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SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

Series Editor: David Singleton, *Trinity College, Dublin, Ireland*

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Edited by
Zoltán Dörnyei and Ema Ushioda

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Chapter 7

International Posture and the Ideal L2 Self in the Japanese EFL Context

TOMOKO YASHIMA

Introduction

If you were asked to coach a high school baseball team of novices, what is the first thing you would do? Would you give a lecture on the history and rules of the game, or would you take the students to a stadium to watch a championship tournament? If students have an image of would-be great players responding to the cheers and roars of the audience imprinted in their minds, students are less likely to require much of an explanation for why they must undertake a hard daily training routine – e.g. running, muscle-building exercise, practice swings, and fielding practice – so long as they see these activities linked to what they want to be in the future, i.e. their ideal selves.

In the field of English education, nationwide efforts are being made to improve the level of English competency of Japanese learners in response to calls from the government, but often without a vision of where they lead learners to. It seems to me that increasing competency in English has become the ultimate goal. It may be useful to focus on the concept of ideal self to find an answer to the challenge we face in EFL contexts, of showing visions of a game English learners are playing and having them play the game well, or of motivating learners to study English when they do not perceive immediate need of it. In this framework, 'learning' implies becoming someone different from the present self, moving toward the ideal self.

'Learning an L2' is somewhat more complicated as it involves 'the adoption of new social and cultural behaviors and ways of being' (Williams, 1994: 77). Consequently, the efforts to create people with L2 competency inevitably involve the issue of social identity and the development of an L2 self. Language identity has traditionally been a concern of social psychological research on L2 learning and communication (e.g. Clément, 1986; Gardner & Lambert, 1972). Yet, the recent focus on L2 learning motivation as a self-system, instigated by Dörnyei and Csizér (2002) (See also Dörnyei, 2005, and this volume), provides us with a theoretical framework to deal with the issue of identity in a foreign language context. In this chapter, I will conceptually and empirically

discuss the possible and ideal L2 self in relation to 'international posture', the concept postulated for EFL contexts as an alternative to the Gardnerian concept of integrativeness. I will first introduce the concept of international posture, and then discuss how international posture conceptually links to the possible and ideal L2 self as well as motivation to learn and communicate in an L2. Next, an educational initiative creating an imagined international community will be introduced with a review of studies, to illustrate how possible L2 selves can mediate L2 learning and communication behaviours. Finally, I will report on my recent empirical investigations conducted to explore the construct of international posture and its relations with the ideal self, as well as to examine how international posture and the ideal self relate to the way learning is internalised. In doing this, I will use two different research perspectives (that are not usually combined): (1) the individual differences research tradition to capture the patterns of changes and relations observed among proficiency, international posture, L2 WTC, and other psychological constructs; and (2) a community of practice perspective to understand how L2 communication is developed. The second aspect is deemed necessary because communication and language learning are fundamentally social.

International Posture and its Relevance to EFL Contexts

Gardner's well-known construct, *integrativeness*, reflects a positive affective disposition toward the L2 community as well as a desire to interact and identify with its members. In his socioeducational model, integrativeness supports the individual's motivation to learn an L2, which in turn is responsible for achievement in the language (e.g. Gardner, 1985, 2001; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003).

While influenced by integrativeness, *international posture*, on the other hand, tries to capture a tendency to relate oneself to the international community rather than any specific L2 group, as a construct more pertinent to EFL contexts. As English gains power as a world language, it has become increasingly more difficult for Japanese EFL learners to identify a clear target group or culture. English is something that connects us to foreign countries, and people with whom we can communicate in English, including Asians and Africans.¹ Even though many Japanese learners wish to interact with native speakers of English, they are not particularly interested in identifying with them. Of the many reasons given for studying English, identification with Americans/British was among the least endorsed items in an earlier study of my own (Yashima, 2000).

Some other considerations were made in conceptualising international posture. To make a distinction between integrativeness and instrumentality

is not easy with a language of such huge ethnolinguistic vitality (Giles *et al.*, 1977) and cultural capital (Bourdieu, 1977) as English. It is not realistic to talk about integrativeness as an attitude toward learning English without being influenced by its utilitarian value. In my study on reasons to learn English conducted with Japanese EFL learners (Yashima, 2000), I found that the correlation between instrumental and integrative orientations was 0.60. The same study delineated a factor labelled 'intercultural friendship orientation', capturing the tendency to learn English to have interaction with different cultural groups. In a subsequent path analysis, intercultural friendship orientation together with instrumental orientation significantly predicted motivational intensity to learn English, which in turn led to higher proficiency (Yashima, 2000).

