

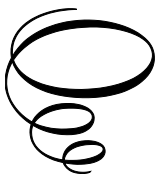
Pedagogical Approaches to Intercultural Competence Development

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Edited by

Christine E. Poteau

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PREFACE

With contributors in Brazil, Israel, Japan, Ukraine, and the United States (U.S.), this volume brings together researchers and educators across disciplines, language backgrounds, and nations. With a common goal of striving to enhance pedagogical approaches and expand intercultural competency skill development, each chapter exhibits critical matters across society and offers pedagogical strategies to improve learning with a lifelong impact. Each contributor presents issues that affect society as a whole — from the absence of cultural significances of indigenous law in U.S. legal education curricula and collaborating across nations to build multicultural law classes in Israel that seek to unravel tensions to addressing overlooked critical matters in teacher education programs and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) courses. This volume is intended to provide readers with diverse accounts of intercultural competency development with the objective of purposefully placing chapters in non-partitioned sections to engage readers in collaborative research and borderless pedagogies. The intersections of disciplines are key to developing experiential learning initiatives across fields and cooperative program building.

At the heart of the first two chapters is the need to globalize curricula and identify diverse pedagogical challenges in the development of intercultural competence. From Sakamoto's analysis of the obstacles (e.g., learner anxiety, language skills, educational systems, etc.) faced by university learners in EAP courses in Japan to Munin and Efron's identification of the instructional challenges in undergraduate International Business Negotiations comprised of diverse student populations in Israel, the contributors of the first two chapters uniquely weave experiential and collaborative learning to support critical thinking and intercultural competency skill development.

In "Fostering Intercultural Communicative Competence in an English for Academic Purposes Course," Sakamoto outlines the implementation of a Culture model in two EAP classes at a university in Japan consisting of 45 study participants. Sakamoto's Culture model encompasses diverse collaborative activities including (but not limited to) students' creation of a video on Japanese culture, researching international media portrayals of

Japan, and discussing student videos with international exchange students. Drawing upon a qualitative survey and interviews, Sakamoto reports on student responses to the Culture module implemented in the two classes and concludes with pedagogical recommendations to enhance students' learning experiences.

Munin and Efron outline their integration of challenging role-play simulations and collaborative pedagogies in their International Business Negotiations class in "International Business Negotiations in a Global World: Cultural Sensitivity Development in Multicultural Law Classes." As an undergraduate course at a law school in Israel with a multicultural student population, the authors note the potential for conflict within the classroom context due to political tensions and diverse emotional responses to controversial issues in the region. With a goal of enhancing intercultural competence development and addressing globalization in business and legal contexts, Munin and Efron open their classroom of 24 students to include unique pedagogical insights with 5 faculty participants from 3 countries (Canada, China, and Israel). As a truly unique course, each faculty participant shared with students their expertise in dispute resolution, business law, business negotiation and conflict resolution, and collaborative piano. Collectively, these experiential learning opportunities enabled students to apply theories presented by each faculty member across content areas to role-play simulations. Munin and Efron report on their implementation of collaborative pedagogies to strengthen collaborative and experiential learning endeavors and build culturally sensitive lawyers in a global world.

As learners' diverse cultural backgrounds and emotional responses play a critical role in Munin and Efron's multicultural classes, Chesnokova and Zyngier assert that learners' cultural differences must be examined with regard to learner responses to reading in a foreign language and the intercultural implications of unique learner interpretations. In "An Interdisciplinary and Empirical View of Literary Education: Using Original and Translated Poetry in the Classroom," Chesnokova and Zyngier report on their empirical study across 3 nations (Brazil, Ukraine, and the United States (U.S.) and 4 languages (English, Portuguese, Russian, and Ukrainian). Their chapter includes results from 995 university students' responses to poems by Edgar Allen Poe in the source text (ST) or in translation in the students' native languages. The authors outline key quantitative findings and note that cultural background plays a significant role on learners' reactions and understanding. In their chapter, Chesnokova

and Zyngier outline experiential learning approaches to develop learners' intercultural awareness via laboratory classes or workshops to promote collaboration, critical reflection, and intercultural competence development.

