this growing body of research continues to shed light on the questions that large-scale correlational studies were unable to answer. These developments in theory and research have implications for advancements in ELF scholarship which hitherto has devoted limited attention to language learning in SA contexts. Likewise, current understanding of ELF could offer useful insights calling for a conceptual reappraisal in SA research. In the remainder of the article, I discuss the specific ways in which ELF and SA could productively inform one another.

4.1. Contributions of SA Research to ELF

First and foremost, research into language learning in SA contexts is an underrepresented area in ELF scholarship with promising educational prospects. While a number of scholars are exploring the wide-spread use of English in global higher education, particularly in non-Anglophone countries (e.g., Baker and Hüttner 2016; Björkman 2013; Jenkins 2014; Mauranen 2012; Murata 2016; Smit 2010), issues of language learning is not usually treated as a central topic. With abundant opportunities to communicate using ELF with diverse interlocutors, such settings may offer worthwhile affordances for learning, which aligns with recent theories of ELF centered on issues such as multilingualism, transculturality, and global mobility (Baker 2016; Hülmbauer and Seidlhofer 2013; Jenkins 2015). In fact, some learners have begun to notice such prospects in view of their imagined future selves as global professionals who constantly traverse the world (Dervin 2013; Kalocasai 2014; Kimura 2019). To develop an ELF-informed approach to language learning in SA, it is instrumental to compile case studies of sojourners and identify their similarities and differences. SA scholarship, with its established tools for holistic and situated investigation, has much to offer to ELF research in this endeavor.

On a more theoretical level, insights from the SA literature would prompt ELF scholars

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7 Admittedly, “using” naturally entails “learning.” However, in my understanding, “learning to use ELF” is not usually treated as a topic of focus in most research.
to regard their research participants not only as language users but also as learners. As it begun in part as a counter discourse to the dominant notion of L2 speakers as norm-dependent, the majority of ELF research has focused on proving ELF users’ preexisting competencies (Firth 1996; Jenkins 2000; Seidlhofer 2001). As important as it was, this origin of the field resulted in an unresolved question: where do ELF users’ competencies come from? Some scholars are beginning to address this in microanalytic/microgenetic studies (e.g., Firth 2009), but ELF research on the whole has not given enough considerations to identities of ELF-knowing individuals as language learners (but see Nogami forthcoming).

In this context, researching SA sojourners as whole people (Coleman 2013) with distinct histories, dispositions, future aspirations, investments, and subject positions may help ELF researchers to engage in epistemological expansions. Such discussions are critical to ELF research and pedagogy because English today reflects diverse ideologies (e.g., native-speakerism vs. ELF awareness) in individual learners’ minds, and the meaning of learning English differs from one learner to another (Ishikawa, 2017; Jenkins 2007; Kimura 2019; Konakahara, Murata, and Iino 2017). For illustration, consider the following excerpt from a study of a Japanese exchange student, Shota (pseudonym), in Thailand which highlights the ideological dissonance between his investment in native-speaker English and the reality of using ELF in his SA sojourn:

S: I was able to be exposed to native English for the first time in a while. It was a very kind American boy named, Ethan. No matter how much I tried, I couldn’t understand his English, and there were times I hated my English proficiency to the extent that I felt sorry. (my translation)

S: 久々にネイティブの英語に触れられなかったかどうか，それが Ethan っていうアメリカのめっちゃ優しい男の子なんですよけど，俺どうしても Ethan の英語だけはほんまに聞き取れなくて，申し訳ないレベルで自分の英語力がちょっと嫌いになる。（original in Japanese）

(Kimura 2019: 88)

As the excerpt indicates, despite having ample opportunities to use ELF with Thai and international students, Shota longed for native speaker interlocutors and conceptualized English learning/use based heavily on native speaker norms, rather than mutual engagement and adjustment. As a consequence, when communication breakdowns with native speaker interlocutors occurred, he would consider himself as at fault; in other words, his learning of
English was essentially “predicated on failure” (Seidlhofer 2011: 197). Echoing findings of SA research, the excerpt, thus, suggests the central role played by individual aspirations, subject positions, and dispositions in shaping the SA experience. Situated research in SA contexts may help unravel similar ideological conflicts and (hopefully) transformations over time within individual sojourners, which in turn may facilitate the development of effective methods for interventions (cf. Konakahara, et al. 2017).

4.2. Contributions of ELF Research to SA

While contemporary SA research embraces variability of the individual experience as discussed at length in preceding sections, it is still premised largely on the assumed correspondence between geographical locations and languages spoken. For example, Coleman’s model of “progression of friendships” (Coleman 2015: 44) advances the idea that SA sojourners’ social circles typically transition from compatriot networks to international student networks (“other outsiders” in Coleman’s words), and ultimately to local social networks which supposedly provide ideal exposure to the target language. The viability of this model, as well as its underlying assumption of the direct connection between host community and target language, is highly debatable in the context of contemporary globalization where languages and cultures are increasingly decoupled from their geographical origins (Blommaert 2010; Canagarajah 2013).

Particularly for English, which receives increased significance globally, it is no longer a simple task to define the relationship between target language, host community, and language learning. Indeed, as Baker (2016) rightly notes, “in intercultural communication through ELF it is not clear what particular target communities and language norms the communication is ‘in-between’” (73). Against this contemporary backdrop, embracing the notion and theories of ELF would assist scholars to explore new possibilities for SA destinations, which may be in closer alignment with investments and future aspirations of certain, if not all, sojourners (see Kimura 2018 for a further discussion).

Transcending the traditional relationship between native and nonnative speakers, one particularly innovative line of future research inspired by ELF research may concern the place of native speakers in translocal interactions. As English is used by one in four of the world’s population (Crystal 2012), legitimacy of native speaker norms cannot be taken for granted in all situations. Quite the contrary, ELF research has suggested that native speakers are sometimes associated with unfavorable qualities and practices (Kalocsai 2014; Kimura 2017; Seidlhofer 2011). One such example is unilateral idiomaticity which denotes “a sense of lack of concern for one’s interlocutor, a neglect of the need for accommodation, for sensitively gauging the other person’s likely familiarity with expressions of a particular kind” (Seidlhofer
By adopting the notion of ELF, it may be possible to research learning trajectories of native speakers using English for translocal purposes in SA contexts.

5. Conclusion

This article has considered the ways in which ELF and SA may inform one another by reviewing the literature and envisioning some prospective future directions. Continued research will potentially assist various stakeholders involved in educating today’s English users who are faced with immense linguistic and cultural diversity in their professional pursuits. Undoubtedly, cross-fertilization of ELF and SA will be indispensable in this unfolding endeavor, yielding myriad benefits not limited to what I have considered above.

References


Daisuke Kimura
Tomoyuki Kawashima
Background Research on Developing Teaching Materials for Listening Comprehension in World Englishes

Tomoyuki Kawashima

1. Introduction

More than three decades have passed since Braj Kachru conceptualized World Englishes (WE). Benefiting immensely from the pioneering work in WE (Seidlehofer 2009), English as a lingua franca (ELF) research has gained momentum after the millennium. Jenkins (2017), who divided the development of the ELF paradigm into three phases, contended that the WE paradigm influenced the first phase of the ELF paradigm most. Despite key differences between the two paradigms, “that of WE being within [national] boundaries and ELF transcending them” (Jenkins 2017: 12), both fields have desired “to showcase the diversity of English and to instigate a paradigm shift in English Language Teaching (ELT)” (Galloway 2017: 3). Having taught English at high schools for 25 years, I feel the paradigm shift that WE and ELF researchers have sought has not yet fully taken place in Japanese ELT context. Kachru (1985) advocated benefits of exposing students to varieties of English as early as in the 1980s. However, it is still difficult, if not impossible, to find high school teachers who regularly expose their students to varieties of English. Indeed, the dominance of native-speakerism is a major barrier to bringing about paradigm shift (Galloway 2017: xiv), but I feel from my own experiences as a practitioner that a lack of support for teachers is also responsible. Galloway (2017: xv–xvi) regretted and maintained that “the growing theoretical interest in the need for change to ELT in light of Global Englishes¹ research has not been reflected in research at the practical level”.