Openness to foreignness or non-ethnocentric attitudes, which, according to Gardner (2001) is part of integrativeness, has relevance to the psychology of EFL learners, as I assume English relates us to something foreign or to different cultures in general. These attitudes can be partly explained using a multi-faceted concept, 'intercultural competence' postulated by Gudykunst (1991) and Kim (1991), which includes cognitive, affective and behavioural characteristics of an individual, including openness to different perspectives, adaptability, empathy, tendency to approach people who are different and non-ethnocentric attitudes.

Yashima *et al.* (2004) acknowledged the dual goals of learning English prevalent among Japanese EFL learners. Some learners are concerned with their immediate goals, such as tests, grades, and academic achievement, and others seem to feel international-communication goals to be personally relevant. Although one can have both goals to a greater or a lesser degree, the focus of international posture is on the individual differences in the latter. It captures a tendency to see oneself as connected to the international community, have concerns for international affairs and possess a readiness to interact with people other than Japanese. It seizes both integrative and instrumental aspects of motivation. In Yashima *et al.* (2004), international posture was operationalised to include three subcomponents based on reviews of intercultural communication/social psychological research as I partly discussed above. The following are the three aspects with item examples. The rationales for choosing items are discussed in Yashima (2002).

- (1) Intergroup approach tendency *e.g.* *I wouldn't mind sharing an apartment or room with international students.*
- (2) Interest in international vocation and activities *e.g.* *I'd rather avoid the kind of work that sends me overseas frequently.*
- (3) Interest in foreign affairs *e.g.* *I often read and watch news about foreign countries.*

International Posture, Willingness to Communicate, and Possible L2 Selves

MacIntyre *et al.*'s (1998) willingness to communicate (WTC) model represents the complexity of communicating using a second language. It does not place communicative competence as a goal of learning an L2 per se, but rather positions it as a means to achieve a communicative goal. This model has since stimulated research in various learning contexts with different L1 groups (Baker & MacIntyre, 2003; Cao & Philp, 2006; Kang, 2005; Yashima, 2002; Yashima *et al.*, 2004) with the aim of identifying factors that influence willingness to communicate in an L2. Yashima (2002), hoping to explain Japanese learners' motivation and willingness to communicate in English, combined Gardner's motivational theory and MacIntyre's (1994) WTC model with the concept of international posture into a structural equation model (SEM) to be tested. The results revealed that international posture is a valid construct that relates to motivation to learn and willingness to communicate among Japanese university learners of English. The model shows that international posture affects learners' motivation, which leads to proficiency as well as self-confidence, which, in turn, accounts for L2 WTC. It confirmed that L2 WTC is not simply the result of increased proficiency. Yashima *et al.* (2004) confirmed with a younger population (high school students) that international posture leads to motivation and L2 WTC as well as frequency of self-initiated communication inside and outside the school context.

Drawing on the theory of possible L2 selves, Yashima *et al.* (2004) argued that those who are conscious of how they relate themselves to the world tend to be motivated to study and communicate in English as they probably visualise 'English using selves' clearly. According to Dörnyei and Csizér (2002), possible selves (based on Markus & Nurius's, 1986, work) 'provide a conceptual link between cognition and motivation' because one tries to narrow the gap between one's present self-perceived status and what one should ideally be (Dörnyei & Csizér, 2002: 454). Markus and Nurius (1986: 954) state that possible selves are 'the cognitive manifestation of enduring goals, aspirations, motives, fears, and threats'. They are cognized in concrete imagery or semantic representation in the same way as the here-and-now self. The question raised here is what types of possible selves are in operation in learners with higher international posture that function as incentives to study and/or communicate in English. Those students with a higher level of international posture might generate possible selves (maybe based on experience) speaking with international students, helping foreigners lost on the street, reading English language newspapers. Furthermore, beyond those relatively familiar images, they might envision their ideal

selves pursuing an international career, working in a foreign country, or conducting business negotiations in English. These ideal selves require proficiency in English as a necessary component and therefore function as incentives for L2 related actions.

On the other hand, Japanese students' ideal selves are typically formed without an L2 component. For a teenager who is striving to be a doctor and envisions herself treating a patient in a hospital, the ideal self is an incentive to make her study English as well as other subjects very hard because they are required for passing entrance examinations to competitive medical schools. For her, studying and getting a higher score in English tests generates an exchange value for her ideal self that does not necessarily require L2 competence. But developing international posture might help her produce possible selves attending international medical conferences or working in developing parts of the world, thus linking her achievement-focused possible selves to the L2 self. Based on what I found in my research with SEM, we could say that international posture is conducive to generating English-using possible selves giving rise to communication behaviours. International posture also stimulates one's English-studying possible selves (e.g. 'a high achiever who does well in English composition') that result in learning behaviours.