As Chesnokova and Zyngier note the importance of learners' cultural backgrounds as significant elements of learners' understanding of course content, Burr considers middle school content area teacher perspectives working across language learner backgrounds and proficiency levels. With minimal attention paid to these diverse challenges in teacher education programs, Burr's chapter, "Shared Experiences of Effective Core Content-Area Teachers With High English Learner Populations," outlines the critical need to address overlooked issues teachers face in their classrooms on a daily basis. Burr takes readers into middle school classrooms in Texas with high populations of English language learners (ELLs) and presents qualitative findings from open-ended interviews with 10 core content area teachers. The open-ended interviews included topics related to building relationships with ELLs in core content area classes, pedagogical strategies implemented to help ELLs, challenges faced in an educational system in urgent need of equitable pedagogies for all learners, and the persisting demand for teacher education programs that prepare educators for diverse challenges including those noted by the teachers in the study. Among the 10 teacher participants, 4 teach math, 3 teach science, and 3 teach social studies. Burr's study outlines methodologies and strategies each content area teacher integrates in effort to promote equitable learning and active engagement. With perspectives shared by each teacher, Burr's qualitative report includes unique insights on their perceived roles and instructional strategies in diverse classroom contexts to provide content area literacy and linguistic support.

From middle school content area classes to university EAP courses, academic literacy initiatives and linguistic support are critical components of building equitable pedagogies that promote intercultural competence development and facilitate learners' active engagement in society throughout life. Poteau's "Academic Literacy and Global Citizenship Development in English for Academic Purposes (EAP)" explores the proliferation of predatory publishing across the globe and the pedagogical need to expand EAP curricula to address research, intercultural, and linguistic skill development in an increasingly digitized world. Poteau's chapter provides a brief overview of this proliferation as well as examples of predatory publishers' websites with EAP practitioner developmental resources to expand core content and challenge learners to critically assess

current issues through research inquiries, contrastive analysis, critical reflections, and mock peer review strategies. Poteau's notion of building global citizens entails equipping learners with the necessary lifelong learning skills to equitably engage in all societal matters and collaboratively embark on working toward improving human conditions across the globe.

In addition to expanding curriculum in EAP courses, Riley identifies indigenous law as an overlooked area in legal education programs and the need to develop intercultural competency in legal contexts via addressing assumptions within the judicial system and incorporating content related to alternative methods of dispute resolution with examples from the indigenous restorative model. Riley's "Bridging the Gap: Understanding the Restorative Nature of Indigenous Legal Systems" provides an account of 3 case studies (e.g., Māori first law, Navajo peacemaking, and Hawaiian *ho'oponopono*) and the cultural significance of community healing in effort to challenge assumptions set forth in the conventional justice system and improve legal education programs. With a goal of expanding law school learning objectives and including courses in comparative law that incorporate indigenous and restorative justice examples, Riley explores ways in which law school curricula can build intercultural competency skills and critically examine the history and evolution of justice systems in order to improve the legal system as we know it.

Expanding core curriculum to enhance intercultural competency development is not limited to legal education programs. Roxanna Senyshyn's "Transformative Intercultural Learning: Research to Practice in Teacher Education" explores the need to expand teacher education programs using local resources to prepare preservice teachers for linguistically and culturally diverse student populations. Senyshyn's chapter outlines transformative intercultural learning and intercultural competence development and pertinent research surrounding these constructs. Her chapter provides pedagogical approaches to implement transformative intercultural learning to guide teacher educators and preservice teachers in program design that seeks to promote social justice and equitable practices.

As is evident, each contributor presents paths to explore new ways to improve human experiences through pedagogical practice that matters. Whether in middle school contexts or graduate studies, shaping the future global citizen starts with a pedagogy that resonates. Integrating diverse disciplines, considering unique pedagogies, and working across fields

enable faculty and researchers to more fully engage in connecting disciplines to community matters.

Christine E. Poteau

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Thank you to the contributors for sharing their unique research studies in this volume. Our common goal to enhance experiential learning and pedagogical approaches across nations, disciplines, and languages serves to open communication for a stronger global community.