In this light, this article aims to present some of the findings of my studies that I have conducted in the hope of filling significant gaps between the accumulated proposals for changes to ELT by WE and ELF researchers (e.g., Dewey 2016; Sifakis, Lopriore, Dewey, Bayyurt, Vettorel, Cavalheiro, Siquera and Kordia 2018) and teachers’ practice in the classroom. I then guide readers on why I came to undertake my current project on material

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¹ In the preface of the book which changed its title from “World Englishes: A Resource Book for Students” to “Global Englishes: …”, Jenkins (2015) explained the latter is a more inclusive term and that it can better represent the overall focus on newer non-nation-bound developments of English. Galloway (2017) used “Global Englishes” as an umbrella term which includes research fields of WE, ELF, English as an International language and Translingual Practice.
development to enhance students’ listening comprehension of WE\(^2\). This paper ends with my suggestions for future research in the fields of Global Englishes. The subsequent section presents a background concept that facilitated my studies.

2. **Background: How Can We Succeed in Innovation in the Classroom?**

Innovation here means any new idea or practice related to ELT. Exposure to varieties of English is one such example. To show a difficulty introducing innovation to ELT, Galloway (2017: xvi) pointed out that though the Japanese Ministry of Education recognized in its Action Plan that English acts as “the common international language” (MEXT 2003), native speakers of English (NSEs\(^3\)) were referred to in the same document as the providers of a “valuable opportunity to learn English”. Owing to my long teaching career at high schools, my research has aimed to gather empirical support that can be used to appeal to practitioners the benefit of innovation. Moreover, in designing my studies, the Rogers’ concept (1983, cited in Brown 2001) of five attributes facilitating the adoption of innovation was of great use. After examining some 1,500 studies on innovation across disciplines, Rogers found five common variables in successfully adopted innovation: relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, trialability, and observability. He argued these five elements as necessary in introducing innovation to ELT successfully. For example, innovation should have benefits (relative advantage). If potential adoptees are not aware of the benefits, they may not try to adopt it. In addition, innovation should be similar to the current practice (compatibility), and simple (or a lack of complexity) and easy to try out (trialability). Finally, innovation should be visible and familiar to possible adoptees (observability). Brown (2001) argued that if the WE paradigm is to be considered an innovation, these five facets should be duly considered to make it more accessible to teachers.

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\(^2\) Throughout this article, I use the term “WE” to denote different English accents of the non-native speakers who can function as proficient communicators in English irrespective of the distinction between the Outer Circle and the Expanding Circle.

\(^3\) On the basis of the Kachru’s (1985) three concentric circle model, NSEs are defined as people who were born in the Inner Circle, while non-native speakers of English (NNSEs) are defined as English speakers who were born in the Outer and Expanding Circles. As a growing number of people in the Outer and Expanding Circles have come to use English at home, however, the problem of this geographical division has been pointed out (e.g., Medgyes 1992). Moreover, due to unbalanced ownership of the language that the terms “NSEs” and “NNSEs” will suggest, WE and ELF researchers, who emphasize the pluricentricity of English (Pakir 2009), do not want to differentiate NSEs and NNSEs. Notwithstanding these limitations, I use the terms “NSEs” and “NNSEs” when I need to clarify the contrast between the two groups of speakers in a simplest way.
With a supposition that practitioners, high school teachers in particular, are possible adoptees of a new paradigm of Global Englishes, I designed some of my earlier studies. For instance, when I designed experimental lessons, they aimed to clarify possible educational advantages that exposure to varieties of English accents would offer to students. At the same time, utmost care was taken to keep classroom activities as intact as possible (compatibility). My second study of the resource availability for exposure to WE addressed trialability, or the ease with which teachers can make use of the ready-made materials. Finally, my studies in more recent years were designed to develop teaching methods that are simple (complexity) and familiar to the conventional methodology (observability).

The following four sections describe synopses of my past and current research work and the five research questions (RQs) they address. Section 3 answers RQ1: “Are Japanese teachers of English in favor of exposing students to WE?” and RQ2: “Are there differences in attitudes toward exposure to WE between Japanese teachers and native English-speaking teachers?” Section 4 explains the significance of the exposure and presents answers to RQ3: “Is exposure to WE beneficial to Japanese learners of English?” The following section addresses RQ4: “Are resources available when teachers want to introduce WE in the classroom?” In Section 6, RQ5: “How can we control the difficulty levels of listening to WE?” is examined. Finally, the last section discusses my present project by introducing its aims and methodology, and this paper concludes with suggestions for future research in the fields of Global Englishes.

3. Are Japanese Teachers of English in Favor of Exposing Students to WE?

Teachers are a leading actor for a paradigm shift in the classroom. Crismore, Ngeow, and Soo (1996) argued that teachers play an influential role in molding their students’ attitudes toward language variation. Therefore, the very first piece of my research began with the investigation into the attitudes and perceptions of ELT teachers toward WE and their opinions about exposing Japanese learners of English to WE. A questionnaire survey was carried out in 1999 with responses collected from 92 Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) and 65 native English-speaking teachers (NETs) teaching at secondary and tertiary levels (Kawashima 2000). The number of participants according to school levels and the breakdown of NETs by nationality are presented in Table 1. All the participants were teaching English in the Kanto

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4 ELF researchers may question the validity of this question, for they have found the language to “be highly contingent and emergent, and thus impossible to describe in terms of fixed (or even relatively fixed) ‘features’” (Jenkins 2017: 8-9). However, research into intelligibility of WE is indispensable to develop methods of step-by-step instruction to familiarize Japanese learners of English.
region.

Table 1 Participants in Questionnaire Survey

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Level</th>
<th>JHS</th>
<th>SHS</th>
<th>University</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JTE (N=92)</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NET (N=65)</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nationality (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canadian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NET (N=65)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The questionnaire consisted of 26 questions concerning teachers’ preferences for different English accents as production models and their opinions about exposing Japanese learners of English to WE. The analysis of the responses indicated several interesting characteristics of JTEs’ attitudes\(^5\). First, in terms of the attitudes toward accents, more JTEs (23.3%) than NETs (5.1%) responded that people should be dissatisfied with speaking English with regional or ethnic accents (see Table 2). The further analysis of the JTEs’ responses revealed that a higher percentage of university teachers (37.5%) tended to view accented-English with dissatisfaction in contrast with 23.3% of JHS and 13.9% of SHS teachers. In a similar vein, more secondary school JTEs perceived speaking English with accents positively. More than 66% of the SHS and about 53% of the JHS teachers were either “satisfied” with or “proud” of accented-English. Meanwhile, slightly over 29% of university teachers made the same choice. Though this is my speculation, this tendency may be due to the higher level of requirements for obtaining native-like pronunciation that teachers at higher education level are likely to impose on themselves.