To imagine yourself communicating in English in the real world, it is natural that you also envision some kind of (often social) context in which you participate by using English. In this sense having a study abroad experience or other types of international/intercultural communication experiences make it easier for a person to situate her possible self in an English speaking environment. Often visions of using English are visions of participation in an English-speaking community. We could say international posture and visions of themselves using English reflect students' interest in participating in an 'imagined international community'. This concept is based on the notion of a community of practice developed by Lave and Wenger (1991) and Wenger (1998), and later adapted by Norton (2000, 2001) into her idea of imagined communities. For Wenger, imagination 'concerns the production of images of the self and images of the world that transcend engagement' (Wenger, 1998: 177), and it is a 'process of expanding our self by transcending our time and space creating new images of the world and ourselves' (Wenger, 1998: 176). To illustrate this, Wenger (and also Lantolf & Thorne, 2006) cites a story about two stonemasons: asked what they are doing, one stonemason responds 'I am cutting the stone in a perfectly square shape' while the other says 'I am building a cathedral'. When a learner is memorising an English dialogue, is she memorising the sentences accurately or is she conducting a conversation as a participant of an imagined community? In other words, is the English-studying self here and now linked to the

self participating in an L2 using community? Are the dual goals I mentioned above interconnected?

For ideal L2 selves to develop in an EFL context, where L2 communities do not visibly exist or are not readily accessible, we might need an educational initiative to help make an imagined community visible or create one for learners, in which learning new words and sentences can be linked to an imagined international community. In the next section I introduce studies conducted in a content-based English language teaching context representing such an attempt. I will discuss how international/global content can influence the development of international posture and the production of possible selves that mediate learners' interest in learning English and the L2 using ideal self.

An Imagined International Community and the L2 Possible Self

To explore how international posture, willingness to communicate and proficiency can be developed in different learning contexts, studies were conducted at a high school where content-based English teaching is carried out and where students are generally motivated to learn English (Yashima, 2007b; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, in press). The curriculum of the school is comprised of several thematic units that are covered over the three years. The Model United Nations (MUN) is one of the units students study in their third year, in which each student represents a country and does research so that she/he can discuss a topic (usually a human rights issue, e.g. child labour) from the country's perspective in English. Through cognitively and emotionally involving content, students are encouraged to form opinions and express themselves in English. They also prepare delegate speeches to make and collaboratively write drafts of resolutions to be discussed during the MUN sessions. All through the curriculum learners learn to use English to mediate their participation in 'an imagined international community', and the MUN is an occasion when the imagined community becomes visible and concrete (Yashima, 2007b).

In Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide's (in press) investigation comparing study abroad and 'at home' groups, questionnaires were administered to 165 students at the high school twice in their first and third years. The number included 16 (14 girls and two boys) students who participated in an academic year abroad in English speaking countries and came back to join the rest, as well as 149 (131 girls, 14 boys and four unknown) who stayed home and studied in Japan. The latter consisted of two groups of students who chose to enrol in programme options with slightly different focuses within the same theme based curriculum: Group A ($N = 62$) who take a substantially larger number of content-based classes, and Group B

($N = 84$) who take a smaller number of content-based classes together with grammar translation classes in preparation for entrance examinations to universities. There were small but significant differences in proficiency in favour of the study abroad group (SA) and Group A over Group B in their first year. During the next two and a half years, SA showed a larger gain than the two at home (AH) groups in proficiency (TOEFL scores), international posture, and frequency of communication. In proficiency, SA's mean score in their third year was significantly higher than both of the AH groups and the gap between SA and AH widened. Regarding international posture, SA's gain was larger than those of the AH groups, though it did not differ significantly from that of Group A students. All three groups communicated significantly more in their third year than in their first year. But the gap between the SA and AH groups widened in the amount of learner-initiated communication in the third year.^{2,3}

In a subsequent cluster analysis that delineated three distinct developmental profiles among the at home population, one of the clusters (Cluster 3: $N = 31$) displayed a profile similar to the study abroad group in the development of the three parameters. Another cluster (Cluster 1: $N = 43$) exhibited an equally large proficiency gain but not as great a gain in international posture or frequency of communication. Cluster 1 consisted of more than twice as many learners from Group B who selected the curriculum option that prepares them for entrance examinations than Cluster 3. On the other hand Cluster 3 was represented by twice as many learners who were more heavily immersed in the content-based curriculum.