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Thank you to my family for their support, especially my Mom. Her love and support carry me through life.

EDITOR'S NOTE

Each author/contributor is fully responsible for the contents of his/her chapter and opinions expressed in a particular chapter may not reflect those of the editor or each contributor.

CHAPTER ONE

FOSTERING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE IN AN ENGLISH FOR ACADEMIC PURPOSES COURSE

FERN SAKAMOTO

Abstract

Globalization is leading to an increasingly interconnected world and individuals today need to be able to relate and communicate effectively across complex and unpredictable cultural differences. As a result, teachers around the world face the challenge of equipping students for effective intercultural communication, and intercultural communicative competence (ICC) has become a central aim of foreign language (FL) education (Georgiou 2011). In Japan, government “global” initiatives and FL education policies advocate the integration of intercultural education into FL study (Bouchard 2017), but there is a lack of literature documenting concrete attempts at ICC-oriented FL education, and little information is available describing effective pedagogical approaches by which to facilitate ICC development in FL courses in Japan.

This chapter documents an action research study investigating an ICC-oriented pedagogy in a private Japanese university English course. The Intercultural Language Learning (IcLL) Framework suggested by Richards, Heather, Conway, Roskvist and Harvey (2011) was applied to develop an academic English course module that focused on developing learner ICC. Rather than “teaching culture,” the author/instructor focused on providing students (n=55) with opportunities designed to stimulate ICC development. Richards et al. (2011) identify five opportunity-types that benefit ICC growth: (1) making connections with known cultures, (2) comparing and contrasting cultural practices, (3) linking culture and language, (4) reflecting on one’s own culture through the eyes of others, and (5)

interacting in the target language across cultural boundaries. All five opportunity-types were incorporated into an eight-class module that was implemented as part of a compulsory academic English course for first-year English-language majors at a private university in Japan. Fifty-five students from two class groups undertook the module and were invited to complete a written self-evaluation survey upon completion. Forty-five of the students consented and submitted completed surveys. The participants were aged 18-19 and had mixed English-language proficiency levels. Seven of the students, selected to represent a range of language proficiencies and degrees of overseas experience, were also invited to participate in semi-structured interviews; five consented to take part. The resulting qualitative survey (n=45; 42 females, 3 males) and interview (n=5; 4 females, 1 male) data were analyzed to arrive at a picture of students' responses to the module. This chapter describes the module content and pedagogy and examines its efficacy in cultivating ICC in students.

Introduction

ICC in FL Education

There is a worldwide push for universities to produce globally competent graduates capable of effective communication in diverse intercultural interactions (Meng, Zhu and Cao 2018). A variety of labels have been applied to describe the competency involved (e.g., intercultural sensitivity, intercultural competence, global competence). Some researchers omit a FL element in their descriptions of competence for global communication, while others regard FL ability as key. The drive for globally competent graduates in universities worldwide certainly does not limit itself to FL education, but as Snow (2015) explains “the reality is that most students never take an academic course in intercultural communication” (285) and “the only substantial preparation for intercultural communication they ever receive is what they get in EFL/ESL courses” (285). Many scholars have long held language to be inseparable from culture, and with the increased frequency and complexity of intercultural interactions precipitated by globalization (Chen 2005; Kramsch and Thorne 2002), ICC has become an important part of FL education (Georgiou 2011).

ICC is described by Byram (1997) as the ability to communicate effectively across cultural boundaries in a foreign language. In addition to linguistic proficiency, Byram explains that ICC requires intercultural *knowledge*, *skills* and *attitudes*. A plethora of models characterize ICC in a wide variety of ways, but this three-part conceptualization is a popular approach

(Spitzberg and Changnon 2009). *Knowledge* is usually taken to include the possession of information and subsequent understanding related to one's own and other cultures; *skills* include language skills and abilities like adapting, collaborating, listening, conversing, and deferring judgement; and *attitudes* are generally related to openness, flexibility and willingness to engage.