Table 2 Teachers’ Attitudes toward Accents (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q7. People should be … of speaking/to speak English with regional or ethnic accents.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dissatisfied</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^5\) The data analysis was performed to examine differences in responses between the two demographic groups (JTEs and NETs) and among the three educational levels where teachers taught (i.e., JHS/SHS/university). In addition, the cross tabulation method was used to investigate the attribution of the samples and examine further relation between the two responses.
The result also suggested that the perception that legitimate English speakers are primarily NSEs is deeply implanted in the minds of the JTEs. As shown in Table 3, in response to the question (Q9: “When you teach English, are you primarily thinking of English as a means of communication with …?”), more JTEs reported “NSEs” (55.6%) than those who replied “all English speakers” (34.4%). However, the NETs’ responses indicated a different trend: more teachers (49.2%) answered “all English speakers” compared with those who answered “NSEs” (42.9%).

Table 3 Teachers’ Perception of English Speakers (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NSEs</th>
<th>All Types of Speakers</th>
<th>NNSEs</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JTE Total (N=92)</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>34.4</td>
<td>4.3</td>
<td>5.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NET Total (N=65)</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>49.2</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>4.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Adapted from Kawashima (2000).

In addition, regarding the frequency of English use for communication with NNSEs (Q16–1: “Have you ever used English to communicate with NNSEs excluding the Japanese?”), a sweeping majority of the NETs (96.9%) had such experiences either frequently or sometimes. On the other hand, one third of the JTEs had no or very little such experience (36.9%). The cross tabulation of the responses to Q9 and Q16–1 revealed that the JTEs with a richer exposure to WE had broader views of English speakers. It was speculated that a lack of firsthand experience of communicating with NNSEs among the JTEs may have led to their insufficient recognition of NNSEs as legitimate English speakers, as well as perceived inefficiency of speaking English with NNSEs. As much as 85.7% of the NETs in contrast to 63.3% of their JTE counterparts thought that speaking English with NNSEs is a useful way of improving English for learners (Q20).
Finally, teachers’ attitudes toward exposing learners to WE differed between the JTEs and the NETs. Table 4 shows that much higher percentage of the NETs (29.2%) than the JTEs (4.4%) was in favor of such exposure at any educational level. However, as far as the respondents who chose “OK if in SHS” are concerned, an interesting tendency is seen. About 25% of the NETs supported exposure at high schools, while more than 40% of the JTEs did so. Overall, there was a tendency among the JTEs to think that learners at a higher education level were suitable for the exposure to WE. A total of 47.8% of the JTEs (31.1% who chose “OK if in university” plus 16.7% who chose “OK if English majors”) were in favor of the exposure if learners were in college, whereas as little as 18.5% of the NETs (7.7% who replied “OK if in university” and 10.8% who answered “OK if English majors”) gave the same response.

Table 4 Teachers’ Attitudes toward Exposing Students to WE (%)

<p>| Q13. What do you think about exposing Japanese students to the English spoken as a second language by educated non-natives like Indian, Filipinos, Kenyans, Malaysians, Nigerians, Singaporeans etc.? |
|---------------------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>OK at any level</th>
<th>OK if in SHS</th>
<th>OK if in university</th>
<th>OK if English majors</th>
<th>Not in favor</th>
<th>Other*</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>JTE (N=92)</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>41.1</td>
<td>31.1</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NET (N=65)</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>7.7</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>21.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JTE JHS (n=30)</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JTE SHS (n=37)</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>JTE Univ. (n=25)</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>29.2</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NET JHS (n=29)</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NET SHS (n=21)</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>19.0</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>23.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NET Univ. (n=15)</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Adapted from Kawashima (2000).
* The responses of “other” included “students should be informed that the speaker is a non-native speaker”, “the non-native English should be clear and grammatically correct”, and “the restriction should be placed based on students’ proficiency levels, not by their educational levels”.

To sum up, the questionnaire survey to the ELT teachers indicated that nearly half of the JTEs (47.8%) are supportive of the exposure to WE if students are in college (RQ1, see Table

6 The response “OK at any level” entailed early exposure at SHS. Therefore, it can be interpreted that a total of 53.8% of NETs in contrast to 45.5% of JTEs were in favor of exposing SHS students to WE.
4), whereas the NETs are slightly more in favor of earlier exposure (RQ2, see Table 4). Furthermore, it was revealed that more than half of JTEs are either “satisfied” or “happy” to speak English with regional or ethnic accents, and that there are more positive-thinking JTEs at JHS and SHS levels (see Table 2). Lastly, more than half of the JTEs think legitimate English speakers are NSEs (see Table 3). The cross tabulation of the responses suggested a correlation between a lack of experiences among the JTEs of communicating with NNSEs in English and a failure of recognizing the effectiveness of students’ speaking English with NNSEs for improvement of their English.

### 4. Is Exposure to WE Beneficial to Japanese Learners of English?

Previous research on English accents suggests that a favorable attitude toward a certain accent often stems from familiarity with the accent. For example, Wakabayashi and Sugiyama (1999) examined whether a perception toward a particular nationality would influence the evaluation of attractiveness of English. In their study, Japanese university students (N=57) listened to the recordings of four speakers of American English twice. The students were asked to evaluate attractiveness of each speech by marking their impressions on a five-point scale. In the first evaluation, no prior information about the speakers’ nationality was given. In the second evaluation, the students were provided with false information about each speaker’s nationality noting that they were British, Singaporean, Chinese or French. Of great interest was that the participants with much experience in speaking and listening to English outside of classroom\(^7\) made the similar judgements in the two evaluations. The participants with little experience, on the other hand, changed their evaluation significantly due to the false information about the speakers’ nationalities. Wakabayashi and Sugiyama concluded that nation-based prejudice may decrease with the exposure to varieties of English.

Based on the findings of Wakabayashi and Sugiyama (1999), I designed a few experimental lessons to examine the effects of familiarity with varieties of English accents on students’ attitudes toward them. The following sub-sections describe the first three intervention studies I conducted in the high school classroom setting to determine affective and cognitive effects of exposure to WE on the students’ attitudes. The outline of the studies is tabulated in Table 5.

\(^{7}\) Though the exact wording of the question was not presented, Wakabayashi and Sugiyama’s concluding remark suggested that the participants’ experience included exposure to different English accents.

### Table 5 Outline of Three Experimental Lessons for Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experiment 1</th>
<th>Experiment 2</th>
<th>Experiment 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

31


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Experiment 1</th>
<th>Treatment 1</th>
<th>Treatment 2</th>
<th>Control Treatment</th>
<th>Experiment 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Activity</td>
<td>Repeating and reading aloud</td>
<td>Repeating and reading aloud</td>
<td>Repeating and reading aloud</td>
<td>Listening cloze</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Treatment</td>
<td>10 NNSEs and 10 American English speakers</td>
<td>2 Japanese English speakers</td>
<td>1 Indian and 1 Filipino English speakers</td>
<td>(1) 20 NNSEs (2) 20 awareness-raising talks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Treatment</td>
<td>10 American English speakers</td>
<td>2 American English speakers</td>
<td>2 American English speakers</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration of Exposure</td>
<td>125 min.</td>
<td>90 min.</td>
<td>120 min.</td>
<td>60 min.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Duration of Experiment</td>
<td>5 weeks</td>
<td>12 weeks</td>
<td>12 weeks</td>
<td>6 weeks</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Experiment 1 was conducted in 1999 and adapted from Kawashima (2000), and Experiments 2 and 3 were conducted in 2009 and adapted from Kawashima (2013).

