An Investigation into the Attitudes and Intentions of University Students in Japan Regarding Second-Language Learning On Social Networking Sites

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This thesis is dedicated to my parents,

for their unstinting support.

Declaration

This thesis has not been submitted in support of an application for another degree at this or any other university. It is the result of my own work and includes nothing that is the outcome of work done in collaboration except where specifically indicated. Many of the ideas in this thesis were the product of discussion with my supervisor Professor Judit Kormos.

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Abstract

Using a second language (L2) on social media could provide opportunities for incidental learning and contribute to increased L2 competence. Furthermore, online interactions could offer valuable opportunities for intercultural contact and exchanges, especially in non-English-dominant contexts.

This was a mixed-methods empirical study. A group of over 200 students at a Japanese university completed a questionnaire developed using Ajzen's (2015) theory of planned behaviour and the international posture construct (Yashima, 2009). International posture has previously been shown to be positively related to L2 willingness to communicate, a representation of behavioural intention frequently used in L2 research. The questionnaire assessed the participants' social media use and their intentions and attitudes concerning the use of English on social media sites. The students were then given several opportunities to use English outside the classroom in a variety of tasks on several social network platforms. The tasks attempted to mimic typical interactions that the participants experience during their use of social media.

At the end of the series of online tasks a number of participants were interviewed. The interviewees were selected so as to represent different profiles in terms of their answers to the questionnaire and participation in the tasks. These interviews provided a deeper insight into the reasons behind the formation of the attitudes and beliefs expressed in the questionnaire.

The quantitative dataset resulting from the questionnaire was analysed using structural equation modelling and the proposed model linking the theory of planned behaviour with international posture was supported. However, low levels of participation in the tasks and privacy concerns expressed during the interviews indicate some of the potential difficulties that may arise when attempting to utilise social media use for language learning purposes in this context.

Shaun Hoggard – March 2020

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1 Introduction

1.1 *Background to the Research*

As students at all levels of education spend more and more time online, the harnessing of that effort for productive purposes such as language learning becomes ever more important. This is particularly relevant for the proportion of that time spent using social media. The use of online social network services (SNSs) extends across a wide range of demographic and geographic groups. As of the third quarter of 2019 there were over 2.4 billion active monthly users of Facebook alone (Statista, 2019). Uptake and participation in SNSs by young people is particularly high, with nearly 90% of people in the 18-29 age group using online social networks in the United States in 2019 (Pew Research Centre, 2019). In addition to high levels of participation, the ubiquity of smartphone ownership among students in countries such as Japan has created a situation where their access to online content is practically constant. A 2018 report by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (MIC) in Japan indicated that over 82% of 13- to 19-year olds, rising to almost 95% of 20- to 29-year olds, accessed the internet via smartphones (MIC, 2018).

A notable characteristic seen in the development of the internet to this point has been the preponderance of English content. Although opinions differ over how to obtain an accurate measure, it is clear that no other language comes close to English's rate of dispersion on the web. One survey suggested that English was the language of over half of the websites on the internet, with no other single language accounting for more than seven per cent (W3Techs, 2019). Furthermore, English speakers account for the largest number of internet users, with over 1.1 billion of them being active online in April 2019 (Internet World Stats, 2019). It could therefore be proposed that for countries with low levels of linguistic diversity such as Japan, the internet represents a valuable access point for exposure to authentic English content.

The measurement of linguistic diversity shows how likely two speakers from the same country are to speak the same language (Greenberg, 1956). On this scale a score of zero indicates that everybody speaks the same language and a score of one indicates that no one does. Using this measurement Japan ranked 211 out of 232 countries listed with a score of 0.035 (Simons & Fennig, 2017). Japan was also reported to have only 74,000 people who spoke English as a first language (L1) out of a total population of 127 million (Simons & Fennig, 2017). Given the low percentage of the population that speaks English as an L1, a situation that is magnified outside of urban areas like Tokyo, the ease of access that most young people have to the internet could undoubtedly act as a gateway to authentic language input and interaction.

During my own tenure in Japan I have noticed a marked shift in the position of English language learning within Japan. When I first spent time in Japan in the mid-1990s English conversation schools appeared around every transport hub and in every neighbourhood. I personally was scouted on the street by people looking for English teachers on numerous occasions, even though I was just an exchange student at the time. In the past ten to fifteen years there has been a seeming decline in interest in learning English. The Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry recorded a drop in the number of English learners at private schools from 1.2 million in 2005 down to under half a million in 2013 (METI, n.d.) This drop is most notably demonstrated by the bankruptcy and closure of numerous English teaching chains (Aspinall, 2011). Although trends come and go in Japan, the apparent loss of interest in learning English is troubling. Indeed, part of the motivation behind this study lies in an interest to investigate the attitudes towards English learning in this context, and hopefully shed some light on the reasons behind this shift in popularity.

There has long been interest in exploring the link between use and learning in the field of SLA research. Long's Interaction Hypothesis (1985) suggested that the process of communicating, and the negotiation of

meaning that occurs within it, was a key element in second language (L2) development. The Pushed Output Hypothesis suggested by Swain (2005) focused on the necessity of learners actually producing the language. Later researchers noted how hypotheses involving output were also incorporated into the Interaction Hypothesis (Gass & Mackey, 2007). This theory then could be said to encompass all aspects of communication, "when learners encounter input, are involved in interaction, receive feedback and produce output" (Gass & Mackey, 2007, p.181). However, as the form and manner of online communication is constantly evolving, there is a continuing need for new research into how it can be most effectively incorporated into language teaching methodologies.

Although there is a long and wide-ranging history of research into the use of computers for language learning, much of it has been focused on the computer-assisted language learning (CALL) classroom (see Chapelle, 2009; Hegelheimer, Li, & Dursun, 2018). Despite the valuable contributions made by CALL focused research, advances in technology, and in particular the proliferation of online communication, has notably altered the role computers can play in language learning. Even when the topic of research has been online communication, the type of communication studied has often been limited to local area networks between agents who have an existing relationship. This has included research into student-teacher communication (e.g. Evans, 2014), and also student-student communication within the confines of an existing group (e.g. Mills, 2011). Recent research has, however, started to look at the use of computers and mobile devices outside the classroom.

One area that has seen some interesting research is that of online gaming. The effects of online gaming on L2 willingness to communicate (Reinders & Wattana, 2014), and on language skills (Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012), demonstrate the potential for extramural language learning online. Extramural language learning, or language learning in the wild, is an avenue of research that has clear links to the possibility of utilising SNSs for language learning purposes. As language learners using mobile devices

can access SNSs at almost any time or in anyplace it provides vast opportunities for self-directed or incidental learning.

Incidental learning and online informal language of English (OILE) are the areas of research most pertinent to this study. Recent research has investigated the type and frequency of online L2 behaviours (Kusyk, 2017), and the effects of teacher support on self-directed language learning (Lai, 2015; Lai, Li, & Wang, 2017). There has also been work done in the field of language learning specific SNSs, such as Livemocha and Duolingo (Lin, Warschauer, & Blake, 2016), in addition to the potential of regular SNSs for language learning (e.g., Mills, 2011; Mitchell, 2012). However, a common issue with most research in the area of online language learning is the constantly shifting landscape it is built upon.

Another area of research that is closely interlinked with language learning outside the classroom is that of mobile-assisted language learning (MALL). This extension of CALL research has grown in tandem with the type and number of mobile devices that can be utilised in both formal and non-formal educational settings. As these devices have become more powerful and widely distributed the potential for their utilisation for language learning has expanded greatly. With the ubiquity of smartphone ownership among certain demographics, and increasing accessibility of affordable high-speed connections to the web, the possibilities afforded for mobile devices' inclusion into education and for incidental learning through online communication will undoubtedly continue to grow.

1.2 *Significance of this Project*

Due to the considerable amount of time that students devote to communicating online, a question that should be of interest to second language acquisition (SLA) researchers is the degree to which this communication can be utilised to create and foster opportunities for language learning. In particular, given the amount of English content and the number of English speakers on the internet, I believe that it is an

underdeveloped resource for language education in places with low levels of linguistic diversity such as Japan.

As the proliferation of online social media is a recent phenomenon, there is relatively little research regarding the impact it may have on many aspects of life. My research seeks to address this gap in relation to its potential for L2 language learning. In particular it attempts to illuminate the possible utilization of SNSs for L2 learning in contexts where there are few opportunities for authentic L2 communication.

The theoretical background of this study is based upon the reasoned action approach to behavioural modelling. Specifically, I utilise the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) that was primarily developed by Ajzen (1985; 2015). There is a wealth of data created by over 30 years of research that points to the effectiveness of this theory for investigating the relationships between attitudes, normative beliefs, perceived behavioural control and intentions for goal-directed behaviours (Ajzen, 2011a). However, there has been comparatively little research into L2 learning behaviour using the TPB.

One area in which it has been incorporated into SLA research is for the L2 willingness to communicate construct, where willingness to communicate was contextualised as the intention to communicate in an L2. However, in the case of willingness to communicate this behavioural intention was integrated into a more extensive model, which attempted to describe the many factors that are at play during L2 use (MacIntyre, Dörnyei, Clément, & Noels, 1998). The model that was proposed by MacIntyre and his colleagues went beyond considering attitudes and beliefs regarding L2 communication, it also included wide-ranging and complex antecedents such as motivational propensities and personality.

This research takes a more focused approach than MacIntyre and his colleagues and concentrates on the attitudes and beliefs of language learners towards L2 use on SNSs. It also employs the international posture construct (Yashima, 2002). This attitudinal factor was developed specifically for the Japanese context as a substitute for integrativeness,

where it was assumed that L2 learners would have little or no regular contact with L1 English speakers.

The current study is novel in that it replaces willingness to communicate in the L2 with a more focused investigation of learner's attitudes towards online communication based upon the original theory of planned behaviour. It also represents an innovative combination of the TPB with the international posture construct. Furthermore, this study adds to the growing body of research in the area of online communication for L2 learning.

1.3 *Overview of this Project*

This project investigated the participants' beliefs and behaviour regarding the use of an L2 on SNSs. Three types of data collection were employed in order to triangulate the results. A questionnaire about attitudes and beliefs regarding L2 use on social media was administered to approximately 200 participants. The questionnaire data were then analysed using structural equation modelling to investigate the relationships between both the observed data collected from the questionnaires, and the unobserved latent variables of the TPB and international posture constructs. A series of optional online tasks that sought to replicate authentic SNS behaviours were then given to the participants and their activity recorded. Finally, several participants were interviewed about L2 use on SNSs, and their reasons for choosing whether or not to complete the online tasks. These interviews were carried out in order to delve deeper into the thoughts of the participants concerning the use of an L2 on SNSs.

1.4 *Organisation of this Thesis*

This thesis is a detailed report of a research project that investigated L2 usage on SNSs by university students in Japan. It begins with a

literature review of the key construct of the TPB, including its development, use to date in SLA research, and some of the criticisms that have been levelled at it. I then provide a brief overview of language learning in Japan and a description of the international posture construct that was developed with the Japanese linguistic context in mind. The literature review also covers, in a necessarily limited manner, the topic of technology in language learning, and how developments in technology have influenced and shaped the direction of research trends. Finally, I discuss some of the research that has been done regarding various types of social network service use.

In Chapter 3 I describe the methodology employed in a pilot study that was conducted as a first step in the process of preparing for the main data collection stage. Furthermore, I present the results obtained during this stage and discuss how they impacted the development and design of the research tools used in the main study. Chapter 4 then details the methods used in the study proper. This section describes the processes used in the collection and analysis of the questionnaire, interview, and SNS task data. It also highlights the instances where the methodology diverged from that employed during the pilot stage.

Chapter 5 is a presentation of the results produced during the main data collection phase of this project. The results of this mixed-methods study are divided into three sections: data from the questionnaire, data from the SNS tasks, and data from the interviews. Following on from the results is the discussion in Chapter 6. This is where the interaction of the themes explored in the literature review and the results detailed in Chapter 5 are discussed. In this section I give answers to the research questions posed in this study.

The final chapter of this thesis is a conclusion that seeks to tie all the threads of this project into a coherent strand. In this chapter I discuss the implications of the results derived from this study, its limitations, and suggest possible directions further research into the use of SNSs for L2 learning may take.

In this introduction I have shown the potential for using SNSs to facilitate L2 communication in the Japanese context. I also suggested the TPB as a suitable model for investigating this communication and in the next chapter I will explain why this model was chosen.

2 Human Behaviour, Technology, and Language Learning in Japan

In this section I will present a review of the theory of planned behaviour, its development as a model for human actions, and the types of behaviour that it has been applied to. Additionally, I will provide an overview of language learning research in Japan and review the international posture construct, as it is closely aligned to the context in which this study takes place. The next part of this review of the literature will be concerned with the topic of technology in language learning. I will give a summary of the technology acceptance model before going on to cover computer and mobile assisted language learning and the types of language learning in the wild that such technology can enable. Finally, I will provide an outline of previous research that has been carried out into the use of online social network services.

2.1 *Theory of Planned Behaviour*

To open this review of the literature I will focus on the primary theoretical model used in this research, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB). I will begin with an introduction of the theory and then continue to outline its background and development. Bandura's concept of self-efficacy is a key component of the TPB and that will be the next theme covered in this section. Finally, I will look at the use of the TPB in second language acquisition (SLA) research and discuss some of the criticisms that have been levelled at the theory.

2.1.1 *An Introduction to the Theory of Planned Behaviour*

The accounting for and prediction of human behaviour is one of the core areas of interest for social psychologists. The ability to analyse the psychological factors that contribute to a person's actions and to attempt to

predict how they will act in different behavioural contexts has great value for any research carried out in this field.

Innumerable theories have been put forward to describe the mental processes surrounding human behaviour and it would be impractical to attempt to catalogue them all here. However, one of the most widely investigated theoretical lines of research during the past 50 years is based upon the assumption that most goal-directed human behaviour is governed by reasoned action. That is, when humans undertake behaviours that are under their control "they take account of available information and implicitly or explicitly consider the implications of their actions" (Ajzen, 1985, p.12). The early theories based on reasoned action suggested that, assuming that the capability to carry out the behaviour is volitional in nature, "intention is viewed as the immediate determinant of overt behavior" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1976, p.580). However, as not all decisions to act are completely under volitional control, these initial theories of reasoned action needed to be expanded to account for the effects of behavioural control on the intention-behaviour relationship.

2.1.2 Background to the Theory of Planned Behaviour

The TPB developed from earlier work on models that posited a reasoned action approach to the study and prediction of human behaviours (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1970; 1974; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). These models operate on a cognitive understanding of attitudes. That is, beliefs are formed through cognitive processes, either consciously or subconsciously. Early works, including Fishbein (1967), used the expectancy-value model of subjective expected utility (Edwards, 1954) to describe how beliefs shape and influence attitudes and behaviour. The expectancy-value model assumes that attitudes are based on beliefs that are formed when we attach certain positive or negative attributes to the item in question, be it a material object or a type of behaviour (Ajzen & Cote, 2008). In this model, attitudes towards the item are a product of the subjective value of the attributes associated with it, and the strength of the belief that the object

or behaviour in question possesses those attributes. For example, we may associate a particular brand of car with luxury, and therefore view it as being desirable. In terms of the analysis of human behaviour, the attributes refer to beliefs about the action, and the strength of those beliefs is tempered by the subjective valuation of the likely outcome of that action. An example of a positive behavioural belief might be the connection of frequent exercise with a healthy lifestyle.

Models that suggested cognitive processes and expectancy-value calculations lay at the heart of the formation of attitudes regarding a behaviour eventually led to the development of the theory of reasoned action (TRA). Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) proposed that behavioural intention was a product of attitudes towards the behaviour in addition to subjective norms concerning the behaviour. Intentions are defined as capturing "the motivational factors that influence a behavior" (Ajzen, 1991, p.181). Attitudes towards the behaviour were themselves a product of salient beliefs regarding the behaviour, and the strength with which those beliefs are held to be positive or negative with regard to the possible outcomes of those behaviours: "the positive or negative valence of each outcome contributes to the overall attitude in direct proportion to the subjective probability that the behavior will produce the outcome in question" (Ajzen & Cote, 2008, p.302). Similarly, subjective norms result from normative beliefs about the behaviour, what important social referents such as friends or family think about an action and how closely the individual wants to align with those opinions. The degrees to which those beliefs affect behavioural intent are then a factor of the perceived social pressures involved in conforming, or not conforming to the beliefs, and the desire to comply with those pressures: "each accessible normative belief is assumed to contribute to subjective norm in direct proportion to the person's motivation to comply with the referent individual or group" (Ajzen & Cote, 2008, p.303).