ICC Pedagogies

ICC is not a static end-goal that can be taught or learned. UNESCO (2013) explains that ICC requires the ability to step outside your own logic and cultural idioms in order to really listen and engage with others. Philburn (2011) claims that ICC is “as much about participatory competence as it is about presentational competence” (429) and entails a collaborative element; one person alone can never be interculturally competent. The subjective and co-constructed nature of ICC defies the neat planning and evaluation inherent in an *instructivist* learning paradigm (Witte 2011). ICC is complex and dynamic, and as such can neither be taught nor learned in the traditional sense. This paints a daunting picture for the FL teacher, but some researchers claim that FL learning by its very nature encourages the development of ICC, touching as it does on the cultural context of speech acts (Witte 2011).

A learner-centered experiential approach is commonly endorsed in ICC education. With respect to ICC-oriented FL education, researchers have called for the provision of “opportunities... to engage with difference” (Bouchard 2017, 22), “opportunities for critical reflection” (Deardorff 2011b, 46), and “opportunities to engage with ideas, behaviors, and emotions... in ways which would not happen if [students were] left to their own devices” (Killick 2015, 153). Witte (2011) claims that “a rich experiential and constructionist learning environment” (103) is imperative to the development of ICC and Killick (2015) explains that it is up to the educator to create the situations that facilitate student experience as a mechanism for transformation. There is a tendency by some to regard overseas study as the pinnacle of all learning experiences and the golden ticket to ICC, but studies show that an overseas experience does not guarantee enhanced ICC (Garrett-Rucks 2016; Shaules 2007). Nor is an effective learning experience necessarily an enjoyable one. The process of ICC development can actually be quite discomforting (Killick 2015), as it involves challenging and reformulating one's worldview. ICC cannot be taught, but its development can be scaffolded and supported by the educator.

Education for ICC in Japan

The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science, and Technology (MEXT) has introduced several nationwide projects (Rose and McKinley 2018) and Courses of Study (Yoshida 2017) that emphasize the role of FL teaching in the development of globally competent graduates. Yet a gap between education policy and the classroom reality persists (Bouchard 2017). Despite the need for ICC education, “[foreign] language teaching in Japan increasingly focuses on the practical dimension of language skills that are to be objectively measured by standardized tests” (Kubota 2015, 71). Bouchard (2017) suggests that one reason for this is the failure of education policies to translate ICC-oriented FL education into “viable assessment components” (180). It is largely up to individual institutions or educators to interpret how to cultivate and measure ICC, which often results in FL educators who focus on the clear and measurable linguistic targets and avoid addressing other elements of ICC entirely (Yoshida 2017).

Japanese Learners

In order for a pedagogical approach to be effective, it must accommodate the specific needs of the learner group. The literature suggests a number of obstacles that need to be overcome for Japanese learners to develop ICC. These are briefly explicated as follows:

Inward-orientation. Much has been made in recent years of the “inward-orientation” displayed by Japanese youth. The number of Japanese students studying abroad peaked in 2004 and has been in almost continuous decline since (MEXT 2019), while surveys by Sanno University (2017) have shown a steady increase in the number of new employees who are unwilling to work abroad. In their 2017 survey, more than 60% of young workers indicated that they had no interest in working in any country other than Japan. Interest in overseas volunteer work is also waning (Burgess 2015).

English skills. Despite the immense importance placed on English in Japan, the majority of citizens do not achieve particularly high levels of communicative proficiency (Seargeant 2009). The insufficient English competence of Japanese learners has been reported in numerous official documents (Yamada 2015) and is frequently bemoaned by the Japanese press. The Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) problematizes the effect of English proficiency on ICC thus: “Due to the lack of sufficient ability, many Japanese are restricted

in their exchanges with foreigners” (MEXT 2003). Poor linguistic ability can make communication more difficult, but it impacts on ICC in other ways too. The constant negative reinforcement that learners in Japan experience can cause confidence problems and language anxiety, further hampering the development of ICC.

Anxiety. The Japanese have been shown to consistently exhibit higher levels of anxiety than other nationalities and research suggests that augmented levels of anxiety impede the development of ICC (Sakamoto 2018). Three main types of anxiety observed among Japanese populations include communication anxiety (McCroskey, Gudykunst and Nishida 1985), social anxiety (Brown 2004), and foreign language anxiety including a fear of making mistakes (Sim and Roger 2016). Anxiety in Japan has been found to stem from: (a) a cultural preference for reticence (Matsuoka 2008), (b) low sensation-seeking levels (Zuckerman 1979), (c) an education system that under-emphasizes output (McDowell and Yotsuyanagi 1996), and (d) FL pedagogies that focus on accuracy over communicative success (Sakamoto 2018).