### 4.1 Exposure to WE under Less Rigidly Controlled Conditions

My first experimental study\(^8\) aimed to ascertain whether learners’ familiarity with WE contributes to the change of attitudes toward American English and Japanese English (Kawashima 2000). The control group consisted of 38 students and the experimental group had 39 students. The control group was exposed to recordings of texts spoken by ten American English speakers, while the experimental group was exposed to recordings of ten NNSEs\(^9\), i.e., two Malaysians, one Filipino, one Hong Kong Chinese, one Mexican, one Thai, one Bulgarian, one Indonesian, one Chinese, and one Nepalese, in addition to the recordings of Americans that the control group listened to\(^10\). Of the ten NNSEs, five speakers were teachers of English in their home countries or in Japan. Another four were undergraduate teachers.

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\(^8\) Five lessons were conducted to 77 senior high school students in a 50-minute language laboratory class. Participants were third-year English major students in a Japanese public senior high school. The same textbook “OKINAWA, the Peaceful Islands” published by BUN-EIDO in 1997 was used for both experimental and control groups.

\(^9\) I continue to use the terms NSEs and NNSEs in this article to demonstrate the past and present excessively unbalanced availability of resources for exposure in Japan in a simplest way.

\(^10\) All the recordings, except for the one recording provided by a textbook publisher, were prepared by myself. Each speaker read a 200-word-long text of one unit in the textbook.
foreign language majors temporarily studying in Japan. Still another speaker, who used to be a professor at a university at home, was pursuing graduate study in Japan. I met non-Japanese research collaborators before asking them for recordings to make sure that their English pronunciation was not too difficult to understand.

The student participants made an arbitrary selection of the recordings they wanted to listen to while they practiced reading the text aloud. Those in the experimental group were allowed to choose a NSE’s or/and a NNSE’s recording for their production model. The control group had no choice but to listen to a recording of an American English speaker. During each 50-minute lesson, the experimental group was provided with the opportunity to listen to the recordings by two NSEs and two NNSEs.

For data collection, three forms of questionnaires were used. The first questionnaire was designed to examine participants’ attitudes toward various English accents. The ratings of the 27 test items on a 5-point scale were statistically analyzed using analysis of variance. The results indicated no significant interaction effect\(^\text{11}\) between the groups (experimental/control) and tests (pre/post). This could be either because the experimental lessons did not instigate attitudinal/perceptual changes or because the questionnaire was unable to measure changes that did occur. In fact, the posterior analysis indicated a defect in the rating scale of the questionnaire\(^\text{12}\).

The second questionnaire had questions that asked the participants’ actual choice of production models in class and the reasons behind their choices. The responses to a multiple-choice question showed that more than 80% of the participants in the experimental group used NNSE recordings as models. As a reason for choosing a NNSE recording, some participants responded that they thought it greatly significant and necessary to tune their ears in unfamiliar WE. On the other hand, the reasons for choosing American English included that “it is easier to comprehend”, or “I believe that native speaker English is authentic; therefore it can become a more appropriate model”.

\(^{11}\) Interaction effect in this case means whether the effect of exposure measured by the pre- and post-tests differs between the experimental and control groups.

\(^{12}\) So-called ceiling effect was observed in the ratings of five statements (i.e., Q7 “I want to speak English with American-like pronunciation”, Q15 “It is fashionable to speak English with American-like pronunciation”, Q21 “I want to listen to various ways of speaking English besides American English”, Q22 “By learning English, I’ve become more interested in native English speakers’ way of living and thinking”, and Q25 “English enables us to communicate not only with native but also non-native English speakers”). In the case of these statements, a phenomenon in which the majority of the data were biased toward the maximum rating scale. The sum of the mean score and its standard deviation exceeded the maximum rating scale of 5.
The third questionnaire aimed at examining the strength of negative effects that exposure to WE might cause to language learning. The questionnaire survey to teachers, whose main findings were presented in Section 3, revealed that some teachers were worried about detrimental effects of the exposure to WE. A total of 22 question items concerning such worries were developed on the basis of the teachers’ comments. The participants were asked to evaluate those statements e.g., “I got confused by listening to unfamiliar pronunciation” on a scale of 1 to 5 representing 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (neither disagree nor agree), 4 (agree), and 5 (strongly agree). The test items were rank ordered according to the mean scores of the participants’ ratings. The higher ranking or higher mean scores suggested the greater possibility of the influence. The data collected from this questionnaire provided empirical support that teachers’ anxieties were not necessarily justified and that detrimental effects of exposure to WE were minimal, or if any. The imagined influences, such as Q17: “I became more careless about pronunciation”, Q18 “I became more careless about grammar”, and Q15 “I was puzzled about which pronunciation to make a model of”, were the influences which the participants reported they were the least aware of.

4.2 Exposure to Japanese, Indian and Filipino English Accents

My second intervention study was conducted to test the hypothesis: exposure to WE would enhance students’ self-confidence in speaking English (Kawashima 2013). As shown in Table 5 presented earlier, the study consisted of two projects with the same research design but with a different treatment. In consideration of potential future application to ELT, the instruction in the classroom was kept as intact as possible. WE was introduced as model readings because reading aloud textbooks was a common classroom activity for the student participants. Two kinds of experimental treatment were prepared: one was model readings by Japanese speakers of English (Treatment 1) and the other was model readings by Indian and Filipino speakers of English (Treatment 2), in addition to the model readings by American English speakers. All the participants received both kinds of treatment in the 12-week-long study, and the only difference between the experimental and control groups was the order in which they were exposed to respective treatments13.

For the data analysis, three questionnaires were administered as pre- and post-tests. The participants’ overall perception of Japanese English showed a change after listening to model readings by Japanese speakers of English. They became more interested in practicing speaking English or listening to English than before. Moreover, the participants who listened to model readings by Indian and Filipino speakers agreed more strongly to a statement that

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13 It was due to an ethical requirement that the control group was also asked to do the experimental tasks.
exposure to WE would lead listeners to think it all right for the Japanese to speak English with a Japanese accent. However, the number of test items whose ratings showed a marked difference was limited. This implied that the use of WE as model readings for read-aloud activity was not the best method of intervention.

4.3 Exposure to WE and Awareness Raising Talks

The findings of my second experiment suggested that although beneficial, the exposure to WE model readings in read-aloud activities was not strong enough to affect attitudinal/perceptual changes among students. For this reason, two brand-new interventions were adopted in my third experiment: recordings of 20 NNSE interview responses and 20 awareness raising talks about English accents by a Japanese teacher\textsuperscript{14}. In this study, the student participants filled in cloze passages or English transcripts with blanks while listening to the recorded interviews. The participants listened to a recording of a different NNSE’s interview\textsuperscript{15} in each class. In addition, as an awareness-raising activity, the current sociolinguistic situation of the world and research findings of accent-related studies were introduced. For example, the student participants learned about the Critical Period Hypothesis and the finding by Thompson (1991) that immigrants arriving in the USA before the age of ten acquired more native-like English accents than those who came later.\textsuperscript{16} This kind of topic was included to help to raise the participants’ awareness to perceive their own English accents more objectively.