Overall results can be summarised as follows: although the advantage of study abroad over staying home was clear not only in proficiency but in the development of international posture and willingness to communicate, the differential profiles between learners in A and B programme options indicated that a higher exposure to a content-based curriculum resulted in a higher level of international posture and willingness to communicate in L2.

If I explore the results theoretically from a community of practice perspective, students who most fully participated in the community of practice of global studies developed proficiency, international posture and grew to be more active communicators as they were enculturated into the community, learned to share the values and developed a behavioural tendency encouraged in the community. Probably, these students were engaged in daily practices that included memorising words for quizzes and doing homework as a way to approximate their current selves to ideal imagined selves. These students showed developmental profiles similar to students who participated in a year abroad in terms of proficiency, international posture and self-initiated amount of

communication. SA's gain can be accounted for by their participation in the actual L2 community, but AH's progress is a result of participation in an imagined community. It might be also possible that these learners envision English-using ideal selves as a representation of their career goals, while for others who were not equally involved in the activity, possible selves that represent the immediate goals of getting into university might have been more active.

In a descriptive questionnaire administered to a second cohort of both SA and AH students in their third year, qualitative analysis (open-coding) of students' comments on one of the questions (How have your attitudes/affect toward speaking English changed?) yielded five main categories. The first category is labelled 'English becoming natural part of life/self' exemplified by comments such as 'English comes out of my mouth naturally', 'I use English in my conversation with my friends without thinking so much about it'. The second category concerns the development of positive affect reflected in learners' comments such as 'I became less anxious in speaking English', 'I learned to enjoy speaking English'. Thirdly, learners learned to value the importance of communication in English as they know it allows them to communicate with varied people in the world. The fourth category was enhanced motivation. Having more chances to speak caused them to feel a desire to communicate well and feel a need to be fluent users of English. The fifth category shows that there were a handful of students for whom learning to communicate in English seemed more difficult than before. These results indicate that, as a whole, the meaning of 'speaking English' has become somewhat more personalised and realistic through the educational process.

In the MUN learners are given chances to form and express opinions from the perspective of the country they are representing, as well as negotiate genuinely to reach agreements that represent the country's interests to the maximum. From these kinds of realistic L2 experiences for language learners, they may well begin to visualise their future ideal L2 selves as linked to what they do in the here and now. Further, as Yashima (2007b) argued based on qualitative data analyses, engagement in global issues and doing research for the MUN makes what learners want to communicate clearer. (For example, some students learned about children killed in dangerous work and maintained that the resolution should include some clause addressing this issue.) This leads to a more intense desire to communicate. When they try to communicate for negotiation and collective knowledge creation, they strongly feel that they need to acquire accuracy and fluency in the L2 to make their voices clearer. Based on this, Yashima presented a model of a content-based approach (Yashima, 2007b) in which what we have to communicate based on our interest in and knowledge of the issue, our willingness to

communicate, and our means of communication (L2 proficiency) are viewed as interacting and developing together rather than separately.

A Bridge of Self Representations toward the Ideal Self

I have shown an empirical study in which international posture with English-using ideal selves can lead to higher proficiency and more frequent communication through educational efforts toward creating an imagined international community. But how do the ideal L2 self images mediate learning behaviours? A learner who envisions herself giving a presentation in an international conference also needs to learn vocabulary, learn to write grammatical sentences and practise pronunciation. According to Markus and Ruvolo (1989: 212), 'global possible selves enable the construction or retrieval of related but more focused task-relevant possible selves'. This may mean that to the extent that the ideal self image is clear, one also develops possible selves that are task relevant and instrumental (e.g. I memorise the list of words to get a high score in a quiz. I practise pronunciation and read the text aloud.) To connect these task-related possible selves to ideal communicating selves, imagination is called for, and this is where educational and teacher intervention, such as the MUN, is required. MUN participants' comments from last year show that, after completing the session schedules, they can clearly state what they need to improve (e.g. pronunciation, grammar, research and preparation, WTC) to contribute more to the decision making process.