Education system. The Japanese education system has been criticized for excessive learner passivity and an over-emphasis on correct answers (Aspinall 2013). Bouchard (2017) claims that “core pedagogical elements” for the development of ICC (e.g., critical cultural awareness) are still only “marginal realities” in the Japanese education system (xiv).

For effective ICC-oriented FL education, the above issues need to be considered and addressed. The IcLL framework was selected for this study as a possible means by which to facilitate ICC whilst accommodating the needs of learners in Japan. It was hypothesized that by providing opportunities for self-discovery, and de-emphasizing linguistic accuracy, the IcLL approach could reduce anxiety and awaken curiosity in learners to help them to broaden their perspectives. The model is explained in more detail in the next section.

IcLL Framework

Richards et al. (2011) propose a five-part framework outlining advantageous opportunity-types that FL teachers can provide for learners to develop ICC (see Table 1.1). Their framework was developed based on a review of extant literature in order to facilitate assessment of teaching practice. Teachers who incorporate more of the opportunities identified in the framework are deemed to be more skillful at developing students’ ICC. While the

framework was developed as an evaluative tool, it also provides “a starting point for teachers to reflect on their own classroom processes” and “may have application as an agent of change in language teacher education” (Richards et al. 2011, 249).

Table 1.1. Opportunity-Types in the IcLL (adapted from Richards et al. 2011)

Type	Details (Opportunities for learners to...)
1. Make connections	personalize learning and deepen understanding of their own environment
2. Compare and contrast	notice similarities and differences in cultures and make meaning
3. Link culture and language	explicitly connect and consider language and culture
4. Examine own culture(s)	deliberately reflect on their own culture(s) and try to see them through the eyes of others
5. Interact across boundaries	use the target FL to interact with culturally-different interlocutors

An opportunity-provision approach to ICC-oriented FL education holds many potential benefits for students. It is a good fit with active-learning, which has been shown to benefit all learning types, facilitate collaboration, and improve retention (Tyler 2003). It also reduces the risk of imposition of the teacher’s personal values onto students by encouraging students to formulate their own opinions. Providing opportunities for students to engage with materials and tasks in their own ways encourages meaningful personal discovery, and the IcLL approach focuses on using language rather than learning it, thus potentially de-emphasizing the correct/incorrect binary often present in FL education in Japan. Finally, by shifting attention off individual language proficiency and refocusing it on a communicative goal, implementing IcLL opportunities could help to reduce learner anxiety.

One challenge in adopting an IcLL approach that was perceived from the outset in this study was the possible incongruity of its student-centered approach with the more teacher-focused styles prevalent in Japanese high schools. First-year university students who have just emerged from the high school system may be disconcerted by the lack of overt instruction and

regard opportunities for self-discovery as unproductive, or perhaps even as irresponsible on the part of the teacher. However, despite this potential problem, it was predicted that applying the IcLL framework in designing and teaching a first-year university FL course would be an effective means by which to foster ICC.

Methodology

In this study, the author/instructor carried out an intervention designed to cultivate student ICC within a university academic English course. I sought simultaneously to develop student ICC, improve my own teaching practice, and contribute to the body of literature exploring pedagogical approaches to ICC in FL education. In Byram's (2011) "A Research Agenda for Intercultural Competence," three categories of desirable research related to intercultural competence are identified: explanation, understanding, and advocacy. This study falls within the third classification; first problematizing the integration of ICC into FL education, and then attempting to identify effective pedagogies by which to achieve such an integration. *Action research* is one of the most frequently-taken approaches in advocacy research (Byram 2011).