A major finding of my third experiment was that the exposure to WE and the awareness-raising talks contributed to enhancing the participants’ self-confidence in speaking English. More than 70% of the participants responded in the questionnaire that they felt more self-confident in speaking English after listening to NNSEs’ interviews. The analysis of the participants’ comments at Weeks 2, 4, and 6 suggested a possibility of a growing recognition that English is really spoken around the world. This helped the participants to realize their rather narrow views of English language. Moreover, the participants became more aware that

\textsuperscript{14} The idea of exposing students to 20 different WE stemmed from the Bandura’s (1977) argument that diversified modelling is superior to exposure to the same performances by a single model. In addition, Yashiro’s (1988) claim that socio-linguistic knowledge is important along with the exposure to WE encouraged me to adopt awareness-raising talks as another kind of treatment.

\textsuperscript{15} Some recordings were adopted from Yoneoka and Arimoto (2000) and Nakatani (2004), and others were interviews with secondary school English teachers recorded by myself during an overseas teacher-training program.

\textsuperscript{16} Other topics covered in the talks included ratio of Americans who do not speak English at home, Kachru’s three concentric model, and intelligibility of WE.
NNSEs could make themselves fully understood in English wherever they are in the world, and their raised awareness seemed to have led to the realization that they could be successful English speakers too. The second finding was that the participants developed a greater interest in the English language. Some participants expressed a renewed interest in speaking English or knowing more about English language. The participants’ comments included, “It was fun to learn that once countries change, English pronunciation differs so markedly”, “I want to become able to speak English with various people in the future”, “I realized that there are still a lot more for me to learn”, and “I want to listen to English more and learn about its characteristics”. A deep awareness that not only Japanese but many other English learners and users in the world are speaking English with different accents seemed to have given the participants new motivation for learning and speaking English. In particular, topics about the indispensability of English such as “I thought English is an important language connecting the world”, and about the necessity to learn English like “As English can be used in any country, I felt I should learn English more seriously” emerged more strongly in the comments collected at Weeks 4 and 6.

To sum up, my three experimental studies presented a positive answer to my third research question: “Is exposure to WE beneficial to Japanese learners of English?” The result of the first experiment demonstrated that teachers’ concerns about exposure to WE turned out to be unfounded. The students who participated in the experiment reported that they did not become “more careless about pronunciation”. In the second experiment where the model readings by various English speakers were provided for reading aloud practice, the perception of the students toward Japanese English showed a positive change. However, there was room for further improvement in methodology to expose the students to WE. My third experiment was significant in that the findings indicated the efficiency of providing awareness-raising talks in parallel with exposure to WE. Finally, to note, these experimental lessons were conducted during regular lessons. Thus, we cannot exclude a possibility that the participants were affected by their teacher’s enthusiasm for teaching, and as a consequence, they might have provided answers which, they believed, would please their teacher.

5. Are Resources Available When Teachers Want to Introduce WE in the Classroom?

This section presents major findings of the surveys I conducted to reveal the range of English accents that students were exposed to in the classroom and to explore the possibility that they would be exposed to a wider range of English accents. In ordinary lessons given by JTEs, models of English speakers provided for students are limited in terms of variety. They are, most of the cases, assistant language teachers (ALTs) team-teaching with JTEs and audio CDs provided by textbook publishers.
The surveys into the number of ALTs were conducted twice in 1999 and 2008 (Kawashima 2000, 2009) and the publishers’ choices of English accents as a pedagogical model was investigated three times in 1999, 2006 and 2016 (Kawashima 2000, 2009, 2018). Kawashima (2009) reported on the changes in number of ALTs on the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program between 1987 and 2008. The study showed that not only the number of the ALTs from JET Program had risen but also they had become more diverse in nationality in twenty years. The number of ALTs increased from 813 in 1987 to 5,649 in 2003, and the countries from which ALTs were invited increased from five in 1987 to 27 countries in 2008. However, my survey revealed that Americans were still predominant (more than half of the ALTs) at any period of time, accounted for 60.0% in 2008, followed by Canadians (11.6%) and Britons (10.0%). ALTs from Australia and New Zealand comprised 5.8% and 4.5%, respectively. Though Ireland started sending ALTs in 1988 and South Africa in 1997, they were small in number. Although expanded geographically, the majority of ALTs were still from Inner Circle countries. Later in 2000, with three countries, namely, Jamaica, Singapore, and Israel\(^\text{17}\) as newcomers, ALTs from a wider range of countries began to arrive. However, this did not necessarily mean a greater exposure to WE for students in classrooms. In most of the cases, only one or two ALTs participated from each of the newly joined countries in 2008 with the exception of Jamaica, Singapore, Trinidad and Tobago, and India, each of which sent more than ten ALTs.

Next, to have a clearer picture of speaker models in the classroom, I conducted questionnaire surveys of all the textbook publishers that produced authorized textbooks for senior high school in 1999, 2006, and 2016. The questionnaire asked the total number as well as the nationality of the speakers used on each textbook’s audio-tape/CD. Furthermore, the questionnaire contained a few additional questions about the publishers’ employment policies and their opinions about exposing students to WE. Table 6 presents an overview of the samples in the three surveys. A total of 92.6% of authorized textbook titles in 1999, 92.4% in 2006, and 78.4% in 2016 were included in the analysis.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Publishers</th>
<th>Titles Published</th>
<th>Titles Sampled</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Speakers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999(^a)</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>92.6</td>
<td>1207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006(^b)</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>92.4</td>
<td>653</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\(^{17}\) There is a possibility that those ALTs from Outer and Expanding Circles were NSEs, however such record is not available.

My 1999 survey indicated that 89.1% of the speakers who were selected by high school textbook publishers in Japan were American English speakers. In order to ascertain whether the huge popularity of American English speakers with the publishers resulted from the availability of speakers in Japan, further analysis was performed. Table 7 compares the number of residents\textsuperscript{18} from Inner Circle countries in Japan in 1997 (Prime Minister’s Office 1999) and the number of speakers from Inner Circle countries on the audio-tapes in 1999. It shows that Americans accounted for 56.6% of the residents. This suggests that a predominance of American English speakers as a pedagogical model was not simply due to the number of American residents in Japan, but instead, it was attributed to the textbook publishers’ preference for American English (Kawashima 2000).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Countries</th>
<th>Residents from Inner Circle countries in Japan in 1997</th>
<th>Speakers on Audio-Tapes\textsuperscript{20}</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>US</td>
<td>56.6%</td>
<td>43,690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK</td>
<td>18.7%</td>
<td>14,438</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>8,841</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
<td>6,940</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New Zealand</td>
<td>3.1%</td>
<td>2,384</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>1.2%</td>
<td>927</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>77,220</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. * Total percentage is not 100 because some speakers on audio-tapes were NNSEs.

Table 8 below shows the transition of the ratio of speakers’ nationality used for SHS textbook audio CDs in Japan. The ratio of American English speakers fell sharply from 89.1% in 1999 to 66.2% in 2016. However, in response to the decrease in American English speakers,

\textsuperscript{18} Residents are those who have stayed in Japan for more than 90 days.

\textsuperscript{19} Strictly speaking, the residents’ and speakers’ geographical backgrounds do not necessarily guarantee that they are NSEs. However, no further information was available to this point.

\textsuperscript{20} The years when the recordings were made were unknown. However, the data were based on the audio-tapes that were in use at senior high schools in 1999.
popularity of Canadian English speakers grew rapidly among the textbook publishers. Therefore, if American and Canadian English speakers are grouped as North American English speakers, they remained by far the most popular at all times. As much as 92.2% of the speakers in 1999, 90.9% in 2006, and 85.4% in 2016 were from North America. On the other hand, NNSEs consisted 2.1% of the total speakers in 1999. The ratio of NNSEs slightly increased in the following two surveys as shown in Table 8.