Behaviours in this model are defined as "overt behaviors that are studied in their own right" (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975, p.13). As an illustration, let us consider the behavioural example of eating an apple every day. In the

context of the TRA, a belief about the behaviour might be that eating an apple every day would be good for our general health. The strength of that positive outcome belief may possibly be quite weak. Therefore, the attitude towards the behaviour could be described as moderately favourable. In the case that public health announcements, our doctor, and our parents all ascribed to the belief that eating apples regularly was a healthy choice, then we would almost certainly sense a societal pressure to perform that behaviour. If we felt a strong desire to be judged positively by others, then our subjective norm towards eating an apple daily would lean heavily towards engaging in that behaviour. However, even if we acknowledged a strong societal endorsement of following that course of action, if we were the type of person who actively rebelled against perceived pressure then we would have very little motivation to comply with those pressures. Within the TRA (see Figure 2.1), the two factors representing attitudes towards the behaviour and subjective norms concerning the behaviour interact to predict the intention to perform the behaviour that directly precedes the behaviour itself.
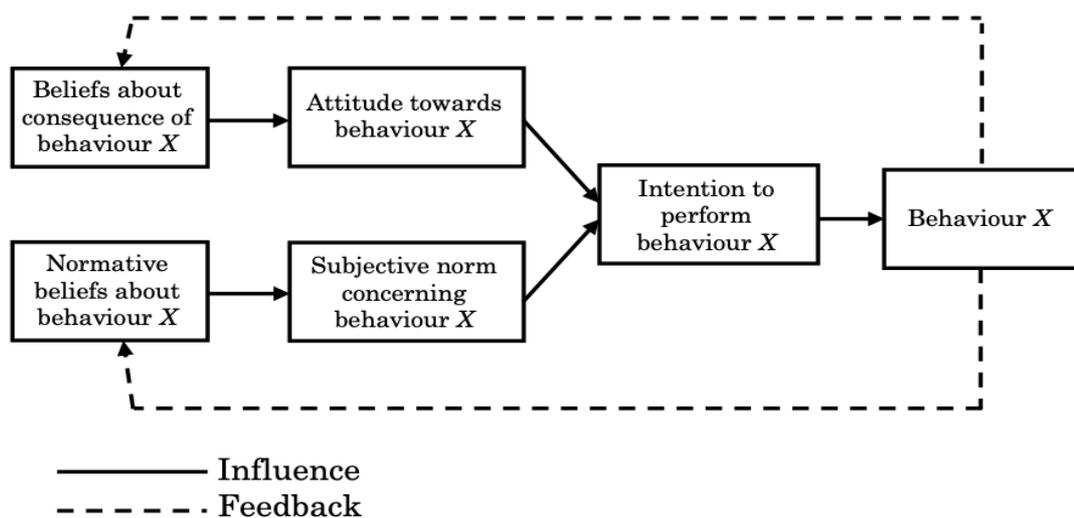
Figure 2.1 Schematic presentation of the conceptual framework of theory of reasoned action based on Fishbein and Ajzen (1975)

It is important to note here that the salient beliefs about the behaviour are those that are readily accessible and relevant to that specific behaviour. The TRA model does not assume that people take their time to consider, weigh up, and judge multiple possible outcomes for each action, "the theory recognizes that most behaviors in everyday life are performed without much cognitive effort" (Ajzen, 2012, p.451). Rather, it proposes that the human mind uses the beliefs at hand to evaluate the available options. Additionally, the salient beliefs that are held can be both positive and negative. It is the sum of the evaluations of these beliefs that leads to the formation of the attitudes towards the behaviour.

During the more than 40 years since this model was first proposed the TRA has been used to investigate many types of behaviour. Actions such as voting intentions (Jaccard, Knox, & Brinberg, 1979), the purchase of a soft drink (Bonfield, 1974), and withdrawing from work (Newman, 1974), have all been studied using the TRA model. However, the TRA has most frequently been used to study types of behaviour related to healthcare. Behaviours such as contraceptive use (Davidson & Morrison, 1983) and receiving a vaccination injection (Oliver & Berger, 1979) are representative of the many health related actions that have been investigated. In terms of learning behaviours, the TRA has been used effectively to predict adult learners' intentions to continue in education (Pryor, 1990; Becker & Gibson, 1998). The ability of a theoretical model to accurately predict these types of behaviours clearly has great value for professionals in those fields.

The strength of the link between behavioural intention and actual behaviour in the TRA was suggested to be dependent on three conditions (Madden, Ellen & Ajzen, 1992). These conditions are: the degree of specificity of the behaviour and the measure of behavioural intention, the stability of intentions between measurement and behaviour, and the level of volitional control the individual has over carrying out the behaviour (Madden et al, 1992, p.4).

In some investigations where behavioural intention did not demonstrate a strong association with observable behaviour, such as the

study by Vinokur-Kaplan (1978), the disconnect between intention and behaviour could be attributed to research design. As noted above, one of the conditions affecting the strength of the relationship between intention and behaviour is the stability of intentions from measurement to action. When there is a time gap between taking the measures for behavioural intention and the actual behaviour, there is the possibility for other factors to interfere and alter the underlying attitudes and subjective norms. In these cases, the measure of behavioural intention taken previously no longer accurately reflects the level of intention at the time of the actual behaviour.

Another factor that can affect the link between intention and behaviour is volition. Research, including that carried out by Newman (1974) into withdrawing from work, suggested that the absence of control regarding the behaviour in question could lead to a low level of predictive ability between the measured level of intention and the actual performance of the action. In Newman's study, the uncertain state of the economy was hypothesised as a possible reason for the low correlation between a worker's intention to quit their job and their actual behaviour. Newman suggested that the lack of control in regards to getting another job in the uncertain economic climate at that time acted as a limiting factor on the level of volition felt by the participants in the study.

A meta-analysis of the many studies carried out using the TRA model also highlighted the issues created by volition in the prediction of intention (Sheppard, Hartwick, & Warshaw, 1988). In cases where there is not complete control of the opportunity to complete the behaviour, or the person does not have ample confidence in their own ability to execute the action, a positive set of attitudes and subjective norms alone are not sufficient to predict behavioural intention. Looking at the behavioural example of eating an apple a day, opportunity issues could arise where there is not a stable supply of the produce. An example of an ability related issue could be a physical impediment to eating apples. In this situation, even if the person held a positive attitude towards eating apples on a daily basis, and was eager to comply with the encouraging attitudes of important referents

regarding the consumption of apples, the lack of availability of the fruit, or a physical inability to eat the fruit would adversely affect the level of intention to follow through with that course of action.

2.1.3 Development of the Theory of Planned Behaviour

Due to the inability of the TRA to accurately account for behaviour in cases where there was a lack of volitional control, and also due to the issues caused by control problems in the prediction of intentions themselves, it became clear that the model needed expanding. In proposing his adaptation of the TRA, Ajzen (1985) noted the various internal and external factors that could affect volitional control of a given behaviour. Internal factors could include issues concerning skills or abilities. They could also include matters involving questions of will or emotion, issues that would be relevant in considering behaviours prone to addiction. External factors encompass the previously stated importance of opportunity, when examining the link between attitudes and intention. Additionally, behaviours that require the cooperation of others are also liable to dependency issues.

In the period between the emergence of the TRA and Ajzen's proposal of the theory of planned behaviour, a number of other researchers had noted the TRA's problems in accounting for instances of behaviour lacking total volitional control, and attempted to alter the model accordingly. Warshaw and Davis (1985) sought to provide a broader and more inclusive model of human behaviour by introducing the behavioural expectation construct. They argued that in discussions of the TRA up to that point, behavioural intention and behavioural expectation had in fact "been confounded and used interchangeably under the 'intention' label" (Warshaw & Davis, 1985, p.2). In order to clearly delineate the difference between intention and expectation, they defined behavioural intention as "conscious plans to perform or not perform some specified future behavior" (Warshaw & Davis, 1985, p.3), and behavioural expectation as the "perceived likelihood that he or she actually will perform some future behavior" (Warshaw & Davis, 1985, p.4). Furthermore, Warshaw and Davis made a distinction between the

intention construct as a determinant of behaviour, as it had been used in previous research, and expectation "as a cognitive judgement made by the individual as he or she reflects upon the situation" (1985, p.5).

The distinctions that Warshaw and Davis made between intention and expectation, and their definition of intention as encompassing only consciously made plans, had far ranging implications for the TRA and their attempts to adapt it. Firstly, by defining intention as referring only to conscious reasoning, they seemingly limited its applicability to behaviours where deliberate consideration is employed before any action is taken. Secondly, the behavioural expectation construct they put forward was classified as a broader level concept intended to include additional factors such as habit and ability. Therefore, they posited, behavioural expectation would be a more successful predictor of human actions than behavioural intention. Indeed, their findings supported a greater correlation between their measurements for expectation than their measurements for intention and the human behaviours they investigated (Warshaw & Davis, 1985).

In light of the numerous factors that could potentially interrupt the relationships between attitudes, intention, and behaviour, and criticisms of the behavioural intention construct such as the ones outlined above, Ajzen refined his description of it. He now suggested that behavioural intention in the model "can best be interpreted as an intention to *try* [italics in original] performing a certain behavior" (Ajzen, 1985, p.29). Furthermore, due to the significant possibility of elements beyond the control of the individual interfering with the behavioural intention to behaviour link posited by the TRA, Ajzen believed that issues regarding self-efficacy needed to be incorporated into an expanded model of behaviour.

Ajzen (1985) built upon the ideas for an expanded behavioural model put forward by other researchers such as Warshaw and Davis (1985) to produce a model allowing for control issues, and also including behavioural expectation. This expanded model was called the theory of planned behaviour (TPB). In the schematic illustration included in this article (see Figure 2.2), the antecedents of behavioural intention (I_t) remain attitudes

towards the behaviour (A_t) and subjective norms regarding the behaviour (SN_t), as in the TRA. However, these items now all have the caveat that they are only describing *attempted* behaviour. Furthermore, behavioural expectation (BE) is added to the model at a parallel level with attempted behaviour (B_t). Importantly there is no path from behavioural expectation to actual behaviour (B). In keeping with Warshaw and Davis' (1985) distinction between intention and expectation, Ajzen asserts that, "unlike behavioral intentions, behavioral expectations may have no *causal* [italics in original] effect on actual behavior" (1985, p.34).
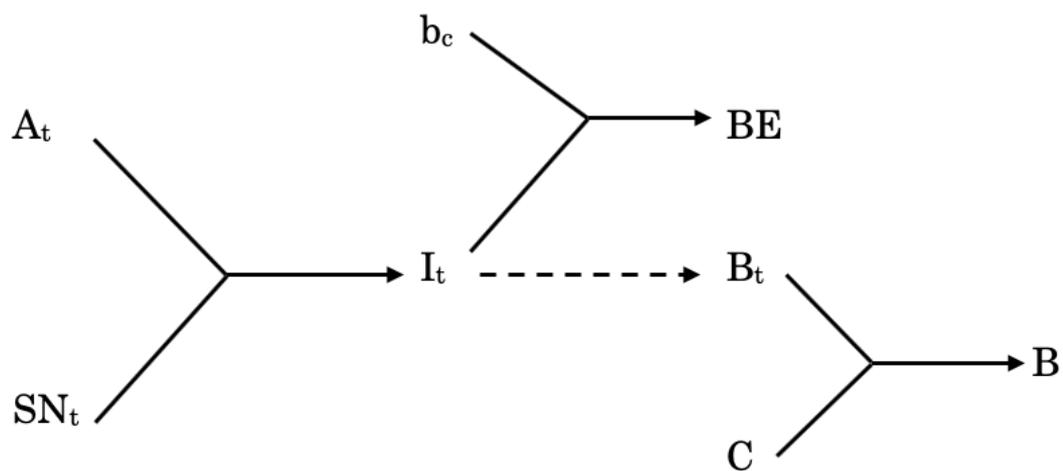
Figure 2.2 Portion of schematic presentation of the theory of planned behaviour based on Ajzen (1985)

Control issues are represented in two ways in the expanded model of behaviour. Firstly, they act on behavioural expectation in the form of perceived behavioural control (b_c). I will describe below (in Section 2.1.4) how Bandura's (1977) work on self-efficacy is used as a basis for the positing of a relationship between perceived control and actual behaviour. In Ajzen's model of the TPB, perceived behavioural control interacts with intention to produce behavioural expectation as "people will expect to perform a behavior if they intend to try it and if they believe (have a high subjective probability) that they can control it" (1985, p.33).

The second way in which control is represented in Ajzen's updated model is through actual control. In Figure 2.2 actual control (C) interacts with attempted behaviour to predict actual behaviour. According to this model, when perceived control corresponds to a high degree with actual control, behavioural expectation will closely predict behaviour. However, if the individual's perception of their own level of control does not reflect their degree of actual control, the strength of the link between expectation and actual behaviour will decrease (Ajzen, 1985).

Interestingly, in Ajzen's (1985) schematic model, control factors do not act as an antecedent of attempted behaviour. However, Ajzen does concede that, "subjective perceptions of control may, of course, influence attempts to perform behavior regardless of their accuracy" (1985, p.34). It is also notable that the attempted behaviour construct did not appear in earlier work on the TRA and is not included in any later work on the TPB. In fact, its appearance in this model seems solely as a way to accommodate the behavioural expectation construct that had been incorporated into other researchers' work (see Warshaw & Davis, 1985). Similarly, behavioural expectation makes no further appearances in any of Ajzen's later discussions of the TPB. Indeed, although in the 1985 article proposing the TPB Ajzen changed the operationalized definition of behavioural intention as referring to only *trying* to perform a behaviour, he later reverted back to defining the variables in terms of *actual* performance, as in the TRA definitions. Ajzen justified his reversion to the original definition by pointing to the strong correlations of measures for trying to perform with those for actual performance in empirical studies, and by noting that "the latter's measures are less cumbersome" (1991, p.182).