Dörnyei (2005: 100) writes '[t]he more vivid and elaborate the possible self, the more motivationally effective it is expected to be'. For this, possible selves need to be 'something you can touch and feel, or you are afraid of' (Dörnyei, personal communication, December 7, 2005)**. He also writes:

The possible self needs to be associated with relevant procedural knowledge. A desired end-state will have an impact on behavior only if the individual can personalize it by *building a bridge of self-representations* between one's current self and the hoped for self. (Dörnyei, 2005: 117, emphasis added)

How is a self-representation that builds a bridge to the future L2-using self created and personalised? I believe, first of all, that the learner needs to have an embodied experience of using the language, or having the feeling of mediating one's thoughts or interpersonal relations using the language. Becoming involved in the collective decision making in the Model UN can give a feeling of using the language for some meaningful knowledge creation, which generates a representation of oneself using English and become the basis of a future possible self. In an open-ended questionnaire described earlier as part of Yashima and

Zenuk-Nishide's (in press) study, a student mentions, 'English has become a language just like Japanese for me', while another says 'English is easy as a school subject but very difficult to use as a language'. I got a sense that there was a critical moment in these students' learning experience when English, which had been just another subject to study at school to be tested and graded, had become 'a language' to be used for communication and I believe that the learners came to that realisation through an embodied experience.

Once a college student told me 'a native speaker is too remote a goal. I can never identify with them. But Japanese teachers are more accessible goals'. In this sense, a teacher and learners more advanced than oneself might offer personalised models of ideal selves. This point has been raised by other researchers (Cook, 1999; Murphey & Arao, 2001). Cook comments that we should establish 'a positive image of L2 users rather than seeing them as failed native speakers' (Cook, 1999: 185), while Murphey and Arao say L2 users are easier to identify with, suggesting the value of near peer role modelling in ELT, in which learners observe 'their peers succeeding in the task which carries information that they themselves also have the potential abilities' (Murphey & Arao, 2001: 2). Learners see in them their 'future selves' and become motivated about this potential. In the MUN I described earlier, third year students participated as delegates representing different nations in the MUN as part of the curriculum, and first and second year students also participated peripherally (but legitimately) as pagers whose responsibilities were to pass notes between delegates, secretaries and chairs. While they worked as pagers they witnessed the activity and might have seen in the third year students their immediate future selves. (In the MUN we find a number of scaffolding opportunities, including formulaic use of language, clear rules for floor-taking, and well-prepared drafts of resolutions (Yashima, 2007b), which could facilitate the development of the procedural knowledge of English using self-representations.) In this sense Japanese teachers' and classmates' roles in the classroom to present living images of English users are crucial. As Murphey and Arao (2001) show, 'near peer modelling' helps learners' beliefs and attitudes toward learning become more positive. This indicates that well-designed collaborative classroom activities utilising learners' zone of proximal development will help learners function as one another's future selves. When such immediate future selves are linked to an imagined community and an imagined ideal self or 'a desired end-state', they might become 'a bridge of self-representations'.

Figure 7.1 is drawn based on empirical studies I have conducted so far (Yashima, 2002, 2007a; Yashima *et al.*, 2004) and what I have discussed in this chapter. It indicates that international posture (including engagement in international issues), willingness to communicate resulting in

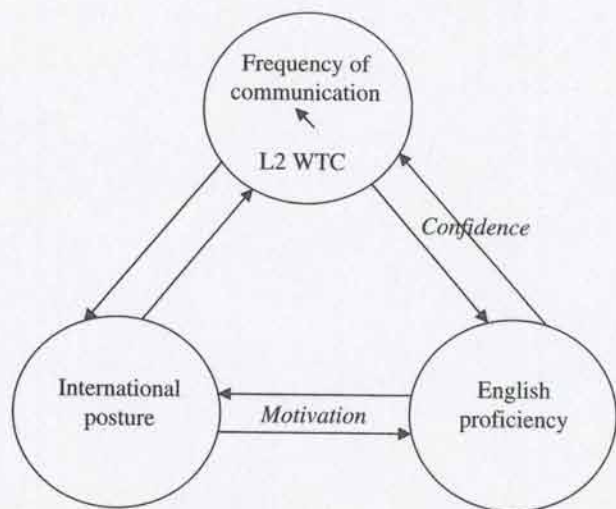


Figure 7.1 A schematic representation of the interaction between L2 WTC, international posture and English proficiency

frequency of communication, and English proficiency interact with each other and develop together in an EFL context. For this interaction or circulation to occur, new slightly more-advanced-than-current L2 self-representations should emerge and keep on emerging.

Exploring International Posture and the Ideal Self: Empirical Investigations

This final section reports on an empirical study I recently conducted to explore the constructs of international posture and the ideal self with two purposes: (1) to revise the construct of international posture and investigate its relations to the ideal L2 self as a social psychological construct, and (2) to investigate how international posture, WTC, and ideal self relate to the internalisation of learning into the self concept. In addition, I hope the report will partially confirm what I have discussed in relation to Figure 7.1 above.