Table 8 Composite of Speakers on Audio CDs for SHS Textbooks (%)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>American</th>
<th>Canadian</th>
<th>British</th>
<th>Australian/New Zealander</th>
<th>NNSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1999(^a) (N=1207)</td>
<td>89.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2006(^b) (N=653)</td>
<td>81.9</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2016(^c) (N=390)</td>
<td>66.2</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


However, this does not mean that the textbook publishers became more in favor of using NNSEs. The breakdown of the NNSEs (Table 9) demonstrates a drop in the number of publishers which employed NNSEs. In the survey conducted in 2016, a certain publisher used one Israeli speaker of English for 12 titles of textbooks. Apart from this speaker, only three Japanese speakers of English were used by two publishers. Moreover, all publishers but two responded “No” to a question about the feasibility of using NNSEs for their future textbooks. These findings suggested that attitudes of the textbook publishers had become less favorable toward recruiting NNSEs between 2006 and 2016. One plausible explanation for this would be the financial difficulties of the textbook publishers due to a steady decrease in the number of students. The findings of the longitudinal study implied that it has become even more difficult for the publishers to provide listening materials that represent the actual diversity of English accents in the world (Kawashima 2018).

Table 9 Nationalities of NNSEs\(^{21}\) on Audio CDs for SHS Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No. of Speakers</th>
<th>No. of Publishers</th>
<th>Nationalities (Number)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

\(^{21}\) I cannot deny a possibility that some English speakers such as Indian, Filipino, South African and Israeli speakers could be NSEs.
To conclude this section, I would like to answer RQ4: “Are resources available when teachers want to introduce WE in the classroom?” with a firm “No”. Despite the fact that ALTs have been invited from various countries in the past decades, they comprised only a tiny minority of ALTs in Japan. Moreover, the number of NNSEs on the listening materials for classroom use remained quite small. Therefore, under such circumstances, it is extremely difficult for teachers to find ready-made pedagogical materials which include WE as models.

6. How can We Control the Difficulty Levels of Listening to WE?

With a view to obtaining methodological insights in exposing learners to WE, I conducted two studies. One was a bibliographic survey about the effects of speech rate and familiarity with accents on intelligibility (Kawashima 2017), and the other was an experiment that aimed to measure a change or lack of change in intelligibility of Indian English when the recording was played at a 20% reduced speed (Kawashima 2019).

Kawashima (2017) examined 32 intelligibility studies where NNSEs participated as speakers or/listeners. The findings of the bibliographic survey can be summarized as follows: first, a reduced speech rate may not always contribute to higher intelligibility of NNSE speech for NNSE listeners. The effects of listening to a slowed speech occurred only with the interaction with the strength of accents (Matsuura, Chiba, Mahoney, and Rilling 2014), topics (Kelly 1991) and the duration of pauses (Sugai, Yamane and Kanzaki 2016). In addition, it was speculated that a speech rate may not influence intelligibility as strongly as accents. Munro and Derwing (2001) found that the contribution of the speech rate in explaining the variance in NNSE listeners’ comprehensibility or perceived intelligibility judgments was 7%, while accents contributed as much as 15%. As for the effects of familiarity, conflicting evidence existed. On one hand, some findings supported benefits of familiarity (e.g., Bent and Bradlow 2003; Bradlow and Bent 2008; Chen 2011; Kennedy and Trofimovich 2008; Lopez-Soto and Barrera-Pardo 2007; Major, Fitzmaurice, Bunta, and Balasubramanian 2002; Wang and van Heuvan 2007). On the other hand, other studies
reported on no or little benefit of familiarity (e.g., Burda, Overtake and Thompson 2005; Matsuura 2007; Matsuura and Chiba 2008; Munro, Derwing, and Morton 2006; Oda and Tajima 2010).

Kawashima (2017) also concluded that insufficiently controlled variables may have attributed to these inconsistent results. It was revealed in the literature that key attributes were measured in varied ways. Some studies (e.g., Bent and Bradlow 2003; Chen 2011; Kennedy and Trofimovich 2008) used transcriptions or cloze tests to measure “objective” intelligibility, and others (e.g., Matsuura and Chiba 2008; Munro and Derwing 2001; Oda and Tajima 2010) adopted a scalar rating to examine self-reported “subjective” intelligibility. Similarly, the definitions of familiarity varied from one study to another: for instance, familiarity with a speaker’s native language (Kennedy and Trofimovich 2008), familiarity with a specific speaker (Brodkey 1971), or familiarity with the topic (Gass and Varonis 1984). In addition, the ways to quantify the levels of familiarity were not established. As regards the measurement of a speech rate, some researchers included the duration of pauses (i.e., an articulation rate) and others did not (i.e., a speaking rate). Finally, there was a paucity of studies involving Japanese participants.

Based on the bibliographical survey (Kawashima 2017), my subsequent study thus attempted to explore effects of a reduced speech rate on the intelligibility of Indian English for Japanese university students (Kawashima 2019). The primary goal of my experiment was to corroborate the earlier finding by Matsuura et al (2014) that a reduced speech rate did not promote the intelligibility of Indian English to Japanese listeners. Two conversations between a Japanese businessman and an Indian interlocutor were played three times at the original speech rate, and at a 20% reduced rate nine weeks later. The student participants were asked to transcribe the same part of the speech and to answer the identical open-ended comprehension questions after an interval of nine weeks.22 A two-way analysis of variance was performed to compare the effects of the reduced speech rate on intelligibility. Though there was a concern about representativeness of the Indian speech, the results partially verified the accuracy of Matsuura et al’s (2014) finding. The transcription rate rose markedly when the dialogues were reproduced 20% slowly. However, the accuracy of responses to the comprehension questions did not vary significantly between the two speech rates (Kawashima 2019).

The findings of Kawashima (2017, 2019) given in this section are summarized as follows: factors likely to affect the intelligibility of WE, Indian English in particular, have not been

22 The students were given the same length of time to transcribe and answer the comprehension questions at both times irrespective of the speech rate in both Matsuura et al’s (2014) and Kawashima’s studies.
rigorously validated yet. Unfortunately, we need much more replication studies with Japanese participants to answer RQ5 “How can we control the difficulty levels of listening to WE?” A lowered speech rate and an enhanced familiarity may be contributing factors, but neither the earlier studies by various researchers nor my experiment provided solid evidence to substantiate the claim.

7. Conclusion

Introducing the main findings of my past research studies, I discussed the following five research questions:

RQ1: Are JTEs in favor of exposing students to WE?
RQ2: Are there differences in attitudes toward exposure to WE between JTEs and NETs?
RQ3: Is exposure to WE beneficial to Japanese learners of English?
RQ4: Are resources available when teachers want to introduce WE in the classroom?
RQ5: How can we control the difficulty levels of listening to WE?