In the later, and most widely used, schematic representation of the theory of planned behaviour (Figure 2.3), perceived behavioural control is shown as an antecedent of behavioural intention on the same level as attitude towards the behaviour and subjective norm. In addition to acting as a predictor of intention, perceived behavioural control also has a direct impact on actual behaviour, in terms of how much actual control an

individual has over the behaviour, and how realistic their own estimation of their level of control is.
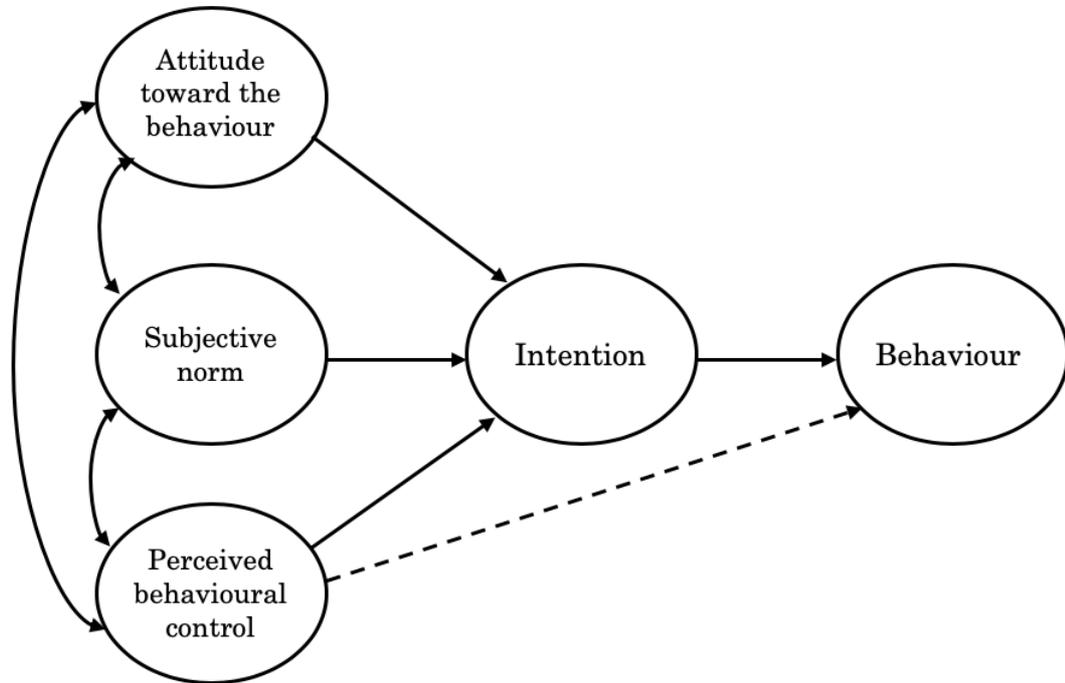
Figure 2.3 Theory of planned behaviour based on Ajzen (1987)

In the period since its proposal the TPB has been used to investigate a wide scope of behaviours such as sustainable food consumption (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008), public transportation use (Heath & Gifford, 2002), internet purchasing (George, 2004) and internet banking (Shih & Fang, 2004). However, similarly to the TRA, it has been most frequently utilized in the field of health-related behaviours (see Godin & Kok, 1996). Meta-analysis of studies using the TPB has found that it can account for between 40-49% of the variance in intention and 26-36% of the variance in actual behaviour (McEachan, Conner, Taylor, & Lawton, 2011). Meta-analysis has also shown that self-reported behaviours typically produced higher levels of variance (Armitage & Connor, 2001). Additionally, different types of behaviour, not surprisingly, have also been shown to produce differing levels of variance.

Although the use of the TPB to investigate language learning will be covered below in Section 2.1.5, the TPB has also been shown to be a useful model for other forms of education-related behaviours. A study of college students in the United States found that the TPB's factors could explain almost 90 per cent of their intention to adopt mobile learning (Cheon, Lee, Crooks & Song, 2012). The TPB has also been shown to be a reliable model for investigating asynchronous distance learning (Carswell & Venkatesh, 2002), and the intention of teachers to adopt digital gaming into their educational practice (De Grove, Bourgonjon, & Van Looy, 2012).

The adaption of the TPB to investigate technology related behaviour will be covered in detail in Section 2.3. However, the TPB has also been used in its original form to study those types of behaviour. A comparison of gender differences in the United States found no distinctions between young males and females for attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioural control relating to the adoption of technology (Morris, Venkatesh, & Ackerman, 2005). Older males, on the other hand, showed a greater emphasis on attitudes in comparison to older women, who put more importance on subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. A later study carried out in Saudi Arabia found no age or gender differences in the TPB constructs (White Baker, Al-Gahtani, & Hubona, 2007).

Now that I have presented an overview of the background and development of the theory of planned behaviour, I will show how it has been incorporated into second language acquisition research. I will also describe some of the criticisms levelled at the model and how those criticisms have been addressed, in addition to noting the component of the theory that has often produced low-levels of predictive ability. First, however, I will describe Bandura's concept of self-efficacy and the important role it plays in the TPB.

2.1.4 Self-Efficacy

When Ajzen extended the theory of reasoned action to account for situations in which there is not complete volitional control over the action

and proposed the theory of planned behaviour, he incorporated Bandura's (1977) work on self-efficacy. Bandura proposed that human behaviour is dependent upon an individual's cognitive assessment of their ability to carry out the action in question effectively. These assessments in turn "are derived from four principal sources of information: performance accomplishments, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological states" (Bandura, 1977, p.191).

Performance accomplishments are related to the actual experience of trying behaviours, and the success or failure associated with those experiences. Repeated success at performing a behaviour will increase self-efficacy beliefs and repeated failures will reduce them. Vicarious experience affects self-efficacy beliefs as people make inferences from viewing others performing the behaviour in question. Witnessing a successful completion of a behaviour will increase the individual's belief that they can also perform the action. However, as these expectations rely on social comparison, they are more liable to rapid fluctuations than those created by one's own experiences. Verbal persuasion is the result of suggestions or exhortations from others that attempt to influence behaviour. Similarly to the effects of vicarious experience, verbal persuasion has a weaker effect than performance accomplishments, as it does not result from authentic experience. The final sources of information that Bandura suggested as affecting an individual's self-efficacy beliefs are physiological states. Emotional arousal and anxiety can impact on an individual's actions as they respond to those positive or negative feelings.

Bandura (1977) differentiated between self-efficacy and outcome expectations. This differentiation was based upon the observation that even if individuals possess positive expectations regarding the outcome of a certain action, they will not influence the undertaking of the behaviour if the individual does not believe that they can perform it. In this consideration of human behaviour (see Figure 2.4) it is notable that outcome expectations do not affect the initiation of the action. This differs from the TRA and the TPB, where outcome expectancies are included in the creation

of attitudes towards the behaviour, a direct antecedent of behavioural intention.

PERSON ──────▶ BEHAVIOUR ──────▶ OUTCOME

EFFICACY EXPECTATIONS

OUTCOME EXPECTATIONS
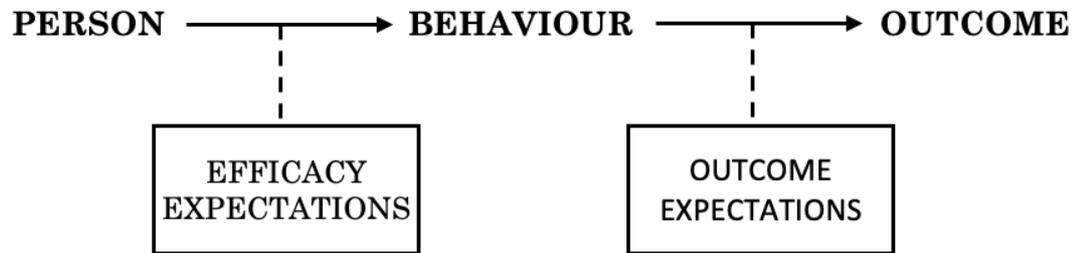
Figure 2.4 Diagrammatic representation of the difference between efficacy expectations and outcome expectations based on Bandura (1977)

It can be seen from this brief description of Bandura's (1977) work on self-efficacy that perceived behavioural control, as it affects actual behaviour, is reliant on an individual's perception of their ability to perform an action. These perceptions can result from personal experience, the experience of others, the verbal utterances of others, and physiological states.

2.1.5 *Use of the Theory of Planned Behaviour in Second Language Acquisition Research*

As a theory that encompasses both attitudinal and motivational factors, the TPB has previously been incorporated into theories of second language acquisition. Most notably, the willingness to communicate (WTC) in a second language construct was created as a representation of behavioural intention in an L2 communication behaviour model (MacIntyre, Clemént, Dörnyei & Noels, 1998). MacIntyre and his colleagues defined L2 WTC "as a readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (1998, p.547). They noted how communication in an L2 corresponds to Ajzen's description of behaviours in

the TPB model as not under the complete volitional control of the individual. In the case of L2 communication, the cooperation of a second party is necessary, and control factors in the form of actual and self-perceived competence are key elements in determining whether the desire to speak translates into actual communication behaviour. However, it is interesting to note that the (un)willingness to communicate construct, as envisaged for first language (L1) communication (Burgoon, 1976; McCroskey & Richmond, 1987), considered willingness to engage in communication behaviours as a personality based, trait-like predisposition. It is possible that the greater likelihood of volitional factors playing a role in L2 communication, in comparison with L1 communication, led MacIntyre et al. (1998) to adapt the cognitively based TPB model, rather than one grounded on personality considerations.

Willingness to communicate proved to be a popular construct in L2 learning research in the years after MacIntyre and his colleagues' (1998) paper. In particular, it gained a lot of attention in the Asian context (e.g., Collins, 2013; Hashimoto, 2002; Peng, 2012; 2013; Wen & Clément, 2003; Yashima, 2002), where its popularity could be attributed to the commonly held notion that Asian learners are quieter and less willing to communicate in an L2. I will explore this topic later in Section 2.2.3.

However, there have been questions raised about the construct and its ability to accurately capture the behavioural intention it is targeted at. Some of these criticisms stem from the questionnaire instrument that has been commonly used to measure WTC. As this measure was first adopted from L1 WTC research (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987), and was then adapted for L2 use in English as a second language contexts (MacIntyre & Charos, 1996), its suitability for English as a foreign-language contexts has been questioned (Peng, 2013). Learners who rarely encounter L1 speakers of English could be expected to have trouble imagining situations in which they encounter and strike up a conversation with one. It has also drawn some criticism for the breadth of communication behaviours it has been used to capture and the strength of the link between the intention to

communicate and actual communication behaviour (Weaver, 2009). Furthermore, some researchers, including MacIntyre, began to differentiate between WTC on a stable trait-like level and a situation- dependent level (Kang, 2005; MacIntyre & Legatto, 2010). The questions regarding the L2 WTC construct and its applicability to the context and type of communication investigated for this project led to it being abandoned as a model.

The TPB model was preferred due to its focus on the behaviour rather than the individual. Whereas the model proposed by MacIntyre et al. (1998) included factors such as personality and motivational propensities, the TPB is concerned with cognitive evaluations related solely to the action under investigation. In contrast, Bandura's (1997) self-efficacy model only considers the individual's self-perceived control over the behaviour, without allowing for attitudes or social factors to be included in the cognitive process.

There have not been many studies using the TPB model independent from WTC in L2 education research. However, in cases where it has been used it has proved effective in helping to explain the importance of learners' control-beliefs and goals (Gabillon, 2005). Additionally, low levels of perceived behavioural control, in the form of self-efficacy beliefs regarding L2 competence, have been linked to reduced verbal output of language students using a TPB based model (Zhong, 2013). Another study, comparing the intention to learn languages in face-to-face settings with online settings, found a preference for face-to-face classes (Alhamami, 2018). Finally, a study of over 600 high school English learners in South Korea found the TPB to be an effective social psychological model for predicating the intention to learn the L2 (Kim & Pae, 2019). These studies, along with the other education related studies noted in Section 2.1.3, suggest that the TPB is a suitable model for investigating learning behaviours.

2.1.6 Potential Limitations and Criticisms of the Theory of Planned Behaviour

As one might expect with a widely used theory that has as long a history as the TPB, it has come under close scrutiny by many researchers

during its lifetime. Questions have been raised about potential issues ranging from its predictive ability, sufficiency assumption, usefulness as a model for behavioural change interventions, and its characterisation of people as rational actors, to its oversimplification of human behaviour (McEachan, Conner, Taylor, & Lawton, 2011; Morgan & Bachrach, 2011; Sniehotta, Presseau, & Araújo-Soares, 2014).

Addressing claims about the predictive ability of the TPB, Ajzen (2015) pointed to the design of some studies as the cause of weak correlations between behavioural intention and actual behaviour. Potential problems suggested by Ajzen included time gaps between the measurement of intention and the (non)performance of the behaviour, poorly worded instruments, and a lack of specificity regarding the behaviour under investigation. In particular, low correlations between intentions and behaviour were explained as resulting from control factor interference, a situation that arises when unanticipated obstacles affect the ability to perform the behaviour, or the fluctuation of attitudes and subjective norms in the interval between measurements. Most notably, Ajzen points out that although the TPB can reliably predict intentions based on attitudes, social norms, and perceived behavioural control, "the prediction of behaviour from intentions is fraught with potential problems" (2015, p.2). It should be pointed out that this contradicts his earlier assertion that intentions and actual performance can be considered interchangeable for measurement purposes (Ajzen, 1991).

Questions about the sufficiency assumption of the TPB, that all variation in human behaviour can be accounted for by constructs contained within the model, and that all other variables act only through those constructs, have not been as convincingly answered. Ajzen (2015) suggests that the small number of items used to capture each predictor in measures of the constructs explains why the addition of further variables can increase the prediction of intentions. In these cases, the new variables are simply catching aspects of the core constructs not picked up by the original items. However, he then goes on to assert, seemingly in contradiction to the

sufficiency assumption, that "there is nothing in the TPB to preclude addition of new predictors" (Ajzen, 2015, p.2). Despite opening the door to a theoretical expansion of the model, the examples of possible additions he then suggests are limited to attitudes and beliefs regarding *not* performing the behaviour. Therefore, this admission would seem at best to be merely a semantic twist.

Regarding criticisms of using the TPB as a basis for behavioural change interventions, Ajzen states that "the TPB is not in fact a theory of behavior change" (2015, p.3). Instead, it is simply a model that can be used to predict and explain human intentions and behaviour. Although Ajzen goes on to claim that the TPB can in fact be a useful framework for designing behavioural change interventions by highlighting the relevant underlying beliefs, it is "not meant to provide guidance on the means, strategies or techniques that can effectively produce changes in these beliefs" (2015, p.3).

The most consistent and convincing rebuttals of criticisms regarding the TPB are those concerning its oversimplification of behaviours and characterisation of humans as acting solely in a rational manner. Ajzen (2011a) is very clear that the TPB presumes no such deliberate and rational consideration for most human actions, and that the underlying beliefs described in the TPB "may rest on faulty or irrational premises, be biased by self-serving motives, by fear, anger and other emotions, or otherwise fail to reflect reality" (p.1116). Furthermore, he repeatedly points researchers back to the original conception of the TRA (Figure 2.1) to show that the commonly used representation of the TPB (Figure 2.3) is a simplified version of the complete model (Ajzen 2011a; Ajzen, 2011b; Ajzen, 2015). This has led to a misunderstanding of the TPB as it does not include the original feedback loops that signify the effects of behavioural outcomes on beliefs. It is also notable that Warshaw and Davis' definition of intention as "conscious plans to perform or not perform" (1985, p.3) a behaviour also propagated this mistaken view of Ajzen and Fishbein's construct. However, Ajzen himself bears some responsibility for this confusion due to the temporary addition of behavioural expectation to the TPB he made in response to

Warshaw and Davis' inclusion of it in their work (Ajzen, 1985). As it was removed from later versions of the TPB without explanation, it could have contributed to misunderstandings regarding the differentiation between expected and intended behaviour.

One further criticism of the reasoned action approach to predicting behaviour is that, as an action becomes habituated it circumvents intention as a determinant of behaviour. Ajzen dismisses this argument by citing empirical evidence that points to a greater correlation between intention and behaviour for frequent actions in comparison to infrequent ones (Ouellette & Wood, 1998). He suggests that, rather than sidestepping intentions, "in the case of routine behaviors, implicit intentions are activated automatically and are then available to guide performance of the behaviour" (Ajzen, 2012, p. 452).

A results-related issue that emerged from many of the previous studies utilising the TPB are the low-levels of predictability provided by the subjective norms component. This could point to subjective norms generally being a poorer predictor of behavioural intention. However, a possible reason suggested for the low-levels shown in the studies is simply the lesser importance of normative beliefs for those behaviours (Armitage & Connor, 2001). Furthermore, a within-subjects study by Trafimow and Finlay (1996) suggested that certain people are more likely to be affected by attitudinal concerns, while others are more apt to be influenced by normative ones. It is also notable that studies that investigated internet behaviours seem especially prone to recording subjective norm levels with little or no predictive value (George, 2004; Shih & Fang, 2004).

In this section I have traced the lineage of the reasoned action approach to modelling human behaviours. Although it is over thirty years since the addition of self-efficacy beliefs, in the form of perceived behavioural control, completed the commonly used form of the theory of planned behaviour, the model is still widely used for investigating many types of behaviours. I have already described how it was incorporated into

second language acquisition research via the WTC construct, and discussed some of the criticisms that have been levelled at the theory. Later, in Section 2.3 below, I will detail how it influenced research into technology related behaviours, through its underpinning of the technology acceptance model. However, before that I will turn my attention to the setting in which this research project takes place.