Theoretical rationale

The international posture scales were originally designed to capture multi-dimensions under the broad attitudinal category as discussed earlier in this chapter. When international posture was applied to studies on content-based teaching (as well as an ongoing study with participants involved in international volunteer work), another important dimension arose as pertinent, that is, whether or not a person has things to say to an

(imagined) international community. Based on students' comments in interviews and questionnaires, it was found that unless one has something to say about a topic or opinions to express about an agenda, one does not have an urge to communicate. For possible selves to be concrete in a situation like the MUN, they also need semantic representations of what is to be stated. For this reason international posture was expanded to include the dimension of 'having things to communicate to the world'.

In addition, as I discussed in the previous section, the image of oneself exerting day to day effort in learning should be linked to the image of oneself communicating in an international arena. In order to see how these learning selves develop and relate to the ideal L2 communicating self, I also investigated the relations between those psychological constructs and intrinsic as well as extrinsic motivations (i.e. the hypothesised continuum of internalisation – see below) in the framework of self-determination theory (SDT) by Deci and Ryan (1985). According to Dörnyei (2005), the application of SDT to L2 learning by Noels (2003) has contributed to the theoretical development of the L2 self system (see also Noels, this volume).

In SDT, intrinsic motivation refers to doing something because it is inherently interesting or enjoyable. In addition, SDT proposes that there are varied types of extrinsic motivation, from externally controlled forms of motivation, i.e. external regulation, to types of motivation which are more internalised within the self. A partially internalised type of extrinsic motivation is introjected regulation, capturing self-induced pressure. Identified regulation, somewhat further internalised, refers to carrying out an activity because it is important to attaining a valued goal for the person, such as learning English to become an 'international lawyer'. Finally, integrated regulation is a state where regulation is integrated into one's self-concept, so that doing something has become almost a natural part of being oneself. An important claim of this theory is that, over time, an externally regulated activity may become more internally regulated to the extent that students feel that they have freely chosen to participate in the learning process, that their skills or competence are improving, and that they are supported in these activities by significant others. The continuum is hypothesised as subcategories within extrinsic motivation but external regulations do not necessarily transform into intrinsic motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1985). To clarify the conceptual relations among international posture, communication behaviour, and the ideal self, correlations were calculated among the scales designed to measure each of the constructs. In addition, relations between these and different types of motivation proposed in self-determination theory were explored.

Preparation of the scales

For the purpose of this study many scales used in previous research were adapted or updated. Regarding SDT scales, a preliminary study was conducted by translating the SDT scales adapted for L2 learning by Noels *et al.* (2000). A factor analysis of the Japanese version did not clearly represent the seven subscales hypothesised in SDT, so some items were replaced and others were rephrased to better fit the EFL context. The resulting SDT scales show clearer distinctions among subscales representing regulations and the expected simplex pattern⁴ relationships (Yashima, 2006). In addition, a shorter version of the WTC scale consisting of eight items was adapted from Ryan (this volume: 143), with three of the items changed to fit the Japanese EFL classroom situation. Frequency of communication items were also changed to reflect realistic learning situations in EFL contexts. For assessing the ideal self, I adopted a scale of five items from Ryan (this volume: 143) that assesses the extent to which a learner identifies with the future self using the L2.

To update the international posture scale, first, two extra items were added to the *international interest* subsection, in order to make a more stable total of four as Dörnyei (2003) suggests. For the reason discussed above, a subcategory 'Having things to communicate to the world' with four items was also tentatively added to the scale in this study. Some of the revised measures with new items used in this study are shown with Cronbach alphas in Appendix A).

The study

Participants in this study were 191 students (156 girls and 31 boys, four unreported) at the same high school in which the study discussed earlier was conducted. A questionnaire including measures of international posture, L2 WTC, frequency of communication, ideal self, and SDT scales was administered in February, 2007.