In Section 3, JTEs’ and NETs’ attitudes toward exposure to WE were compared. It was indicated that nearly half of the JTEs are in favor of exposure to WE if students are in college (RQ1). It was also revealed that the NETs tended to support earlier exposure to WE, i.e., exposure to SHS students (RQ2). Almost two decades have passed now since my first survey, and the period overlaps the significant development of ELF research. It will be of great interest to examine impacts of WE and ELF research on teachers’ perceptions of and attitudes toward varieties of English accents with a replication study. This may be optimistic speculation, but increased discussions among WE and ELF researchers on the legitimacy of English varieties and the emphasis on indispensability of mutual efforts between a speaker and a listener to attain intelligibility may contribute to making JTEs more favorable toward earlier exposure to WE. To establish a close connection between research and practice, the examination of teachers’ perceptions and attitudes is indispensable.

Section 4 demonstrated the research findings observed with Japanese learners of English in the experimental lessons (RQ3). The participants’ overall perceptions toward Japanese English showed a positive change, and their interests in speaking and listening to English in general were enhanced. Moreover, the JTEs’ concerns that exposure to WE might slacken student efforts to study English pronunciation turned out to be unfounded. My third experiment indicated the efficiency of providing awareness-raising talks along with exposure to WE.

My subsequent studies (Section 5) assessed the availability of resources in the
classroom by examining the changes in the number and nationality of ALTs and speakers on audio-tapes/CDs produced for authorized senior high school textbooks. The results demonstrated that ALTs from the Outer and Expanding Circle countries were still a tiny minority and that it has become more difficult in recent years for ELT teachers to expect or the textbook publishers to provide NNSE listening materials than before (RQ4).

The final section (Section 6) addressed the issue of intelligibility of WE and examined the effects of a speech rate and familiarity (RQ5). To further explore methods of exposure to students, a better understanding of the factors that will facilitate intelligibility is crucial. The bibliographical survey revealed that the effects of an enhanced familiarity with English accents have not been definitely ascertained. In addition, the experiment in which Japanese students listened to Indian English did not produce conclusive results that would support positive effects of a slowed speech. The experiment also illustrated a question of how to quantify and control difficulty levels in listening to WE when speech samples are highly varied on both segmental and suprasegmental levels. It turned out to be extremely difficult without objective data for comparison.

In response to the new questions emerged in my recent research, I am now involved in studies to quantify difficulty levels of listening materials by using the intelligibility of North American English as baseline data. Simple listening test questions, which the test takers of the National Center Test for University Admission between 2010 and 2018 found easy to answer, will be reproduced with recordings by NNSEs. In this project, I will compare the intelligibility of the original recordings by North American speakers of English with the reproduced recordings by NNSEs. In addition, I am going to reexamine whether intelligibility of WE changes according to different speech rates. The pilot studies will be carried out at senior high schools and universities in late 2019.

All in all, my primary research interest is pedagogical applications of WE in ELT in order to empower Japanese learners of English. Their lack of confidence in speaking English has been discussed sporadically. It is reported that 53% of Japanese university students majoring in commercial science at one of the most prestigious private universities in Tokyo think that Japanese English is not intelligible (Abe 2013: 49). However, it can be argued that ELT teachers can encourage such Japanese students to grow as confident English communicators by showing NNSEs who can function successfully as communicators in English as role models. A similar line of argument has been presented in the field of ELF research, which, as Seidlehofer (2009: 241–2) puts it, provides us with “insights into how [ELF] speakers assert their multilingual identities and their joint ownership of the lingua franca they are using”. Matsumoto (2011: 98) also argues that ELF speakers can act as models for successful communication for students who will face ELF interactions in the future. The
insights that we gain from ELF research will act as powerful, positive stimuli for WE-based intervention studies similar to the ones I have conducted. Meanwhile, I hope that “the growing theoretical interest in the need for change to ELT in light of Global Englishes research” (Galloway 2017: xv–xvi) will be duly reflected in research at the practical level.

Acknowledgements
This article is an expanded version of a paper presented at the 2018 Second JACET ELF SIG Meeting at Chukyo University on December 8, 2018. I wish to acknowledge editors and anonymous reviewers for their detailed and helpful comments to the manuscript. This study was partially supported by JSPS KAKENHI Grant-in-Aid for Early-Career Scientists Grant Number JP18K12444.

References


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Part II

Short Reports on ELF-Related Events
Shorts Reports on Five ELF-Related Events in the Academic Year of 2018
(complied by Leah Gilner)

This section introduces the following five ELF-related events held in the academic year of 2018:

1. JACET ELF-SIG Special Talk by Dr Daisuke Kimura (Waseda University, Tokyo)
2. JACET ELF-SIG Poster Presentation at the 57th JACET International Convention (Tohoku Gakuin University, Sendai)
3. Research forum: ELFing Up the Classroom: Pedagogy and Materials (Aichi University, Toyohashi)
4. JACET ELF-SIG JSPS Grant Research Reports by Dr Ayako Suzuki, Dr Yoko Nogami, and Dr Tomoyuki Kawashima (Chukyo University, Nagoya)
5. Upcoming events

The reports were originally circulated through the English as a Lingua Franca Research Network (ELF ReN) member’s’ network.

1. JACET ELF Special Interest Group Special Talk by Dr Daisuke Kimura (20 July 2018)

The title of the talk given by Dr Kimura (Tokyo University) was “Towards cross-fertilization of English as a lingua franca and study abroad: Narrative case studies of Japanese students in Thailand”. As the title suggests, the talk reported findings from three case studies of Japanese exchange students in Thailand whose rationale for study abroad (SA) involved the learning of English. The study focused on the participants’ evolving social networks and communication practices in informal settings, mediated through available subject positions and varying degrees of investment in various groups and practices. Data was collected by means of interviews, publicly available accounts of SA experience, and (for two students) audiovisual recordings of natural interactions then analyzed from the perspective of individual networks of practice (Zappa-Hollman, 2007, 2015). Dr Kimura identified implications useful to the fields of ELF and SA in the context of contemporary globalization where multilingualism with ELF is emerging as an everyday state of affairs for many. These included opportunities to cultivate multilingual repertoires and to develop an ELF mindset.
2. JACET ELF-SIG Poster Presentation at the 57th JACET International Convention (28 – 30 August 2018)

The poster reproduced here was presented at the annual convention of the Japan Association of College English Teachers, thanks to the efforts ELF-SIG members Paul McBride and Miyuki Takino.

ELF (English as a Lingua Franca) SIG
Chair: MURATA, Kumio (Waseda University); Co-chair: HINO, Nobuyuki (Osaka University)
JACET SIG (2018) International Convention, Teikoku Gakuen University, 28 – 30 August
Poster prepared by Ms. M. McBride, Ph. D., and M. Takino

I. SIG-related Concepts

Rationale and Objectives
The JACET Special Interest Group (SIG) in English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) was established in April 2016 to build on the basis of research conducted by the ELF research group at Waseda University, and interested researchers and teachers throughout the world.

- The SIG is concerned with how ELF is used in research, ELF-related research, and associated pedagogical implications.
- The goal of the SIG is to contribute to the education of present and future English language teachers.

The SIG will present a talk and discussion to provide a better understanding of ELF and exploring ELF-related research in education in Japan.

Research Background
English is increasingly used worldwide as a lingua franca to connect people of different linguistic and cultural backgrounds. Developing English in this context, ELF researchers characterized:
- place ELF within a framework of multilingualism.
- question whether the English used by communities of native speakers is the only "correct" English.
- conduct ELF research focusing on the relevant English that is necessary for effective communication.
- focus on ELF contexts, appropriate use of language rather than the exclusive use of native forms.

The SIG will present a talk and discussion to provide a better understanding of ELF and exploring ELF-related research in education in Japan.