2.2 Language Learning in Japan

In this section I will focus on research that has been carried out in the same context as this project. To begin with I will give a brief overview of language learning research in Japan and suggest three broad categories that it can be divided into. I will then go on to delve more deeply into two of those categories. Finally, I will describe the development of the international posture construct, one that was created specifically for this setting, and some of the research that has been conducted while using it as a framework.

2.2.1 An Overview of Language Learning Research in Japan

In a similar way to other English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts, research into L2 learning has received considerable attention in Japan. This tendency is perhaps even more pronounced than in other countries due to the large number of universities. According to the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, and Education (MEXT) there were 781 institutions of higher education in Japan offering four-year degree courses in 2018 (MEXT, 2018). This large number of universities brings with it a correspondingly large number of academics who have a vested interest in carrying out research in the context in which they are teaching. Of course, there are also academics who are not based in Japan that have added valuable contributions to the body of research in this area.

It would be a task far beyond the scope of this thesis to attempt to catalogue all the facets of research that has been done regarding L2 learning in Japan. Instead I will divide it into three general categories and highlight several factors in two of those areas that have relevance to this project. These categories are by necessity quite wide, and there is obvious overlap in some of the topics that they address, and also areas of research that they do not cover.

The first area of research that I will consider has been concerned with societal or institutional factors, and how they impact upon language learning in Japan. This includes explorations into the effects the hierarchical nature of the Confucian heritage culture found in Japan has on language learning here. Effects attributed to these societal factors include an increased level of anxiety when speaking an L2 (Woodrow, 2006), and difficulties in adopting the traditions of critical argument in L2 academic writing (McKinley, 2013). It also looks at factors related to the highly centralised education system, and the problems caused by the disconnect between mandated policies and actual practice (Yoshida, 2003), in addition to the high-stakes system of entrance examinations and how it can act as a demotivating factor for language learners (Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009).

Another set of features of the Japanese milieu that have been the subject of scholarly investigation are those related to Japan's location as an island on the edge of a continent. These situational influences include the low levels of linguistic diversity referred to previously in Section 1.1, and a lack of contact with L1 speakers of English (Nishino & Watanabe, 2008). This strand of research has tended to look at the effects that various geographical, historical, and political factors have had in leading to comparatively little immigration and contact with non-Japanese speakers (for a historical perspective on the role of English in Japanese society see Stanlaw, 2004). The idea of Japanese uniqueness, or exceptionalism, and its consequences for language learning is also an area that has received some attention. Most notably, *Nihonjinron*, or theories on the Japanese, have often encompassed nationalistic beliefs in their discussions that "emphasise

the uniqueness of the Japanese people and society, which are constructed as not only unique, but also as being 'uniquely unique'" (Liddicoat, 2007, p.34).

The third broad area of research into language learning in Japan focuses on individual differences. Affective factors such as shyness and anxiety have been subject to considerable amounts of investigation (e.g., Hinenoya & Gatbonton, 2000; Doyon, 2000). Additionally, the notion of the Japanese being more passive in their use of second languages is one that several researchers have looked at (e.g., Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009; Usuki, 2001). Motivation and communication apprehension related topics have also been well covered (e.g., Kimura, Nakata & Okumura, 2001; Sakai & Kikuchi, 2009). In a similar realm, the previously described theme of willingness to communicate in an L2 is a topic that many Japan-based researchers have studied (e.g., Hashimoto, 2002; Yashima, 2002; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide & Shimizu, 2004).

For this project I will only look into the latter two areas in greater depth. As mentioned in the introduction to this thesis, it could be said that the linguistic makeup of Japan represents a high level of homogeneity. In the next section I will look at the imagined and actual realities of inter-linguistic communication in Japan. After that, I will discuss individual differences in the Japanese context and how they have been covered in SLA research. Finally, I will more look closely at the international posture construct, one that was developed specifically for this context.

2.2.2 Ethnocentrism and Japan

Looking at the topic of ethnocentrism and language learning in Japan, it is possible to discern two approaches in the ways it has been covered in the research. The first approach is in how academics, both inside and outside or Japan, have attempted to attribute certain characteristics of language learning or the education system to the supposed uniqueness of the context. The second has been the direct study of ethnocentrism in Japanese learners.

The Japanese context has often been cited for its uniqueness and much has been written about how this impacts upon language learning here. Although many researchers stress the need to be balanced when considering the effects of the Japanese context, and to treat its learners as individuals (e.g., Ryan, 2009), there have been numerous others who have cited the context as being the dominant factor to consider when discussing L2 learning in Japan (see Nakamura, 2002; Nishino & Watanabe, 2008; Sullivan & Schatz, 2009). In comparing the position of English in Japan to that of countries such as Singapore, Morita (2010) notes the superficial level of importance given to L2 proficiency in the job market. Whereas in Singapore English is used during interviews and is the common language of business, in Japan, although high scores on English tests such as TOEIC can improve employment prospects, in reality English is seldom used within business settings.

Other researchers have, however, rejected the prevailing view that Japan is ethnically and linguistically homogeneous. Kubota (2002) suggested that the move towards *kokusaika*, or internationalisation, was a response to Western pressures to open up Japan's domestic markets in the face of large trade imbalances. This focus on the West, and through it the English language, led to the neglect of the actual diversity that already existed in Japan. Kubota argued that by aiming at an idealised and Anglicised view of internationalisation, government policies were limiting a true exploration of diversity within both international and domestic contexts. In particular, a later study with a colleague honed in on the few areas of Japan with significant populations of foreign residents (Kubota & McKay, 2009). In this case Kubota suggested that a fixation at the government and societal level with English as an international language led to non-English-speaking foreign residents being marginalised. However, it should be noted that Kubota supports her claims of diversity in Japan by quoting levels of immigration and non-Japanese-language speakers that are very low in comparison to other industrialised economies. The area in her

study was deemed such an atypical case that it was a member of a special group of small, manufacturing cities with large foreign resident populations. Despite this there were in fact only 6,000 non-Japanese residents out of a population of around 160,000. Later in Sections 4.3 and 6.3.5 I will present the view that Japan, at least in the area the current study takes place in, is indeed quite ethnically and linguistically homogeneous.

Just as Kubota and others suggested that internationalisation in the form of *kokusaika* was a superficial attempt at placating Western pressure to open up domestic markets, other academics have focused on how *nihonjinron* (theories on the Japanese) have been used and incorporated into official government policies. Liddicoat (2007) discussed how the notion of the Japanese and the Japanese language as being unique, has created education policies that attempt to reconcile this viewpoint with the business-led drive to expand their international presence. This can be seen in the juxtaposition of the MEXT's stated goals of "cultivating Japanese people who are educated to live in the international community" (MEXT, 2006, Part 1-2), while "developing global human resources who possess a profound understanding of their identity as Japanese people and the Japanese culture" (MEXT, 2014, Section 2-5). In relation to this research, the most salient effect of the *nihonjinron* affected policies are how they have propagated the idea of Japan and the Japanese as a homogeneous unit, completely separate from the rest of the world.

Several scholars speculated that ethnocentrism in Japanese learners could be a factor in their perceived difficulties becoming proficient in foreign languages (e.g., Hayes, 1979; Reischauer, 1981). However, this assumption was never supported by any empirical studies. Hinenoya and Gatbonton's (2000) study of three groups of Japanese females in North America attempted to link various factors, including ethnocentrism, shyness, and groupism to L2 proficiency. They hypothesised that the participants with higher levels of ethnocentrism would be less proficient. However, there were no significant correlations found between the ethnocentrism and proficiency measures within the three groups. They did find significant negative

correlations between the self-assessed measures of English proficiency and shyness. However, as the non-self-assessed proficiency measure did not correlate significantly with shyness, it could be that the shyness scale was linked with self-perceived competence rather than actual proficiency.

As I will discuss later in Section 2.2.4, other researchers have suggested that the ethnocentric context found in Japan can in fact have positive effects on language learning. Yashima contended that, "English symbolizes the world around Japan" (2002, p.57) for many Japanese learners, and that English could be used by them as a means of connecting with the world outside of Japan. At the other end of the spectrum, some have suggested that English education is actively utilized by the state to maintain and promote a Japanese national identity by contrasting it with the 'other' as represented by English speakers (McVeigh, 2002). In McVeigh's view, this is most obviously demonstrated by the government run JET (Japan Exchange and Teaching) program. This program brings recent university graduates from countries around the world to live in Japan and participate in various activities designed to increase "mutual understanding between the people of Japan and the people of other nations" (JET, n.d.). These activities range from assisting in language lessons at the primary and secondary levels, to dressing up as Father Christmas. As a one-time participant in the program I can understand some of the criticisms levelled at the program as presenting English, and by extension those who speak it, as more of a novelty than a valuable skill to be learned, or conduit to a more nuanced view of the world outside of Japan.

Although I have presented only a glimpse of the large volume of research and opinions that have been offered on this topic, the view undoubtedly exists that Japan is somehow different to most other parts of the world. Whether one ascribes to the belief that Japan is especially unique in its linguistic context, the fact that large numbers or researchers, government officials, and language learners themselves do surely has an impact on how they view English and its role in their lives. I will next consider individual factors as they affect language learning in Japan. In

particular, I will focus in on the notion that Japanese learners tend to be quieter and more reticent in their behaviour in the language classroom.

2.2.3 The Quiet Country

The notion that shyness in Japanese learners of English negatively affects their ability to become confident L2 communicators is one that has frequently been propagated in the research literature (e.g., Doyon, 2000). This idea, along with the closely aligned suggestion that language learners in Japan tend to display high levels of communication apprehension and low levels of L2 WTC, is one that has several implications for the present study.

Unfortunately, many of the reports into how relevant a factor shyness is in the Japanese learning context have tended to rely on anecdotal evidence, or the highly subjective first-hand impressions of the researchers themselves. Both Cutrone (2009) and Doyon (2000) introduced the results of straw polls taken in their own classrooms to support their assertions that students in Japan were shy. They also both suggested reasons for this shyness, especially in relation to its impact on L2 speaking, that repeated simplistic notions of the difference between public and private 'faces', and a reluctance to challenge ones in positions of higher social standing. It is clear that great care needs to be taken not to make generalisations about whole groups of people when looking at topics related to individual differences.

A further issue is what aspect the research is actually trying to illuminate. Whether the topic is concerned with shyness as a personality trait, or if it is using shyness as catch all term to encompass all manifestations of language learners not actively engaging in the L2 classroom. Usuki (2002) highlighted the issue of passive learners in terms of learner autonomy, and suggested ways in which it could be fostered in the Japanese context. Although she found some evidence in interviews of a disconnect between learners' passive behaviour and their internal perception, Usuki relied heavily on her own interpretations rather than any tested methodologies or models.

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One study that did have a solid empirical foundation looked at the issue of silence in the Japanese L2 classroom (King, 2012). This research used a novel classroom oral participation scheme to measure the amount and type of communication that occurred in the language classrooms of nine different universities. Although the results indicated a high level of silence, periods when the students were not using the L2, in the classrooms observed, as the study was not built upon any specific theory of learner behaviour it was not able to offer any explanations for the lack of participation of the students that was grounded in existing research. It did however suggest that disengagement, confusion, and teacher-centred methods could play a role in creating a silent classroom.

Harumi (2010) took an ethnographic approach to the study of silence in the Japanese EFL classroom in order to investigate the sociocultural factors at play. She suggested that, rather than being viewed solely as a negative factor, silence in the classroom in this context can sometimes be indicative of a culture-specific learning strategy, where silence is used to express shared understanding. This research also demonstrated the different perceptions of classroom silence that can exist between language learners, L1 English teachers, and Japanese teachers of English. In order to address the issues of silence in the classroom Harumi recommended a holistic approach that incorporated varied teaching methods, with greater cross-cultural understanding on both sides of the teacher-student relationship.

In a study focusing on motivation within language learners in the Japanese context Kimura and his colleagues found that less motivated students, with higher levels of language use anxiety were more likely to prefer passive, teacher-centred classes (Kimura, Nakata & Okumura, 2001). As these students frequently attributed negative experiences to language learning, Kimura et al. suggested using extracurricular activities to overcome those negative associations.

There are many obstacles in the way of any researcher who wishes to compare groups of language learners from different countries, and that may

explain the relative paucity of such research. McCroskey and his colleagues did perform a comparison of communication apprehension between Japan, Puerto Rico, and the United States that suggested Japanese students had much higher levels of both L1 and L2 communication apprehension than students in the other two countries (McCroskey, Gudykunst, & Nishida, 1985). However, in this comparison the students in the United States only reported their L1 communication apprehension. A later study found similar results indicating high levels of communication apprehension for Japanese students in comparison to American ones (Pribyl, Keaton, Sakamoto, & Koshikawa, 1998). However, this research was only focused on L1 communication apprehension.

The WTC construct has not been the subject of any large, multi-national study including Japan. There has also yet to be a meta-analysis of results from the research carried out in this area, so making comparisons of different contexts is problematic. Research that has been done in Japan has shown that learners tend to have higher levels of WTC in smaller classes (Aubrey, 2010). The WTC in Aubrey's study, however, was measured situationally through observation. Another study of self-reported and observed WTC in the Japanese context found no significant link between them (Collins, 2013). As noted earlier in Section 2.1.5, these results again raise questions about the methods used to measure L2 WTC, and the validity of the construct itself for contexts such as Japan.

The majority of studies into WTC in the Japanese context have also included the international posture construct (see Collins, 2013, Yashima, 2002: 2009; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004; Yashima & Zenuk-Nishide, 2008). In the next section I will describe the international posture construct and some of the research that has been carried out using it.

2.2.4 International Posture

International posture is an attitudinal construct that was suggested for EFL contexts, specifically for Japan. Yashima (2002) developed a model of L2 communication that linked learning motivation, proficiency, and

international posture with L2 WTC. Due to this current project taking place in Japan, and due to L2 WTC being conceived as a representation of behavioural intention for communicating in an L2, I considered it a useful construct to include as part of this project.

In Yashima's model of L2 communication, international posture acts as a contextualization of the integrativeness concept in Gardner's (1985) socio-educational model. Yashima considered that for the ethnolinguistic context of a country such as Japan, where most language learners have very little contact with L1 English speakers, the type of integrativeness envisaged for bilingual settings in Canada by Gardner was not an appropriate representation. Yashima described the international posture construct as capturing a general interest in English due to its position as an international language. This contrasts with Gardner's conception of integrativeness as indicative of a desire to be similar to the target language group. Building upon previous work carried out by Dörnyei and his colleagues in an EFL context in Hungary (see Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Dörnyei, Csizér & Németh, 2006), Yashima suggested that the limited opportunities for contact with L1 English speakers in countries like Japan means that language learners here are not likely to hold strong feelings regarding English speakers as a group. Rather, they may express an interest in English due to its importance as a means for working abroad or for consuming international news.

A study of 389 information science students at a university in Japan tested Yashima's proposed L2 communication model linking international posture, L2 learning motivation, and L2 proficiency with L2 WTC (Yashima, 2002). The study produced a significant correlation between international posture and L2 WTC. However, this link was quite weak in comparison to the link between international posture and L2 learning motivation. The composition and area of specialisation of the group of participants in this study should also be noted. Over 70 per cent were males, and as all them were information science majors it is conceivable that the measurement of the international posture construct was influenced by the position of

English as the dominant language of the internet and computer programming.

In a later study using the same model, this time with high school students in Japan, Yashima and her colleagues found a similarly significant yet weak correlation between international posture and L2 WTC (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004). However, again this group could be said to be atypical for the Japanese context in that the high school had content-based English instruction and L1 English-speaking homeroom teachers, neither of which are the norm. Clearly the frequent contact these participants had with L1 English speakers places them in a different ethnolinguistic setting to the majority of students at the secondary or tertiary stage of education in Japan. One further study carried out in Japan did, however, take place among a more typical group of tertiary level students. In this study Nishida (2013) found significant correlations between L2 WTC and international posture.