Action research has been described as "taking a self-reflective, critical and systematic approach to exploring your own teaching contexts" (Burns 2010, 2). It is both practical and research-oriented, seeking to better understand and to improve an aspect of teaching (Edwards and Burns 2016). Action research is typically conceptualized as a series of cycles (or phases), where one cycle involves the four steps of planning, action, observation, and reflection; and one cycle feeds into another (Edwards and Burns 2016). This chapter documents the first complete action research cycle (see Figure 1.1).

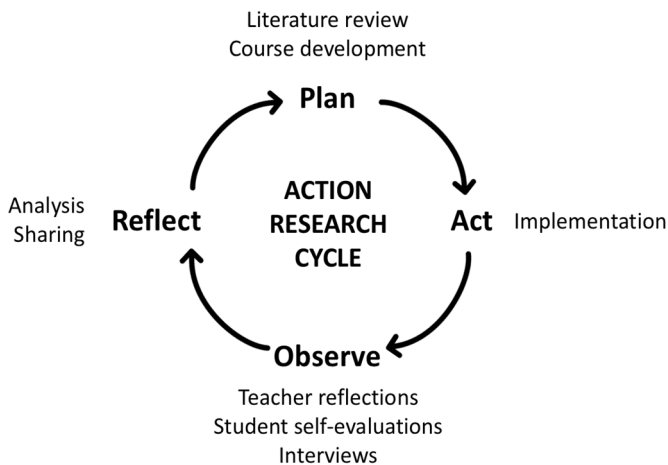


Figure 1.1. The Action Research Cycle.

The Module

The context of this study is a compulsory English for Academic Purposes (EAP) course for first-year English-language majors at a private university in Japan. The course was the second in a four-part year-long academic English program that aimed to prepare students for their future academic endeavors in English. Each of the four courses in the program comprised fifteen 90-minute class sessions taught over an eight-week academic quarter and contained two thematic modules. The second quarter course was chosen for this study as it contained a module titled “Culture” which provided an appropriate thematic basis for the development of ICC. Based on the IcLL framework proposed by Richards et al. (2011), the four-week (eight-class) Culture module was adapted to facilitate provision of the five desirable opportunity types. Table 1.2 outlines the primary activities that were incorporated and the opportunities that each provided to the students.

Table 1.2. Module Activities and Opportunities

Activity	Opportunity-type*
(a) Defining Culture: Examining visual representations of culture and devising own definitions.	1
(b) Brainstorming Other Perspectives: Imagining what people outside of Japan think about Japanese culture.	1, 4
(c) Examining Media: Investigating international media portrayals of Japan.	2, 3, 4
(d) Considering Subculture: Talking about subcultures in Japan; sharing ideas and following-up with individual research and writing.	1, 2, 4
(e) Discovering Other Perspectives: Reading, summarizing and discussing letters from expats and articles about Japan.	3, 4
(f) Explaining in English: Explaining common Japanese items, places and practices in English.	1, 3, 4
(g) Video Project: Creating videos introducing aspects of Japanese culture.	1, 2, 3, 4, 5
(h) Film Festival: Watching and discussing student videos with international exchange students.	2, 5

*See Table 1.1

Activities (a) to (f) were brief tasks that mostly took place in class to introduce students to the themes and language of the module and prepare them for the main project. The video project (g) was a collaborative project that students were engaged in both in and out of class throughout the four-week period. It was the most significant task (and primary assessment tool) of the module. Students were assigned to two to three-person teams and required to create a three to five-minute video introducing an aspect of Japanese culture. They were encouraged to be creative and thoughtful in their choice of topic, and to consider the interests and understanding of their

target audience: international exchange students recently arrived at the university. The video project provided the students with all five of the IcLL opportunity types (see Table 1.2) and will be the main focus of this study. The Culture module culminated in the Film Festival (h), where international exchange students watched and discussed the videos together with class members.

Participants

The Culture module was implemented with two class groups: one class of 26 students and another of 29 students (total = 55). All of the students were English-language majors enrolled in the Department of British and American Studies at a private university in Japan. Two students were in the second grade (having failed to pass the course in their first year) and the remainder were in their first year at the university. All students were Japanese nationals. Classes were not streamed by ability and students represented a wide variety of English-language proficiencies. Data were collected from 45 of the students (42 females, 3 males) aged 18 to 19 who consented to complete an online survey.