Figure 7.2 shows the result of a confirmatory factor analysis of the four subscales of international posture and its hypothetical conceptual relationship with the ideal self. The four subscales represent different manifestations of international posture that are broadly classified into (1) attitudinal/behavioural propensity and (2) knowledge orientation. The former includes a tendency to approach and interact with foreigners (openness to foreignness), interest in going abroad to work or participating in international activities, while the latter reflects interest in foreign affairs and international news, and having opinions on international matters. Table 7.1 shows correlation coefficients calculated between international posture, WTC, frequency of communication and different types of motivation based on SDT. Also shown are correlations between the ideal self and SDT regulations, international posture, WTC and

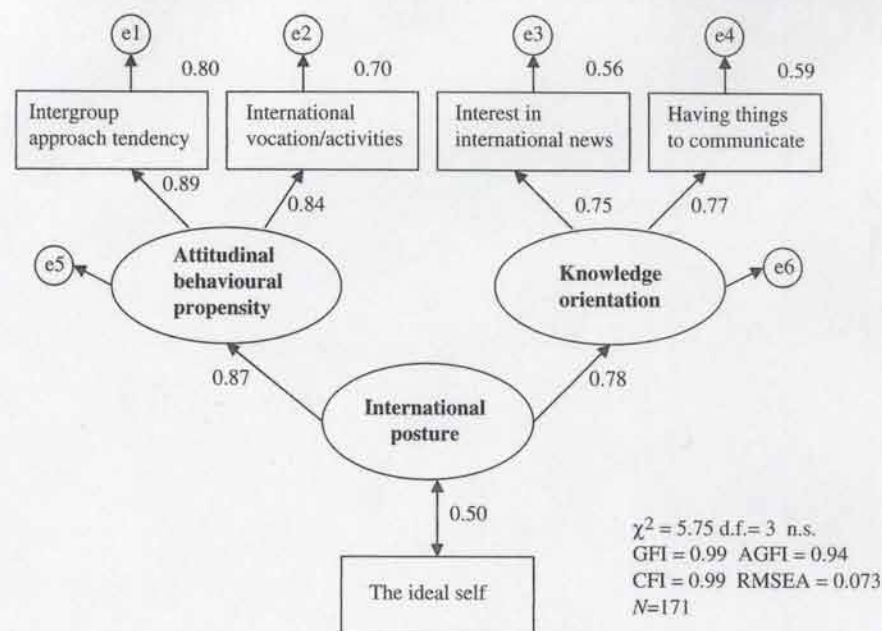


Figure 7.2 A confirmatory factor analysis of four subscales of international posture and its hypothesised relationship with the ideal self

frequency of communication.⁵ The results of the correlational analyses show that the types of extrinsic motivation with a higher level of self-determination (identified and integrated regulations) correlate most strongly with international posture, L2 WTC, and frequency of communication as well as with the ideal self.

Intrinsic motivation does not correlate with these variables as strongly as the two types of extrinsic motivation. Since international posture theoretically and operationally captures both integrativeness and instrumentality, it is quite reasonable that it reflects self-determined types of extrinsic motivation more than genuinely intrinsic motivation. As I discussed before, international posture reflects the possible selves of a future English-using participant in an international community. Thus, the strongest relation to identified regulation in the continuum seems reasonable. In addition, the correlation between ideal self and integrated regulation indicates the following: as internalisation of learning progresses, the tendency to visualise an ideal L2 self intensifies and the current self gradually approximates toward the ideal self. When learning an L2 is integrated as a natural part of the person's self concept, learning and using an L2 has become a habitual activity. Those who show a higher level of international posture and frequency of communication

Table 7.1 Correlations between international posture, L2 WTC, frequency of communication in L2 with motivational regulations in SDT as well as ideal self

	Amotivation (0.76)	Extrinsic motivation				Integrated (0.68)	Intrinsic motivation (0.64)	Ideal self
		External (0.58)	Introjected (0.76)	Identified (0.82)				
Cronbach's α								
International posture ($\alpha = 0.90$)	-0.40**	-0.23**	0.06	0.49**	0.47**	0.40**	0.43**	
WTC ($\alpha = 0.86$)	-0.24**	-0.13	0.10	0.29**	0.35**	0.28**	0.25**	
Frequency of communi- cation ($\alpha = 0.85$)	-0.19**	-0.03	0.11	0.41**	0.41**	0.28**	0.33**	
Ideal self ($\alpha = 0.79$)	-0.35**	-0.11	0.14	0.47**	0.48**	0.44**		

* $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$. $N = 191$

tend to endorse the vision of ideal selves more strongly. These findings lend partial support to what I discussed in relation to Figure 7.1 – that is, the hypothesised link between international posture, willingness to communicate, and proficiency mediated by English-using self concepts.