A study that looked at gender differences in relation to international posture found a significant difference between males and females at a university in Japan (Birdsell, 2014). In this case the female participants had higher levels of international posture and this difference was most pronounced for the measures indicating an interest in studying or working abroad. Birdsell suggested that gender specific roles within Japanese society, or at least the perception of those roles by the participants, could be the source of the difference. This was attributed to the males being constrained by traditional career paths that did not allow for adventures abroad that would extend their time at university or remove them from the standard routes for professional advancement. The females, on the other hand, were hypothesised to be released from those constraints and motivated to explore contexts where their own careers might not be so limited.

Studies performed in different countries that have attempted to apply the international posture construct to contexts other than Japan have often failed to find significant correlations with L2 WTC. Research carried out in

Poland at a university of education found no significant link (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pietrzykowska, 2011). Peng (2014) also found a weaker correlation between international posture and L2 WTC in a study of the L2 motivational system performed in China than the one found in both of Yashima's studies (Yashima, 2002; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004). However, it bears repeating the concerns over the measures used to capture the L2 WTC construct in EFL contexts raised earlier in Section 2.1.5.

Other research in EFL contexts apart from Japan have, however, found international posture to have significant correlations in models based on Dörnyei's motivational self-system (Dörnyei, 2005). Studies in Hungary (Kormos & Csizér, 2008) and Chile (Kormos, Kiddle, & Csizér, 2011) both highlighted the important role of language learners' image of English as an entry point to a globalised world.

In this section I have provided an overview of some of the research that has been carried out in the Japanese context. In particular, I showed how the Japanese ethnolinguistic setting has often been viewed as being unique, and the impact that view has had on research, government policies, and the self-perception of language learners here. Furthermore, I looked at affective factors such as shyness and communication anxiety. These factors have often been cited as the root-cause of comparatively quiet language classrooms in Japan. Finally, I discussed the international posture construct and how it has been used to replace Gardner's (1985) concept of integrativeness in contexts with little or no contact between language learners and L1 speakers. In the next section I will consider technology, and how it has been incorporated into and researched in language education.

2.3 *Technology in Language Learning*

From gramophones to voice-activated translation software, the use of technology for language learning purposes has had a long and far-ranging history. There has been a correspondingly large amount of research that has

been carried out into various technologies and their efficacy for language learning. In this review I will focus on computer enabled devices and how their incorporation into L2 learning has been covered in the literature. I will begin by looking at some of the models that have been used in this field.

2.3.1 Technology Acceptance Models

As the prevalence of computers within society increased, researchers in the field of management science became interested in discovering which psychological elements contributed to the successful adoption of technology in the workplace. Davis (1985; 1989) adapted the theory of reasoned action (TRA) to produce a model for explaining the psychological processes involved in the decision to use new technology. Befitting a behavioural model emerging from the field of management science, the initial technology acceptance model (TAM) was specifically targeted at computer use in business settings. However, as the use of computers became more widespread, and the variety of applications to which they were adapted increased, the TAM was revised and added to in an attempt to reflect those changes.

This section will chart the development of the original TAM and review a portion of the large number of modifications that have been made to it in the period since it first appeared. I will then consider the rationales behind those adaptations and their suitability for the stated purposes. Finally, I will discuss the use of TAM related theories to investigate technology and its relationship to L2 learning.

2.3.1.1 Development of the Technology Acceptance Model

Davis (1985) proposed the first version of the TAM as a way to "improve our understanding of user acceptance processes" and to create a "methodology that would enable system designers and implementors to evaluate proposed new systems prior to their implementation" (p.7). The second objective reflects a period of technological development when the adoption of computer systems into the work place was relatively novel.

Furthermore, the lead in times and amount of preparation that were required to develop and put a new system into operation at the time of the model's development were perhaps greater than one would encounter in technology adoption in more recent times.

The original TAM (see Figure 2.5) as conceived by Davis (1985; 1989) suggests a causal relationship between two sets of beliefs, perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness, with attitude towards using the technology in question. Attitude towards using corresponds with behavioural intention in the TRA, that is it should predict actual system use.

Whereas the TRA behavioural model calls for the elicitation of salient beliefs regarding the behaviour, the TAM presupposes that perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness are the salient beliefs in the creation of attitude towards using the computer system. Davis did, however, concede that this was a presupposition that required testing and that the "failure of these two beliefs to fully mediate between system characteristics and attitude toward using may suggest that a salient belief has been omitted" (1985, p.35). In fact, as can been seen in the proceeding section, perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness did not prove to be sufficient to fully mediate between the system characteristics and attitude towards using.
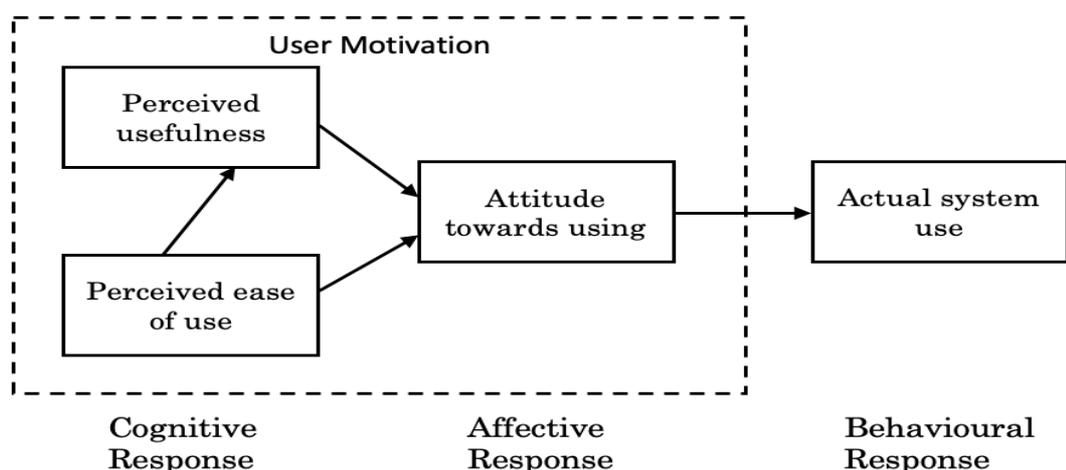
Figure 2.5 Portion of technology acceptance model based on Davis (1985)

2.3.1.2 Modifications to the Technology Acceptance Model

In any discussion of the TAM it is necessary to note the many revisions and changes that researchers have made to it since its original conception. Davis, along with his frequent collaborator Venkatesh, investigated a number of antecedents for perceived ease of use (Venkatesh & Davis, 1996). These included computer self-efficacy, which mirrors the addition of self-efficacy to the TRA to produce the theory of planned behaviour model. They found that computer self-efficacy acts as a determinant of perceived ease of use prior to and after actual system use. Venkatesh and Davis later went further and proposed a significant extension to the TAM, which they labelled TAM 2 (Venkatesh & Davis, 2000). This extended version included the subjective norm factor that Davis had left out of his original adaption of the TRA. Additionally, factors for voluntariness, experience, image, job relevance, output quality, and result demonstrability were added and hypothesised to act as antecedents to perceived usefulness, and also to intention in some cases.

In the time since the proposal of the TAM 2, there have been even further adaptations. The TAM 3 (Venkatesh & Bala, 2008) added antecedents of perceived ease of use. Some of these, such as computer self-efficacy, had been proposed in earlier research, however constructs such as computer playfulness and perceived enjoyment were new to this version. Researchers other than Venkatesh and Davis have also proposed additions or amendments to the TAM. Liu, Chen, Sun, Wibble, and Kuo (2010) proposed the addition of online factors such as perceived interaction and interface design.

As can be clearly seen from the large number of changes to the original TAM, in the 30 years since it was first proposed researchers have struggled to keep up with changes in technology. The shift from computers being used in a purely utilitarian manner, primarily in the workspace, to the surge in popularity in gaming, and then later to online interactions, has forced researchers to pivot from focusing on extrinsic motivations linked with career advancements, to intrinsic motivations linked with pleasure.

In an effort to address the issues caused by these widespread changes in technology and how it is used within society, some researchers have attempted to create hedonic-motivation system models. These models stand in contrast with the utilitarian-motivation system models represented by the TAM. The hedonic-motivation system adoption model (HMSAM) was built upon the hedonic-motivation system proposed by Van der Heijden (2004), which was itself an adaptation of the TAM that included perceived enjoyment. As noted above, perceived enjoyment was later adopted by Ventakesh into the TAM 3. The HMSAM (Lowry, Gaskin, Twyman, Hammer, & Roberts, 2013) replaced joy with the cognitive absorption construct. Cognitive absorption reflects "a deep state of involvement with software systems stemming from intrinsic motivation" (Lowry et al., 2013, p.618). In the HMSAM, cognitive absorption mediates the effect perceived ease of use has on intention to use technology that relies on intrinsic motivation, such as games.

It would be impractical to further detail the multitude of adaptations and revisions that have been made to the original TAM. However, one recently proposed model that has relevance to this research is the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology 2 (UTAUT2). This model was adapted for and has been used to research users' attitudes towards using social networks. I will introduce and explain the model below in Section 2.4.3. Before that, however, I will look at how TAMs have been used in L2 education research.

2.3.1.3 Technology Acceptance Models in Second Language Education Research

Although models have attempted to describe the acceptance of technology in a multitude of different contexts, the quantity of research into attitudes towards the use technology in L2 education is not as extensive as might be expected. TAMs have been utilised to investigate acceptance of utilitarian-motivation systems, such as computer-assisted language learning (Afshari, Ghavifekr, Siraj, & Jing, 2013; Coryell & Chlup, 2007),

and mobile-assisted language learning (Hsu, 2013; Viberg & Grönlund, 2013). However, their application for hedonic-motivation system related research, such as the use of online social networks for L2 educational purposes is still very limited, if existent at all.

One area of L2 learning that has, however, been the subject of some research is that of self-directed technology use. Lai and her colleagues have used TAM and TPB based models to investigate ways of promoting self-directed language learning via technology (Lai, 2013), and how cultural values influence a learner's propensity to utilise technology for language learning purposes (Lai, Wang, Li, & Hu, 2016). Lai (2013) found that attitudinal factors were the most important, and suggested interventions based upon those and fostering a self-directed willingness to use technology would be the most effective. Furthermore, Lai's study found no significant relationship between subjective norm and perceived usefulness. The absence of a link here adds further support to the questions raised in Section 2.1.6 regarding the connection between subjective norm and behavioural intention.

I will revisit the TAM and how it has been used to investigate online social networks below in Section 2.4.3. Before that I will address the topics of computers and mobile devices in learning.

2.3.2 *Computer Assisted Language Learning*

Research into computer assisted language learning (CALL) dates back to the 1970s (Zawacki-Richter & Latchem, 2018). Since that time there have been a multitude of areas and factors discussed that are far beyond the scope of this project. Therefore, I will limit this review to more recent studies that have some relevance to this research. In particular, I will look at some of the studies that have concentrated on language learners' attitudes towards CALL, and the potential of computers for L2 education.

Previous studies have generally found a positive attitude of language learners towards CALL (Ayres, 2002; Afshari et al, 2013). However, these studies also demonstrated that learners did not wish CALL to completely

replace traditional classroom-based learning. Therefore, CALL is most useful when used as a tool to supplement other forms of language study. Additionally, other studies have also highlighted the necessity of adequate training for educators to utilise CALL effectively (Hegelheimer, Li, & Dursun, 2018).

Although the studies mentioned above reported positive attitudes towards CALL, an investigation of Korean university students' ideas concerning it started with the premise that the integration of computers into language learning had not been successful (Jee & Kim, 2012). This was based on a supposed gap between theoretical assumptions and actual practice. The results of this study showed that the students in this context overwhelmingly considered traditional classroom-based learning or self-study to be the most effective methods. A question regarding the potentiality of SNSs for language learning produced an inconclusive outcome, in that over half of the respondents indicated that they held neither positive or negative opinions. However, due to the era in which this research was carried out, it is possible that it was too early for firm attitudes towards language learning on SNSs to have developed.

In the next section I will look at how mobile devices have expanded the possibilities for language learning. I will then go on to consider language learning in the wild before focusing more specifically on SNS related research.

2.3.3 Mobile Learning

As technology progressed, and computers became smaller and more portable, research into mobile assisted language learning (MALL) increased. Crompton and Burke's (2018) review of research carried out into mobile learning at the tertiary level in the period from 2010 to 2016 found that most studies focused on either student perception or student achievement. This review found that the majority of the studies looked at reported positive attitudes from participants towards mobile learning, and positive effects on student achievement.

A study carried out in China into the factors affecting mobile learning acceptance used a modified version of the TAM (Hao, Dennen, & Mei, 2017). The study found that perceived usefulness had the largest effect on the intention to adopt mobile learning. Interestingly, this study also failed to find a significant link between subjective norms and behavioural intention. This repeats the results found in Lai's (2013) study of self-directed technology use and also tallies with the low correlations of subjective norms with intention found in a meta-analysis of TPB based research (Armitage & Connor, 2001).

Undoubtedly one of the potential advantages for MALL in comparison to CALL is its affordance of self-directed learning opportunities beyond the classroom. Lai and Zheng (2018) investigated out-of-class use of MALL and found it was predominantly used for vocabulary learning. Their study identified three factors that characterised the participant's self-directed MALL: personalisation, authenticity, and social connection. Of these factors, the ability of MALL to allow for the personalisation of the learning process was found to be the most utilised. In the open-ended elicitation question about their mobile-learning usage, 75 per cent mentioned using it for personalised learning, compared to only 38 per cent for authentic language learning, and only 12 per cent for social connection through L2 communication. However, despite the few mentions of social L2 communication the participants did express a moderately positive view of the usefulness of mobile devices for that purpose.

Although mobile learning through smartphones undoubtedly has the potential for increasing learning opportunities, caution should be taken before equating access to mobile devices with an increased level of informal learning behaviour. A year-long study of university students in the United States suggested that smartphone access could actually have a negative effect on learning (Tossell, Kortum, Shepard, Rahmati, & Zhong, 2015). In this study smartphones were given to 24 undergraduate students and their usage was logged. The results indicated that educational use of the devices was limited, and use for entertainment and social purposes was much

greater. Questionnaires administered at the beginning and end of the study also provided interesting insights into the attitudes of the participants. Prior to receiving the devices they believed that possession of smartphones would improve their grades while not proving to be a distraction. At the end of the study these positions had both reversed, with the students now considering the smartphones to negatively affect their grades and distract them from their studies.

This brief review of mobile learning research has demonstrated that while providing the potential for increased learning, more access does not always equate to more learning-directed behaviours. In the next section I will consider how other non-traditional modes of learning have been researched.

2.3.4 Language Learning in the Wild

The term 'language learning in the wild' has previously been used to describe the type of learning that occurs outside the classroom in L2 contexts (e.g. Eskildsen & Theodórsdóttir, 2015). However, in this case I will use it to include studies into online informal learning of English (OILE), and the self-directed use of technology for language learning purposes. The reason being that any language encountered online that has not been filtered for content by a third party is likely to be 'wild' in its raw state. Additionally, the 'wild' has been defined as any learning that occurs beyond the classroom (Wagner, 2015). I do not include virtual language learning in this categorization as it is normally directed and controlled by an educator or institution.

In a study of nearly a thousand French and German students, Kusyk (2017) surveyed the frequency of various types of online L2 behaviours. This study showed that at least once a week, most of the participants performed some kind of receptive behaviour that was English related. The self-reported productive behaviour was much lower, with over half of the respondents saying they never engaged in those types of behaviours. Therefore, although this study showed a widespread interaction with online

English, even among non-English majors, the behaviour was largely receptive in nature. Some recent studies, however, have shown that even receptive exposure to English media can foster language learning (Muñoz, Cadierno, & Casas, 2018).