In addition to the survey, seven students were invited to take part in semi-structured interviews, of whom five consented. In selecting the seven students to invite, I aimed for a sample that included both male and female students and represented a range of different language proficiencies and overseas experience. The final interview group (n=5; 4 females, 1 male) contained first-year students from both of the two class groups, whose overseas experience ranged from four years living abroad to never having left Japan, and who represented a range of English proficiency levels.

Self-evaluation Survey

Students were asked to complete an online self-evaluation survey upon completion of the module. The focus of the survey was on the video project. I sought to gain insight into student perceptions of the project and the learning it had facilitated. The survey was written in English, but students were invited to respond in Japanese, English, or a combination of both. Holmes, Fay, Andrews and Attia (2013) explain that multilingual data collection can help to address power imbalances, facilitate deeper insight, and promote natural interaction. In the first academic quarter (prior to implementation of the Culture module), it became usual for students to communicate with the instructor, both verbally and in writing, in English.

As Japanese was the first language of participants, but English was their usual language for communication with the instructor, I decided that a flexible bilingual approach would best enable participants to respond comfortably and openly. In the survey, students were asked to comment freely on (a) how happy they were with their video; (b) what they thought they had learned through the project; (c) their teamwork and balance of effort; and (d) the final film festival event. Responses (n=45; 42 females, 3 males) were not anonymous, as comments related to team effort were considered in determining individual grades for the video task. Other comments did not affect students' grades and they were advised as such prior to completion of the survey. The data were analyzed using grounded theory over multiple rounds of content analysis to first identify key themes and then use those to code the data.

Semi-structured Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were used to further explore students' responses to the video project, and also to gain insight into the effectiveness of other activities (see Table 1.2) implemented throughout the module. Participation was voluntary and five students (four females, one male) agreed to be interviewed. Semi-structured interviews lasting between 20 and 40 minutes were conducted in the week following the festival event using a mixture of English and Japanese (see section 4.1). Interviews were voice-recorded and then transcribed before being analyzed using grounded theory content-based analysis.

Findings

Self-evaluation Survey

Content analysis revealed five types of learning that students thought the video project and film festival had facilitated: (1) understanding of Japanese culture, (2) technical skills, (3) wider perspective, (4) teamwork, and (5) language and communication skills (see Table 1.3 for examples of student comments).

Japanese culture. Learning related to Japanese culture was of both a factual and perceptual nature. Factual learning involved the acquisition of new information, and perceptual learning resulted in a more acute awareness of culture. Students commented that they had never really thought about what

their culture was before, or why they did the things that they did, and that the project had helped them to reflect on their own cultural backgrounds.

Technical skills. The video genre was new to most students, so there were many comments related to the development of video-making skills. Some students explained that initially they were doubtful about their own ability to complete the task, and that successfully creating a video was a challenging but rewarding experience.

Wider perspective. Students felt that both the video project and the film festival event had helped them to become more aware of differences in perspective. Comments suggested that the video project helped students to realize the existence of other perspectives, while the film festival allowed them to encounter specific examples of different understandings. One student described a situation that occurred at the film festival after watching a video introducing *purikura* machines (photo booths for creating and printing stickers). The video explained how to use the machines to whiten skin tone and enlarge the appearance of one's eyes. Some of the international exchange students questioned the desirability of doing so, causing the Japanese student to consider for the first time that people may have different conceptualizations of beauty.

Teamwork. The collaborative nature of the project caused a number of challenges for the students (e.g., coordinating schedules and balancing individual workloads). At the same time, students felt they had learned something from the process. For some, this was simply an increased awareness of the difficulties associated with collaborative work, while others were able to discover useful strategies to facilitate smoother group work.

Language & communication. The final student videos were all in English, and students identified benefits for their linguistic and communicative skills. These included specific improvements related to pronunciation and vocabulary, and also metalinguistic awareness of how to adapt and use language effectively for communication. Specific student comments referred to the need to tailor language-use to the target audience and the importance of paralinguistics such as speaking speed and intonation.

Illustrative student quotations related to each of the five learning types are provided in Table 1.3.