II. SIG-related Activities

1. JACET ELF-SIG Special Talk by Prof. Hino, H. (Osaka University)
Waseda University, 11 Mar. 2018

2. JACET ELF-SIG Special Talk by Dr. Higume, D. (University of Tokyo)
Tokyo, 20 Jul. 2018


On the Use of a Membership Classification Device in ELF Contexts
29 Aug. Dr. Tokushima, S. (Keio University)

III. Research Activities

1. Waseda International Workshops at Waseda University

6th Workshop: Focus on written ELF for academic and business purposes
12-13 Nov 2016
Invited Speakers: Prof. Ueno, Y. (Chuo University) & Prof. Tanimura, M. (Waseda University)
Panel: Workshop reflection by ELF SIG members

2. ELF SIG Members’ Selected Publications and On-going Research

a. Doctoral Theses/Dissertations

b. On-going ELF-related Research Funded by Kakenhi

- Grants-in-Aid for Scientific Research
- Special Program

C. ELF-related Publications

ELF SIG News (2017), JACET SIG, 1st Edition, Volume 1, 3, Available at:

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3. Forum of the Institute for Research in Humanities and Social Sciences, Aichi University project “ELFing Up the Classroom: Pedagogy and Materials” (27 October 2018)

This event was organized under the supervision of project director, Prof Laura Kusaka (Aichi University). Dr Tomokazu Ishikawa, Associate Prof Paul McBride, and Dr James D’Angelo were invited to discuss issues related to ELT at Japanese universities.

Tomokazu Ishikawa (Tamagawa University) - *EFL and ELFing: Friends, foes or ‘frenemies’?*

Dr Ishikawa addressed some of the tensions that exist between standard language ideologies and multilingual linguistic realities, focusing on how Japanese universities students might benefit from developing and embracing multilingual identities. The presentation called for a multilingual (May 2014), transcultural (Baker 2015) and post-normative (Dewey 2012) turn in ELT, and sought to integrate ELF-aware pedagogy into EFL in terms of both classroom practice and students’ learning. The presenter used empirical data drawn from qualitative content analyses of students' surveys to illustrate possible benefits for students from ELF-aware activities in the classroom (i.e. ‘ELFing’) as well as the importance of their own intercultural experiences.

Paul McBride (Tamagawa University) - *Overcoming ideological inertia with ELF-aware teaching practices*

Paul McBride discussed how an ethos of corrective training in English-speaking Western TESOL (Holliday, 2005; Toh, 2016) may inhibit curriculum development. The discussion took a view of literacy as contextualized social practice (Barton, 2007) and not merely as the possession of technical skills within a framework of declarative knowledge (Blanton, 1998). The presentation outlined attempts to introduce learning experiences pertinent to lingua franca communication. The complementary relationship between critical awareness and ELF-awareness were emphasized and circumstances under which learners might locate, analyze, and critique examples of ELF in use were suggested.

James D’Angelo (Chukyo University) - *The World Englishes response to ELF: Too little, too late*
This presentation contextualized ELT within contemporary global English language use, drawing on evolving trends in theoretical frameworks. The World Englishes (WE) paradigm was introduced and described as demonstrating the necessity of increasing learner exposure to new indigenized varieties of English, in light of the Braj Kachru’s ‘6 myths’ of native-speakerist perspectives. The pedagogical relevance of the intelligibility of English varieties was also addressed and questions regarding how the Expanding Circle practitioners can apply insights gained from post-colonial contexts were raised. This presentation sought to clarify these points and introduced a recent effort by WE scholars to incorporate the linguacultural realities of Expanding Circle scenarios in evolutionary models, namely, the Buschfeld-Kautzsch EIF Model.

4. Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) Research Reports
Aiko Suzuki (Tamagawa University): Study abroad programme for cultivating English teachers as global educators: Changing perceptions of English as a Lingua Franca

This presentation outlined a two-year JSPS project designed to explore student teachers’ perceptions of English and understandings of their future profession with particular interest in the developmental processes associated with training to become ‘global educators’. In the era of globalization, qualities and abilities that are required for English teachers in Japan have been changing. Higher proficiency in English along with communicative capabilities that allow for interaction with a variety of people are considered to be crucial for success of reforms proposed by the Ministry of Education. Universities that administer teacher training programmes are expected to produce teachers with such abilities. To meet this expectation, some universities have chosen to integrate study abroad experiences into their training programmes. They assume that study abroad experiences would equip student teachers with good language skills as well as with competency to compete and cooperate with people from diverse and varied linguacultural backgrounds. In other words, these universities hope that students develop not only as English teachers but also as global educators through study abroad. As part of this investigative effort, data from student teachers' views and perceptions were collected through questionnaires and group interviews before, during, and after participating in study abroad. This presentation discussed preliminary findings of a sampling of all the data collected, focusing on student teachers’ changed and unchanged perceptions of English. One notable finding was that SA in English L1
countries such as the US seemed to reinforce native-speakerist perspectives brought from Japan.

Yoko Nogami (Kwansei Gakuin University): *Attitude change toward English language learning and negotiation of sense of self through study abroad*

This presentation described an investigation into L2 English users’ attitudes toward English language learning through study abroad experiences in three different contexts. Research on study abroad in ELF contexts has attracted more attention (e.g., Baker 2009) as English-medium (EMI) courses for local and international students continue to increase. Study abroad in an ELF environment has been found to encourage students to construct improved sense of self as an ELF user (Kalocsai 2009; Virkkula and Nikula 2010). The data for the present study was collected by means of personal interviews and diaries written by three Japanese participants during their time studying abroad in three destinations: US, Czech Republic and Costa Rica, respectively. At the latter two locations, students attended EMI courses. Each participant had different English learning histories and lived experiences regarding English language use. Their narratives revealed unique trajectories of changes in their attitude toward English language and their sense of self as an English learner and an ELF user as they went through various multilingual and multicultural experiences and self-reflections during study abroad. The findings indicate studying abroad in an ELF context does not necessarily provide students with better opportunities to develop positive sense of self as ELF users.

Tomoyuki Kawashima (Gunma University): *The research background of the development of teaching materials to improve listening comprehension of world Englishes*

This presentation discussed major findings that contributed to an ongoing project designed to develop instructional materials with which to enhance listening comprehension of world Englishes. The findings were discussed in terms of a) teachers’ attitudes toward exposing students to WE, b) students reaction to experimental lessons with WE, c) availability of materials for teaching WE, and d) intelligibility of non-native speaker English. Briefly explained: A questionnaire survey administered to teachers revealed that Japanese teachers of English were less in favor of exposing Japanese learners of English to WE than native English-speaking teachers.
Experimental lessons which were focused on listening to WE accompanied by English variety awareness raising provided evidence that exposure to WE and awareness raising enhanced students’ self-confidence in mastering English and encouraged more positive attitudes toward their own English. Three questionnaire surveys administered to high school textbook publishers indicated an overwhelming predominance of North American speakers. Literature review of intelligibility studies did not propose a consistent pedagogical approach to controlling difficulty levels in listening to WE. The research project describe is aimed at developing a method by which to quantify the difficulty levels in WE listening activities in light of these constraints and challenges.

5. **Upcoming events**

- **CELF Research & Faculty Development Workshop 1** at Tamagawa University (18 January 2019)
- **The 8th Waseda ELF International Workshop** at Waseda University (27-28 January 2019) – Details TBA
- **CELF Research & Faculty Development Workshop 2** at Tamagawa University (12 February 2019)