Language learning through online gaming is an area that has been the subject for several studies. Reinders and Wattana (2014; 2015) looked at the effects of digital gameplay on willingness to communicate and affective factors. Both these studies took place in Thailand and investigated university level L2 English students. The first compared willingness to communicate, communicative self-confidence, anxiety, and self-perceived communicative competence in the context of the L2 classroom versus during online gameplay. Significantly higher levels of willingness to communicate, communicative self-confidence, and self-perceived communicative competence, in addition to lower levels of anxiety were found during gameplay compared to during class (Reinders & Wattana, 2014). The follow-up qualitative study of five students also showed an increase in L2 willingness to communicate and a decrease in affective barriers to L2 communication (Reinders & Wattana, 2015). As positive as the results in both of these studies were, it should be noted that the online gaming carried out in this project was on dedicated servers that only allowed the participants in the study to interact with each other. Therefore, these studies applicability to research into authentic online L2 communication is somewhat limited.

A study that was conducted in an authentic online gaming context by Sylvén and Sundqvist (2012) found a significant correlation between gaming and L2 proficiency. This research concluded that the goal-directed and scaffolded type of L2 use found in multiplayer online role-playing games was conducive to language acquisition. In an earlier study the author noted how digital gaming was more useful than passive activities such as watching movies or listening to music (Sundqvist, 2009). Although the 2012 study was aimed at young learners (ages 11-12), the positive correlations found

between increased online gaming and L2 proficiency demonstrate the potential for non-passive online behaviours.

The final area of language learning in the wild I will consider is the research done into self-directed use of technology for language learning. I have previously mentioned some of the work done in this area by Lai and her colleagues in Sections 2.1.3.4 and 2.3.3. Lai's work has shown how self-directed use of technology out-of-class can be effective for sustaining motivation levels, bringing the learners closer to the L2 culture via exposure to the language in authentic situations, and increasing their learning efficacy, among other benefits (Lai, 2015). It has also demonstrated how teacher behaviour can positively impact on self-directed use of technology by providing three types of support: affection, capacity, and behaviour (Lai, 2015; Lai, Li, & Wang, 2017). Affection support is achieved by the teachers encouraging students to use technology. Capacity support stems from the teacher's recommendations and tips on how to effectively use technology. Behaviour support was created by the teachers using technology in-class and demonstrating its usefulness. These three factors were all found to significantly influence technology use for language learning among students in Hong Kong (Lai, 2015; Lai et al., 2017). However, the comparison study, which included students in the United States, found that only capacity support was a significant factor there (Lai et al., 2017). Finally, Lai has pointed out the divergent expectances that can exist between students and teachers regarding the use of technology outside the classroom. Students expect their teachers to provide more support while teachers overestimate their students' abilities to independently and effectively use technology (Lai, Yeung, & Hu, 2016).

Before widespread access to the internet became the norm, authentic experience of communication in an L2 could only be experienced by travelling to the country in question, or seeking out L2 communities in the country of study. With the internet, language learners gained easy access to a worldwide network of a multitude of L2 speakers. However, the value of

that network to enhance or enable language learning is still an area that needs more research. In particular, the question of how educators can best facilitate learning away from the language classroom is one that requires further study. I will next turn my attention to research that has been carried out into social network services, their use for online communication and language learning, and the perceptions of learners regarding that type of usage.

2.4 *Research into Social Network Services*

One of the many difficulties facing researchers attempting to investigate online behaviour, in addition to issues of privacy, problems obtaining reliable data and categorising different types of behaviour, is the rapidly changing environment found online. In the time between conception, beginning data collection, and writing up a project it is likely that the circumstances leading to the initial interest in the topic have altered. Technology moves on and expands the range of possible behaviours to be found online. Fifteen years ago the absence of high-speed internet connection made watching movies online impractical. Sites rise and wane in their popularity. The range of features provided by popular sites can also change. Facebook has shifted from being a site where people just updated their statuses to providing messaging, voice calls, and live streaming of video. Even while writing this I am conscious that the examples I am providing will be out of date by the time they are read. However, in order to give context to this project, which centres on online behaviour, I will next present a brief overview of some on the research that has been carried out in this area.

In the first part of this review I will look at online communication and general research into social network services (SNSs). In the second part I will focus in on the research that has been carried out into language learning on SNSs, and then finally I will look at some of the work done concerning user acceptance of online technology and SNSs.

2.4.1 Online Communication and Social Network Services

A considerable amount of the research on SNS use that has been carried out to date has focused on individual factors. Personality, in particular, has been the subject of numerous studies. These have included research into the connection between narcissism, self-esteem, and Facebook use (Błachnio, Przepiorka, & Rudnicka, 2016), research into introversion and/or extraversion and their connection with online behaviour (Amichai-Hamburger, Wainapel, & Fox, 2002; Deng, Liu, Li, & Hu, 2013), and with the Big Five personality traits in general (Wilson, Fornasier, & White, 2010; Hughes, Rowe, Batey, & Lee, 2012; Seidman, 2013). These studies have tended to support the idea that those who exhibit higher levels of extroversion are more likely to be active on social media. Indeed, a study of over 21 thousand participants spread over 20 countries, including Japan, found that extroversion positively predicts SNS behaviour (Gil de Zúñiga, Diehl, Huber, & Liu, 2017). Furthermore, this effect was most noticeable for interaction behaviours.

There have also been several studies that have looked at the use of SNSs for education related purposes, and their potential for improving learners' cognitive abilities, grades, and levels of engagement. Alloway and colleagues found that adolescent users who had been using Facebook for longer scored higher in tests for verbal ability, working memory, and spelling (Alloway, Horton, Alloway, & Dawson, 2013). However, frequency and type of Facebook use were not found to significantly affect cognitive abilities. Given that this study was carried out while Facebook was still on the rise, the participants were teenagers who perhaps had only just started being active online, and that frequency and type of use were not shown to positively impact the test scores, it is possible that the higher scores were related to users who were early adopters of technology, rather than the use of Facebook itself. Additionally, other studies have found a negative relation between Facebook use and academic performance (Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010; Junco, 2012).

Studies that looked at student engagement have also produced conflicting results. While some studies have shown SNS use to have positive effects on engagement levels (Junco, Heiberger, & Loken, 2011), yet others found no significant correlation (Welch & Bonnan-White, 2012). An issue found in comparing studies performed in this field is the varied nature of the specific behaviours they incorporate into their research. Whereas in the first study Twitter was only used as an adjunct support channel for the students, in the second study the students were required to submit all their responses to the course assignments via a dedicated Twitter backchannel. Although superficially both studies were alike, they both utilised Twitter and measured engagement levels, the types of behaviour the participants performed on the SNS platform were quite different.

Furthermore, despite some of the positive claims made in the studies above, other researchers have cautioned that the use of SNSs in academic settings can have undesirable consequences. Some have pointed out the potential for inappropriate contact between teachers and learners through SNS interactions (Asterhan & Rosenberg, 2015). Another common concern was the issue of privacy, with some studies uncovering concerns among participants regarding their SNS use becoming public or visible to their teachers, preferring instead to keep their communications private (Gunuc, Misirli, & Odabasi, 2013). On the other side of the teacher-student relationship, educators have expressed reservations about encouraging young learners to post online, in part due to the content they may be exposed to, and in part due to the lack of control they may have over what their students post (Preston, Jakubiec, Jones, & Earl, 2015).

In addition to difficulties posed by comparing the types of behaviour studied in various SNS research projects, it is clear that the way different types of users interact with SNSs also complicates matters. A study of young adults in the United States found that SNS platform users, in this case Facebook, could be divided into four broad types, depending on the kinds of online behaviour they engaged in. These four types were relation builders, window shoppers, town criers, and selfies (Robinson, Callahan, Boyle,

Rivera, & Cho, 2017). This study suggested that the online behavioural profiles of the four types of users were quite different. Relationship builders used SNSs as an extension of their offline lives, as a way of connecting with existing friends and family. Town criers liked to repost news articles about the issues of the day. At the most active end of the user scale, selfies were prolific in their online posting and open with their privacy settings. Window shoppers, on the other hand, rarely shared anything online and preferred to simply browse content created by others. The categorisation of different SNS users as being on a spectrum of passive to active has the consequence of limiting the generalisations that can be made when studying behaviour among a large group.

In this section I provided a brief overview of some of the research that has been carried out in the general field of SNS behaviour. Numerous studies into personality and its effect on SNS use found that extroversion had a positive correlation with online behaviour. However, results from research into the effects of SNS use on cognitive ability, grades, and students' engagement were much less uniform. Additionally, concerns about privacy and difficulties in clearly delineating between different types on online behaviour and user types highlight the potential problems likely to be encountered in this type of research. In the next section I will look at previous studies that have focused on SNS use for language learning purposes.

2.4.2 Language Learning on Social Network Services

Research into language learning on SNSs has tended to either focus on the various platforms and their suitability for L2 education, or the possible benefits to be gained for language learners through SNS use. In this section I will first briefly review some of the research on the different platform's capabilities, I will then focus on some of the positive outcomes suggested by previous research into L2 use on SNSs.

Studies cataloguing the suitability of platforms can be divided into those looking at specific language learning social network sites (LLSNSs),

such as Livemocha and Duolingo, and those looking at general SNSs, such as Twitter and Facebook. One study suggested that users on LLSNSs showed improved attitudes and motivation towards L2 learning, and progress in speaking and listening skills (Lin, Warschauer, & Blake, 2016). However, this study also showed high levels of attrition as users lost interest in the sites. An earlier study also reported some users were wary of joining LLSNSs that were trying too hard to replicate SNSs such as Facebook (Stevenson & Liu, 2013).

During the early days of SNSs there were numerous articles suggesting the possible ways they could be utilised for L2 learning purposes (e.g. Blattner & Fiori, 2009). However, as noted above, the relative novelty of SNSs and their constant evolution makes reviewing previous research fraught with difficulties. Mitchell's (2012) study of L2 English students in the United States and their use of Facebook is good example of how quickly outdated research in this field can become. At the time of this research Facebook was only just beginning to expand into non-English-speaking regions. Thus, her suggestion that L2 English learners should be encouraged to join Facebook in order to facilitate English-English social interactions, thereby increasing their language learning motivation, was unfortunately rendered obsolete by the rapid rise of other languages on the platform (Mitchell, 2012). Similarly, another early study of language learning on SNSs had L2 French learners create fictional Francophone profiles and then interact with the other members of their class online (Mills, 2011). Although this study found Facebook to be a useful platform for creating mutual engagement among language learners, the methodology's dependence on the novelty, at that time, of the experience limits its relevance for later studies.

Despite the issues outlined above, some of the early research into L2 learning on SNS did reach conclusions that remain valid. Blattner and Fiori's (2011) investigation of L2 Spanish learners showed how sociopragmatic and multiliteracy skills can be improved through SNS use. In addition, the authors also suggested the importance of supervision,

feedback, and direction when incorporating SNSs into teaching. Another study highlighted the necessity of bridging-activities to ease learners into the appropriate forms of SNS practices when using an L2 (Reinhardt & Zander, 2011).

A more recent study investigated the use of SNSs for language learning purposes in an elementary school in China (Sun et al., 2017). This research measured accuracy, fluency, and pronunciation in a pre/post-test study of a control group who performed an oral homework assignment offline, and an experimental group who performed it via a China-based SNS (Papa). Both control and experimental groups showed gains in all three domains, with the experimental group showing significantly larger gains in fluency. Additionally, although the SNS group were only required to submit their homework to their teacher via the app, many reported viewing and commenting on their peer's submissions. Also, during follow up interviews the participants expressed positive views of the SNS learning experience, in that it reduced anxiety and increased their motivation levels. However, as the participants in this study were very young, it is likely that the novelty of the experience was an important factor in their positive impressions.

Finally, research that was undertaken in the same context as this study looked at how training-activities could be used to attain three goals (Prichard, 2013). These goals, outlined by the TESOL Technology Standards Task Force, were: demonstrating skills in technology for a multilingual world, using technology appropriately and ethically, and using and evaluating technology for language learning (Healey et al., 2011). In his study Prichard (2013) found the training employed to be moderately successful at reaching the three goals. However, the private Facebook group created for the study did not facilitate opportunities for any authentic SNS interactions with L1 English speakers, apart from the instructor. The participants in this study also expressed privacy concerns and reservations about using English on SNSs due to the possibilities for embarrassment it might create.

2.4.3 User Acceptance of Online Technology and Social Network Services

As detailed above in Section 2.3.1, there have been a multitude of models adapted for studying user acceptance of various forms of technology. In this section I will discuss how different models have been used to research SNS behaviour and look at some of the factors suggested as affecting user adoption and continued use of SNS.

In models based upon technology acceptance models (TAMs), both hedonic and utilitarian motivations have been found to be factors in SNS adoption (Ernst, Pfeiffer, & Rothlauf, 2013), and SNS use (Ernst, 2015). Furthermore, a model of mobile social application habitual use and user satisfaction developed by Hsiao and colleagues (Hsiao, Chang, & Tang, 2016) added a social influence factor. Their research showed a significant relationship between social ties, perceived usefulness, and perceived enjoyment, with continuance intention. They found the hedonic factor of perceived enjoyment had the strongest effect on user satisfaction and habitual adoption.

The next model of SNS user acceptance I will consider is the unified theory of acceptance and use of technology 2 (UTAUT2). As the name implies, the UTAUT2 was a development of the UTAUT (Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, & Davis, 2003), a model which sought to tie several behavioural models, including the technology acceptance model, theory of reasoned action, and theory of planned behaviour, together. The UTAUT2 model added hedonic motivation, habit, and price value to the previously postulated antecedents of behavioural intention: performance expectancy, effort expectancy, social influence, and facilitating conditions (Venkatesh, Thong, & Xu, 2012). These additions were designed to align the model more closely with consumers rather than business users. Venkatesh and colleagues believed that the shift in focus to technology marketed directly to consumers, rather than to businesses or organisations, made this extension necessary.

Herrero and San Martín used the UTAUT2 to investigate the adoption of SNSs for sharing user-generated content (Herrero & San Martín,

2017). Due to this study focusing on SNSs specifically, the authors substituted privacy concerns for price value as they considered those to be more relevant to the study, especially as most SNS applications are free to use. This research found a direct link between hedonic motivation, performance expectancy, habit, and behavioural intention to share content on SNSs. However, it did not find any significant link with effort expectancy, social influence, facilitating conditions, or privacy concerns. These results are interesting in that they did not reveal any link between social influence and privacy concerns with intention to share content, two factors that could be considered as especially relevant on SNSs. However, as this research was based on the tourism industry, its applicability to research into L2 usage on SNSs is somewhat limited.

Finally, Lai and her colleagues' recent study of out-of-class learning with technology in Hong Kong revealed that learners were the least likely to use it to engage in social-orientated language learning behaviour (Lai, Hu, & Lyu, 2018). In contrast to the positive experiences the learners associated with using technology for instructional and entertainment-orientated purposes, experiences on social-media were described as inauthentic or embarrassing. Additionally, the participants in the study noted their fear of making mistakes when using English SNSs. Lamb and Arisandy (2019) also found social-media related behaviours to be the least popular in their study of young English learners in Indonesia. Their study also found that learners in that context were more likely to engage in entertainment and instruction-orientated online L2 behaviours. Furthermore, the participants interviewed suggested they would be concerned with losing face if they made mistakes or would be considered arrogant for using English on social-media.

2.5 *Conclusion*

This review of the literature established the long and well-scrutinised history of the TPB and its application for investigating goal-directed

behaviours. It also looked at research carried out in the same context as this study. Previous research into the Japanese context has shown a focus on the paucity of L2 contact and the passive, or quiet, nature of language learners here. This review then looked at technology, and how it has been adapted to and accepted for language learning purposes. The potential for self-directed learning and the effect online gaming can have on language acquisition, willingness to communicate, and motivation levels were some of the positive aspects of technology use. However, some studies failed to produce a significant link between subjective norms and technology related behaviours.

SNSs, specifically the varying profiles of the people who use them, and how they can be utilized for language learning purposes were also considered. Several studies highlighted the connection between personality and SNS use, with extroverts being more likely to be active on SNSs. There were also calls for bridging-activities to facilitate language learning through SNS use and warnings about privacy issues and the possibility of inappropriate contact that may result from efforts to incorporate SNSs into educational contexts.