Conclusion

In this chapter, I have discussed the L2 self in relation to international posture and an imagined international community. I have illustrated an approach to education in EFL contexts in which students expand their self by creating new images of themselves linked to global concerns, and through the process find meaning in learning English while learning to use the language. Often in Japanese EFL learners' minds, studying English (e.g. memorising words, reading texts aloud) is unconnected to the ideal L2 self. An alternative approach shown here is to create a situation in which task-related possible selves are linked to the English using ideal self. For this, communication and learning take place for knowledge creation that itself is meaningful. Learners learn to think critically and form opinions while learning English. Recently from a sociocultural theoretical (Vygotskian) perspective, Lantolf and Thorne (2006) maintain that learning a second language gives us new tools to mediate our interaction with the world and with our own psychological functioning. From this perspective learning another language should help us to change the way we relate to the world as well as how we conceptualise ourselves. The visions of learners as ideal L2 users can be created through educational initiatives. For this, however, the content and themes that are dealt with are critical as they shape the ideal L2 selves that can be created. It is my hope that the content of English education will allow learners to take a global outlook, enhance critical thinking and enable multiple perspectives, because a fundamental goal of L2 learning is to empower learners to deal with an increasingly more complex globalising world.

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Notes

1. It is true that the Japanese public tend to associate English with westerners or whites rather than non westerners, as confirmed, for example, in Lee's (2007) critical review of the tendency of commercial language schools to preferentially hire western-looking teachers.
2. What is shown here is a summary of Yashima and Zenuk-Nishide (in press) that investigates contextual influence on changes in proficiency, attitudes, and communication behaviours. To compare the three groups (and four groups in

the second investigation with a cluster analysis) a mixed model repeated measures ANOVA (2×4) was performed for each of the four indicators, using time as within-subjects factor and group as the between subject factor. When the main effect of time-by-group interaction was significant, one-way ANOVA with Welch's adjustment was performed to compare the means between the groups at Time 1 and 2. Subsequently t-tests were performed to examine whether the amount of change was significant for each indicator in each group.

3. The students who participated in an academic year abroad had also enrolled in the A or B programme, but they were treated as one group in this study. 'At home' students also participated in a short homestay programme abroad.
4. According to Noels *et al.* (2000), the simplex pattern is hypothesised in SDT, which means that more self-determined types of motivation should be inversely related to those that are less self-determined
5. For each of the constructs the mean of the item scores was calculated for the analyses.

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Appendix A

Scales Used to Explore International Posture and WTC

*negatively-worded items

International Posture (an updated version)

Intergroup Approach-Avoidance tendency ($\alpha = 0.80$)

- 1) I want to make friends with international students studying in Japan.
- 2) *I try to avoid talking with foreigners if I can.
- 3) I would talk to an international student if there was one at school.
- 4) I wouldn't mind sharing an apartment or room with an international student.
- 5) I want to participate in a volunteer activity to help foreigners living in the surrounding community.
- 6) *I would feel somewhat uncomfortable if a foreigner moved in next door.

Interest in International Vocation or Activities ($\alpha = 0.79$)

- 1) *I would rather stay in my hometown.
- 2) I want to work in a foreign country.
- 3) I want to work in an international organisation such as the United Nations.
- 4) I'm interested in an international career.
- 5) *I don't think what's happening overseas has much to do with my daily life.
- 6) *I'd rather avoid the kind of work that sends me overseas frequently.

Interest in International News ($\alpha = 0.76$)

- 1) I often read and watch news about foreign countries.
- 2) I often talk about situations and events in foreign countries with my family and/or friends.
- 3) I have a strong interest in international affairs.
- 4) *I'm not much interested in overseas news.

Having Things to Communicate to the World ($\alpha = 0.78$)

- 1) I have thoughts that I want to share with people from other parts of the world.
- 2) I have issues to address with people in the world.
- 3) I have ideas about international issues, such as environmental issues and north-south issues.
- 4) *I have no clear opinions about international issues.

L2 WTC ($\alpha = 0.86$)

How much would you choose to communicate in each of the following situations in English?

- 1) When you have a chance to make a presentation in front of a large group?
- 2) When you find your acquaintance standing before you in a line?
- 3) When you have a group discussion in an English class?
- 4) When you have a chance to talk in a small group of strangers?
- 5) When you are given a chance to talk freely in an English class?
- 6) When you find your friend standing before you in a line?
- 7) When you have a chance to talk in front of the class in an English class?
- 8) When you have a discussion in a small group of friends?

Frequency of communication ($\alpha = 0.85$)

- 1) Did you volunteer to respond to or ask questions in English classes?
- 2) Did you talk to international students or teachers in English at school?
- 3) Did you try to talk during classroom activities such as pairwork?
- 4) Did you ask questions to your teachers in English outside class?
- 5) Did you talk with friends or acquaintances in English outside school?
- 6) Did you try to talk when you had a chance to speak English in English classes?