This research will use a TPB based model to develop an understanding of language learners' attitudes towards L2 use on SNSs. Furthermore, it will attempt to link those attitudes with the international posture construct, one that has previously been shown to impact upon L2 communication in the Japanese context. The TPB was chosen as a model due to its use as a basis for both L2 communication behaviour research through the willingness to communicate construct, and technology adoption through the various technology acceptance models. However, concerns over the suitability of the measures used previously in willingness to communicate research, for contexts such as the one this study will take place in, led to the decision to use the TPB based measures. This review of the literature therefore established how the model to be used in this project was appropriate for the context and the goals of this study. I will show in the following chapters how the measures used in this study were tailored to fit

the context and behaviours being studied. In the next chapter I will report on a pilot study that tested the instruments to be used in this study.

3 Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted in order to develop and test the questionnaire to be used for measuring the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and international posture constructs during the main data collection stage. The first part of this chapter addresses the methodology used for the pilot study. I then outline the research questions, context in which the study was conducted, information about the participants, details about the research measures and social network service (SNS) tasks, in addition to briefly describing the procedures that were followed and analysis that was performed. In the second part I present the results of the pilot questionnaire and detail how they helped to develop the instrument used in the main study.

3.1 *Methodology*

This section details the methods used during the pilot stage of the project. I first list the research questions of this project, before describing the context and participants. I then provide a description of the pilot form of the questionnaire measures and tasks. Finally, I give a brief overview of the procedures used during this part of the study.

3.1.1 *Research Questions*

The main part of this project was a mixed-methods investigation that attempted to answer the research questions listed below. Therefore, the pilot stage tested whether the questionnaire and tasks would be valid and reliable instruments for the purpose of my research. The research questions the main study will seek to answer are:

RQ1: What is the relationship between the frequencies of L1 and L2 use on SNSs among Japanese university students?

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RQ2: What is the inter-relation of the following factors in regard to L2 SNS use: behavioural intention, attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms regarding the behaviour, perceived behavioural control of the behaviour, international posture, and L2 competence?

RQ3: How is the intention to use an L2 on a SNS related to:
  i.   Attitudes towards the behaviour?
  ii.   Subjective norms regarding the behaviour?
  iii. Perceived behavioural control of the behaviour?
  iv.   International posture?
  v.   L2 competence?

RQ4: To what extent does behavioural intention to use an L2 on SNSs predict actual participation in teacher-directed voluntary tasks?

3.1.2 Context and Participants

The pilot study took place in the exact same context the main study was to be carried out in, that is at a university in Japan. The institute in question is a national university, which means it is controlled directly by the Ministry of Education, rather than by a regional or private entity as are the majority of universities in Japan. Additionally, it is a specialist university of education and most students enter with the intention of becoming primary or secondary level educators. Graduation from the university automatically confers a licence to teach at junior high schools in Japan. A large number of students also get secondary licences to teach at either elementary or high schools.

All the participants were first-year students taking part in a compulsory foreign language course. English communication courses are generally mandatory for all students enrolled on four-year degree programs in Japan, regardless of their area of specialisation. The course these

students were on consisted of one 90-minute class per week for the entire 30-week academic year.

As noted above, the participants in this study were all first-year students at a national university in Japan. None of the students were English majors. The sample for the pilot study consisted of 140 participants divided among six groups, and consisted of 62 males and 78 females. The age range was from 18 to 25 (Mean = 19.12, SD = 0.844).

3.1.3 Ethical Considerations

Dörnyei (2007) pointed out that qualitative or mixed-method approaches were likely to increase the likelihood of "ethically relevant moments" (p. 67). For this project the potential for such moments to occur is amplified further as the research took place at the institution where I teach and included some of my own students. Therefore, it is necessary to consider the ethical implications of performing research in a context in which the delineation between performing an empirical study and teaching a course can become unclear. In particular I will reflect on the potential advantages and disadvantages that may arise in cases where the teacher is also a researcher.

Some of the positives that derive from carrying out research in a context one is familiar with are a pre-existing degree of familiarity and a level of comfort between researcher and participants. This shared knowledge can ideally create a store of trust from which to draw upon to facilitate a smooth interaction when carrying out the research. In contrast, a researcher who is unfamiliar with the context and participants first needs to assuage any doubts or concerns of those taking part in the study, so as to avoid being viewed as an interloper.

The disadvantages that are associated with undertaking a research project with participants who are also one's students tend to be issues concerning the validity of the data that will be produced. In these situations the danger is that the participants will find it difficult to disentangle their

perception of the researcher from that of their teacher. This in turn can lead to a power imbalance where participants feel a sense of obligation to take part in the project, and can even lead to them producing answers on questionnaires or in interviews that they feel will please the researcher/teacher (Banegas & Consoli, 2020). This is an especially relevant fear when the teacher/researcher is in a position to assess the students' academic performance. A final area of concern could be the potential for my interpretation of the data to be coloured by pre-existing impressions of the interviewees. In this case there is a danger of reading too much or too little into replies based on previous interactions with the participants.

For this project these concerns were somewhat ameliorated by the limited amount of contact between myself and the participants before data collection began. As noted in Section 3.1.2, the participants were first year students and were on a course that had only met four times before the commencement of the research project. Additionally, repeated mentions, both in the written information distributed and in the oral explanations of the project, were made regarding the lack of connection between the research and the course the students were enrolled on.

One further ethical consideration that needs to be taken into account for this project is not related to the context this research took place in, rather the medium it took place on. As this project focused on SNS behaviour it necessarily had to monitor and record the participants' online activity. Although the behaviour monitored in this project was all of a voluntary nature, and the decision to share it was left completely to the participants, clearly any research that investigates out-of-class activities needs to be sensitive to privacy concerns (Tao, Shao, & Gao, 2017). In order mitigate these concerns the participants were removed from all contact lists created during the study after its completion. The participants were also encouraged to remove or limit access to their postings after data collection if they wished to do so.

Finally, in considering the potential ethical issues with any study, in particular one that employs mixed methods and takes place in a context

where the researcher is also a teacher, as this one does, it is beneficial to view them from both macro and micro perspectives. Kubanyiova (2009) suggested that satisfying macroethical considerations alone does not ensure that the research will be conducted ethically. That is, merely following professional codes of conduct and guidelines does not absolve the researcher from an ongoing responsibility to consider ethical issues as they arise during a research project. For situated applied linguistic research, Kubanyiova adds the microethical considerations of virtue ethics and ethics of care. Virtue ethics refers to "developing the researcher's ability to discern ethically important situations and make ethical decisions" (2009, p. 504). Whereas the ethics of care is recognition of the importance of relationships within a research project. In terms of the current research, it is necessary to acknowledge the impact the previously mentioned contextual factors may have on the data produced in this study. These will be considered during the discussions in Chapter 6.

3.1.4 Questionnaire Measures

A questionnaire to measure the relevant constructs was piloted to ensure its content validity and appropriate psychometric characteristics. The questionnaire used in the pilot study was initially written in English and was prepared with attention paid to the guidelines suggested by Dörnyei and Csizér (2012). The questionnaire contained 56 seven-point semantic differential Likert scale questions that were used to measure the TPB and international posture constructs.

Behavioural intention was measured by giving the respondents five options ranging from 0 to 4. This number reflected how often the respondent indicated an intention to perform a general or specific task when given the opportunity to do so. Choosing 0 would indicate that the participant would never perform the task, at the other end of the scale choosing 4 would indicate that they would perform the task at every opportunity. One of the behavioural intention items referred to SNSs in general, the other four referred to specific SNS platforms (Instagram, Facebook, Twitter, Line).

The questions for measuring the TPB related constructs were adapted from Ajzen (2006) and Francis et al. (2004). They were also the product of an informal elicitation session with some members of the target group. This elicitation gathered information about the group members' attitudes towards the use of SNSs and the potential of using English on them. These responses then informed the wording of the questions and the development of the tasks that will be described in more detail later. Ajzen (2006) and Francis et al. (2004) recommend including both direct and indirect measures for the TPB construct. The direct measures refer to items that attempt to tap straight into the respondents' attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived control regarding the behaviour in question. In this case the use of English on SNSs. The indirect measures are a product of the participants' opinions about the behaviour, their views about the opinions of others, and their evaluations of their own ability to perform the behaviour, with their assessments of the strength of those opinions, views, and evaluations.

International posture is a construct that was developed specifically for the Japanese context to describe an attitudinal disposition that manifests itself in situations that allow for little interaction with L1 English speakers (Yashima, 2002). It is designed to reflect the motivational qualities of the *integrativeness* construct (Gardner, 1985), while acknowledging the reality that the position of English as an international language negates affiliation to any specific country or group. The scales used in this questionnaire were adapted from Yashima (2009).

In addition to the TPB and international posture scales, the questionnaire also contained closed demographic questions along with ones for SNS platform type and frequency of use. After it was translated into Japanese it was then back-translated by a third party to check the accuracy of the translation. A group of students at a different university who fit a similar profile to the participants in the study were asked to think-aloud while they were filling-in the questionnaire. This process led to a slight re-wording of some of the questions and changes to the semantic differential

options for questions that involved actions rather than opinions. The English and Japanese versions of the pilot questionnaire can be found in Appendices A and B.

Measures

Type of SNS platform and frequency of use (5 questions)

These questions covered the different SNS platforms used by the participants and the frequency with which they use them in both their L1 and in the L2.

e.g., How often do you check English content on SNSs? Answers = 1. More than once a day, 2. More than once a week, 3. Less than once a week, 4. Hardly ever, 5. Never

Behavioural intention (5 questions)

This is a direct measure of intention to perform the behaviour under investigation. The scale was designed to link behavioural intention with the SNS tasks created for the study (Francis et al., 2004).

e.g., If you had 4 opportunities to respond to an English comment about your photo on Instagram, how many times would you? Answers = 0 ~ 4

Attitudes towards the behaviour (4 questions)

This is a direct measure of attitudes towards the behaviour using semantic differential scales (Francis et al., 2004).

e.g., Using English on SNSs is boring/interesting. Answers = 1. Boring ~ 7. Interesting

Behavioural beliefs (5 questions) and Outcome evaluations (5 questions)

This scale measures the participants' beliefs regarding the probable outcomes of the behaviour, and their evaluations of the desirability of those outcomes (Ajzen, 2006; Francis et al., 2004).

e.g., Using English on SNSs will improve my knowledge of English vocabulary (behavioural belief). Improving my knowledge of English

vocabulary is desirable (outcome evaluation). Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Subjective norms (4 questions)

This is a direct measure of perceived societal pressures to perform the behaviour (Francis et al., 2004).

e.g., Most people who are important to me want me to try to use English on SNSs. Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Normative beliefs (4 questions) and Motivation to comply (4 questions)

These are the measures for beliefs regarding the opinions of important referents, and the degree to which the individuals feel compelled to adhere to those opinions (Ajzen, 2006; Francis et al., 2004).

e.g., My friends would approve of me using English on SNSs (normative beliefs). My friends' opinion of my SNS use is important to me (motivation to comply). Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Perceived behavioural control (4 questions)

This is direct measure of the participants' levels of self-efficacy and perceived control over the ability to perform the behaviour (Francis et al., 2004).

e.g., The decision to use English on an SNS is under my control. Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Control beliefs (4 questions) and Power of control (4 questions)

These measures assess the participants' degree of self-perceived competence and ability to perform the behaviour, and the strength of those beliefs (Ajzen, 2006; Francis et al., 2004).

e.g., My knowledge of English is good enough to use on an SNS (control beliefs). If my knowledge of English is good enough I am likely to use it on an SNS (power of control). Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Intergroup approach/avoidance (5 questions)

This scale is a measure of the participants' openness to establishing contact with members of other groups (Yashima, 2009).

e.g., I would talk to an international student if I had the chance. Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Interest in international activities and work (5 questions)

This scale measures the level of interest in participating in activities or working in a foreign country (Yashima, 2009).

e.g., I'm interested in an international career. Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Interest in international news (4 questions)

This scale gauges the participants' engagement level with news from abroad (Yashima, 2009).

e.g., I have a strong interest in international affairs. Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Have things to communicate with the world (4 questions)

This scale is a measure of the participants' desire to disseminate their opinions to people abroad (Yashima, 2009).

e.g., I have thoughts that I want to share with people from other parts of the world. Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Demographic questions (5 questions)

These included items for age, gender and also whether they had taken an English test in the past 12 months, and if they had what score they achieved. Finally, there was an item to indicate if they were willing to take part in a follow-up interview at a later date.

3.1.5 Social Network Service Tasks

The choice of tasks used during the pilot stage was informed by the pre-questionnaire elicitation session, and preliminary analysis of the answers received on the questionnaire regarding the use of SNS platforms. The purpose of this part of the study was to try and link the intent to behave with actual behaviour and engagement in L2 SNS usage.

Two tasks were trialled during the pilot study. The first task was on Instagram and the second on Twitter. Both utilized a course-related hash tag to track any responses by the participants. Instagram was chosen for the first task as a higher percentage of respondents to the questionnaire indicated that they regularly used that platform. I also considered that the Instagram task might be less challenging for the participants as they simply had to tag a photo with the appropriate hash tag, then respond in English to a comment or question I then made about the photo. The handout given to the students is shown below (Figure 3.1).

Instagram Task

1. Put the tag #gaikomi on a photo on Instagram.
(any photo is ok)

2. Reply to a comment made by gaikomishaun about the photo in English.

Finished! Easy!

Figure 3.1 Piloted Instagram Task

The Twitter task involved finding and re-tweeting an English tweet, and then again replying in English to a comment or question I made about it. The handout for the pilot Twitter task is shown below (Figure 3.2).

Twitter Task

1. Retweet an English tweet. Put the tag #gaikomi on it. (any English tweet is ok)

2. Reply to a comment made by GaikomiShaun about the tweet in English.

Finished! Simple!

Figure 3.2 Piloted Twitter Task

3.1.6 Procedures

For the pilot stage of this research project the following procedures were adhered to. The ethical approval process described below covered both the pilot and main stages of data collection and thus will not be repeated in Chapter 4.

3.1.6.1 Ethical Approval and Procedures

Prior to the commencement of this research project ethical approval was sought from the Lancaster University Faculty of Arts and Management School Research Ethics Committee. The materials to be used in the project, namely the questionnaire, tasks, and interview questions, were submitted in order to gain approval from the committee. In addition, the procedures planned in order to gain informed consent from the participants, and the data storage methods were also detailed. Subsequently, approval to commence data collection for the project was granted.

During the data collection stage for both the pilot and main study informed consent was gained by carefully outlining the goals of the project.

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The potential advantages of participation and lack of penalties for non-participation were also detailed. The questionnaire and interview data collected were anonymised, the paper copies were stored in a locked cabinet in a private office and the digital files were secured by password on a computer only I have access to.

3.1.6.2 Questionnaire

The first stage in the data collection process was the administration of the questionnaire. The questionnaire was handed out towards the end of a regularly scheduled class. Before the questionnaire was distributed I gave out copies of information and consent sheets that contained details about the goals of the study, benefits of participation, absence of any possible disadvantages of participation, and also how the data obtained would be used and stored (see Appendix C). I also read through the information sheet and highlighted the voluntary nature of participation. After handing out the questionnaire the students had approximately 10 minutes to complete it, or to sit and chat for those who chose not to participate. At the end of 10 minutes I collected both the completed and uncompleted questionnaires, in addition to the consent forms.

3.1.6.3 Social Network Service Tasks

The SNS task sheets were given out on consecutive weeks. Participants in the pilot study were informed that the tasks were completely voluntary, would not contribute to their grades for the course in any way, and that they had one week to complete them. As the tasks were voluntary those who participated used their existing SNS accounts, and those who did not already use the platforms were not required to create an account. In the week following the classes in which the task sheets were distributed I monitored the relevant SNS and responded to any posts tagged with the correct hashtag.

3.1.6.4 Interviews

There were no interviews conducted at this stage of the project. The procedures followed for the interviews carried out during the main data collection phase of the study can be found in Section 4.6.2.

3.1.7 Analysis

The data from the questionnaire were coded and input into SPSS version 23. The resulting data set was checked for any anomalous responses. For the pilot none of the questionnaire responses were considered to be irregular in content. Next, the TPB and international posture scales were checked for validity using principle components analysis (PCA). The scales were also tested for reliability using Cronbach's alpha (α). As will be described in the next section, at this point certain issues came to light with some of the variables and scales, and some amendments were deemed necessary.

3.2 *Results*

This section details the analysis performed on the data collected during the pilot stage of this research project. Specifically, I focus on demonstrating the steps that led to the creation of the amended version of the questionnaire used in the main study.

3.2.1 Type and Frequency of Social Network Service Use

It can be seen in the results below (Table 3.1) that SNS use among the respondents in the pilot study was concentrated on four platforms: Line, Twitter, Instagram, and Facebook. Of particular note was the 100% adoption rate of the Japan based messaging service Line, which also has a newsfeed, among the group surveyed. The absence of any Snapchat users and any respondents choosing the 'Other' option led to those two choices being removed from the questionnaire used in the main study.

Table 3.1 *Type of SNS platform used (n = 140)*

Type of SNS	No. of users	Percentage of users (%)
Line	140	100
Facebook	18	12.9
Instagram	46	32.9
Twitter	109	77.9
Snapchat	0	0
Other	0	0

Table 3.2 shows the frequency of different types of SNS behaviour. Almost all of the respondents (97.8%) indicated that they checked their SNS accounts at least once a day. Furthermore, over half of the respondents (53.6%) answered that they posted on an SNS at least once a day. Unsurprisingly, the response rates for checking and posting English content were much lower, with over half of the respondents (56.4%) saying they never posted any English content.

Table 3.2 *Frequency of SNS use (%)*

Type of use	More than once a day	More than once a week	Less than once a week	Rarely	Never
View L1 content	97.8	0.7	0.7	0.7	0
Post in L1	53.6	17.1	7.1	19.3	2.9
View L2 content	12.1	14.3	16.4	42.1	15.0
Post in L2	0.7	3.6	3.6	35.7	56.4

Table 3.3 shows the correlations between the frequencies of L1 and L2 use on SNSs. This correlation will be used in the main study to investigate the first of the research questions (RQ1). Data from this pilot stage of the study indicates a significant correlation between posting in the

participants' L1 and viewing L2 content. There were also significant correlations between viewing and posting in both the L1 and L2.

Table 3.3 *Correlations of frequency of L1 and L2 SNS use*

	1	2	3	4
1. View L1 content	-			
2. Post in L1	.21*	-		
3. View L2 content	.04	.24**	-	
4. Post in L2	.04	.14	.47**	-

Note. * = p < 0.05; ** = p < 0.01

3.2.2 Behavioural Intention

Possible answers for the behavioural intention measures ranged from 0 (will never perform the behaviour) to 4 (will always perform the behaviour). As can be seen in the mean scores below (Table 3.4), the respondents displayed a very low level of intention regarding the various behaviours. Posting on Facebook was the behaviour with the lowest mean score (0.58), whilst responding to a comment in English on Instagram had the highest (1.44).

Table 3.4 *Behavioural intention (n = 140)*

Behaviour	Range	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. E of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. E of Kurtosis
Post in English on SNS	0~4	0.86	1.175	1.386	.206	1.095	.408
Reply to English comment on Instagram	0~4	1.44	1.642	0.578	.205	-1.357	.407
Post in English class Facebook group	0~4	0.58	1.067	1.849	.205	2.507	.407
Respond to tweet in English	0~4	0.80	1.158	1.330	.205	0.750	.407
Post in Line group English discussion	0~4	0.82	1.133	1.381	.205	1.130	.407

3.2.3 Theory of Planned Behaviour

Principal components analysis (PCA) was performed on the data set to test the validity of the TPB scales, both direct and indirect. Additionally, descriptive statistics and Cronbach's α scores were utilised to examine and improve the reliability of the instrument. The results of these analyses informed choices that produced the questionnaire to be used in the main study. I will discuss the amendments and rationale behind them in more detail in Section 3.3.1.

3.2.3.1 Direct Measures

The options for the direct TPB scales ranged from 1 (strongly disagree or never do) to 7 (strongly agree or always do). Several of the variable's skewness and kurtosis scores indicated that the distribution was not normal. A commonly cited rule of thumb for skewness and kurtosis is that values that fall between +2.00 to -2.00 are considered normal (Lomax & Hahs-

vaughn, 2013; De Laurentis, Maino, & Molteni, 2011). Table 3.5 shows the descriptive statistics for the variables used in the pilot.

Table 3.5 *Theory of planned behaviour direct measures descriptive statistics*

Variable	Range	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. E of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. E of Kurtosis
ATT – Worth	1~7	4.90	1.533	-0.535	.205	-0.210	.407
ATT – Interest	1~7	4.66	1.576	-0.425	.205	-0.290	.407
ATT – Pleasure	1~7	4.11	1.415	-0.545	.205	0.526	.407
ATT – Usefulness	1~7	5.05	1.727	-0.869	.205	0.148	.407
SN - Feel pressure to use English	1~5	1.37	0.703	2.233	.205	5.873	.407
SN - Should use English	1~7	2.44	1.304	0.942	.205	0.937	.407
SN - Want me to use English	1~5	1.92	1.084	1.025	.206	0.142	.408
SN - Expected to use English	1~6	1.93	1.121	1.084	.206	0.564	.408
PBC - Using English is up to me	4~7	6.59	0.709	-1.688	.205	2.109	.407
PBC - Confident to use English	1~6	2.04	1.322	1.356	.205	1.187	.407
PBC - Choice to use English is mine	1~7	6.22	1.147	-2.012	.206	5.181	.408
PBC - Using English is easy	1~7	3.03	1.845	0.421	.206	-1.065	.408

Notes: ATT = attitudes, SN = subjective norms, PBC = perceived behavioural control. Scale: 1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree

As the purpose of the PCA was to test the validity of the measures for the theoretically supported TPB model, three forced factors were used in this preliminary analysis. The results indicated that an orthogonal rotation produced the best solution. Table 3.6 shows the loadings for the preliminary factor analysis using a Varimax rotation for three components: Factor 1 (Eigenvalue: 2.695), Factor 2 (Eigenvalue: 2.621), and Factor 3 (Eigenvalue:

1.625). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .69, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi2$ (66) = 520.33, $p < .05$).

Table 3.6 *Initial three factor loadings (direct measures)*

	Component		
Variable	1	2	3
ATT – Worth	.535	.266	.400
ATT – Interest	.884	.078	.009
ATT – Pleasure	.871	.052	-.085
ATT – Usefulness	.901	-.021	.036
SN - Feel pressure to use English	-.085	.292	-.511
SN - Should use English	.022	.705	-.089
SN - Want me to use English	.084	.792	-.189
SN - Expected to use English	-.052	.663	-.253
PBC - Using English is up to me	-.025	-.026	.740
PBC - Confident to use English	.114	.725	.213
PBC - Choice to use English is mine	-.017	.052	.620
PBC - Using English is easy	.167	.603	.334
% of variance explained	22.46	21.85	13.54

This preliminary factor analysis showed potential issues with the *perceived behavioural control* scale as some of the variables cross-loaded between multiple factors. Additionally, Cronbach's α scores for the scale indicated its reliability was low (α = .49), therefore the variables related to it were removed from the second round of factor analysis. The initial PCA and Cronbach's α scores also suggested that removing the variables for *attitude* (worth) and *subjective norms* (feel pressure to use English) would create a more appropriate factor structure. A follow-up PCA was performed

with the amended scales for attitude and subjective norms, this time using only two factors. The Eigenvalues were 2.413 for Factor 1 (attitude) and 1.991 for Factor 2 (subjective norm). Factors loadings of <0.4 were excluded from the results below (Table 3.7). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .69, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant $(\chi2 \ (15) = 323.44, \ p < .05)$.

Table 3.7 *Amended two factor loadings (direct measures)*

Variable	Component	
	1	2
	(α = .87)	(α = .74)
ATT - Interest	.879	
ATT - Pleasure	.889	
ATT - Usefulness	.914	
SN - Should use English		.778
SN - Want me to speak English		.879
SN - Expected to use English		.776
% of variance explained	40.22	33.18

3.2.3.2 Indirect Measures

Following the procedures suggested by Francis et al. (2004), scores for the indirect measures for the theory of planned behaviour were calculated by multiplying the values obtained for the beliefs with the evaluation variable scores. This method also matches the calculations accompanying Figure 2.2 (in Section 2.1.3) for the initial formulation of attitudes and subjective norms regarding the behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). Several measures were worded negatively and therefore were recoded before the data analysis could be performed. As the possible belief and evaluation scales both ranged from 1 to 7, the value range for the multiplied

score was from 1 to 49. Table 3.8 shows the descriptive statistics for these variables. Some of the items showed signs of non-normal distribution.

Table 3.8 *Theory of planned behaviour indirect measures descriptive statistics*

Variable	Range	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. E of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. E of Kurtosis
BB x OE - Int. friends	4~49	34.31	11.553	-0.466	.205	-0.314	.407
BB x OE - Everyday English	3~49	30.88	12.274	0.022	.205	-1.010	.407
BB x OE - Int. knowledge	1~49	26.38	12.627	0.225	.206	-0.912	.408
BB x OE - Slang	1~49	27.71	13.151	-0.017	.206	-0.738	.408
BB x OE - Vocabulary	1~49	34.38	11.635	-0.357	.205	-0.686	.407
NB x MC - Friend's opinion	1~49	15.41	9.267	0.950	.205	1.533	.407
NB x MC - Teachers	1~49	14.77	9.177	1.021	.206	1.370	.410
NB x MC - Friend's use	1~36	7.19	6.671	1.911	.206	3.950	.408
NB x MC - Respected people	1~49	11.56	12.087	1.434	.205	1.450	.407
CB x PC - Knowledge	1~49	12.10	8.646	1.728	.205	3.600	.407
CB x PC - Embarrassed	1~49	13.61	11.792	0.906	.206	-0.122	.408
CB x PC - Slang knowledge	1~42	9.59	6.767	1.942	.206	5.123	.408
CB x PC - Vocab. knowledge	1~49	14.08	9.910	1.614	.205	2.669	.407

Notes: BB x OE = behavioural beliefs x outcome evaluations, NB x MC = normative beliefs x motivation to comply, CB x PC = control beliefs x power of control

Once again, as the purpose of this stage was primarily to test the validity and reliability of the scales, the number of factors was fixed at three

for the preliminary PCA. The results showed that an orthogonal rotation would produce the best solution and therefore Table 3.9 shows the Varimax rotated loading scores for three components: Factor 1 (Eigenvalue: 3.165), Factor 2 (Eigenvalue: 2.307), and Factor 3 (Eigenvalue: 1.876). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .85, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi 2$ (78) = 667.99, p < .05).

Table 3.9 *Initial three factor loadings (indirect measures)*

Variable	Component		
	1	2	3
BB x OE - International friends	.725	.319	.083
BB x OE - Everyday English	.812	.180	.063
BB x OE - International knowledge	.761	.098	.240
BB x OE – Slang	.809	.050	.149
BB x OE – Vocabulary	.831	.042	.164
NB x MC - Friend's opinion	-.011	.702	.128
NB x MC – Teachers	.331	.128	.590
NB x MC - Friend's use	.131	.818	.002
NB x MC - Respected people	.324	.743	.089
CB x PC – Knowledge	.118	.547	.577
CB x PC - Embarrassed	.215	.187	-.414
CB x PC -Slang knowledge	.235	.297	.664
CB x PC - Vocabulary knowledge	.399	.079	.664
% of variance explained	27.81	17.75	14.43

Again for the indirect measures of the TPB, the preliminary PCA and Cronbach α scores highlighted some potential issues with cross-loading between factors and low reliability. The scale for *normative beliefs and*

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motivation to comply had a Cronbach's α of only .46 and the decision was taken to remove it from further rounds of PCA. The international friends and international knowledge variables for the *behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluation* scale were also removed. Finally, the embarrassed variable from the *control beliefs and power factor* scale was also deleted at this point. The results of a follow-up PCA with only two factors and loadings <0.4 removed are shown below (Table 3.10). The Eigenvalues were 2.280 for Factor 1 (behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluations) and 1.913 for Factor 2 (control beliefs and power factors). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .77, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi 2$ (16) = 275.29, p < .05).

Table 3.10 *Amended two factor loadings (indirect measures)*

Variable	Component	
	1	2
	(α = .83)	(α = .71)
BB x OE - Everyday English	.851	
BB x OE - Slang	.804	
BB x OE - Vocabulary	.867	
CB x PC - Knowledge		.822
CB x PC -Slang knowledge		.805
CB x PC - Vocabulary knowledge		.699
% of variance explained	37.99	31.89

3.2.4 International Posture

The international posture construct measures tested in the pilot stage consisted of 18 variables divided between four scales. As in the TPB direct measures, the options for the variables ranged from 1 (strongly disagree or never do) to 7 (strongly agree or always do). Several of the items

were negatively worded and therefore were recoded before analysis. The kurtosis and skewness values for these variables did not indicate any potential issues (Table 3.11).

Table 3.11 *International posture descriptive statistics*

Variable	Range	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. E of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. E of Kurtosis
IA - Make friends	2~7	5.33	1.401	-0.509	.205	-0.630	.407
IA - Aversion to talking (recode)	1~7	4.29	1.676	-0.127	.205	-0.791	.407
IA - Desire to speak	1~7	4.88	1.599	-0.509	.206	-0.492	.408
IA - Volunteer activities	1~7	3.80	1.701	-0.064	.205	-0.957	.407
IA - Troubled by neighbour (recode)	1~7	5.13	1.459	-0.410	.205	-0.738	.407
IW - Desire to stay home (recode)	1~7	4.23	1.913	-0.013	.205	-1.251	.407
IW - Desire to work abroad	1~7	3.62	1.983	0.169	.206	-1.258	.408
IW - Work for int. org.	1~7	2.65	1.825	0.921	.206	-0.272	.408
IW - Interest in int. career	1~7	3.79	1.932	0.219	.205	-1.239	.407
IW - Aversion to work abroad (recode)	1~7	3.95	2.082	0.004	.205	-1.366	.407
IN - Look at foreign news	1~7	3.48	1.777	0.403	.205	-0.887	.407
IN - Discuss foreign affairs	1~7	3.28	1.734	0.409	.205	-0.722	.407
IN - Strong interest in int. affairs	1~7	4.07	1.751	0.036	.206	-0.966	.408
IN - No interest in int. news (recode)	1~7	5.10	1.538	-0.580	.205	-0.526	.407
TC - Issues to discuss	1~7	3.47	1.913	0.410	.205	-1.015	.407
TC - Desire to discuss	1~7	4.24	1.675	-0.017	.206	-1.038	.408

Variable	Range	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. E of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. E of Kurtosis
TC - Think about int. problems	1~7	3.97	1.668	-0.087	.206	-0.797	.408
TC - No opinion (recode)	1~7	4.56	1.655	-0.387	.205	-0.723	.407

Note: IA = intergroup approach/avoidance, IW = interest in international work/activities, IN = interest in international news, TC = things to communicate with international community

In order to test the validity of the theoretically supported international posture construct scales, a forced four factor PCA was performed on the dataset. The *things to communicate with international community* variables in particular showed cross-loading between factors. The results for the preliminary PCA scores with a Varimax rotation are below (Table 3.12). The Eigenvalues for the four components were: Factor 1 (4.087), Factor 2 (3.849), Factor 3 (2.756) and Factor 4 (1.358). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .86, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi2$ (153) = 1484.11, $p < .05$).

Table 3.12 *Initial four factor loadings*

| | Component | | | |
Variable	1	2	3	4
IA - Make friends	.089	.385	.774	.122
IA - Aversion to talking (recode)	.250	.133	.671	.143
IA - Desire to speak	.131	.305	.791	.011
IA - Volunteer activities	.199	.546	.362	-.248
IA - Troubled by neighbour (recode)	.146	-.093	.428	.567
IW - Desire to stay home (recode)	.008	.345	.001	.680
IW - Desire to work abroad	.161	.836	.236	.179
IW - Work for int. org.	.218	.827	.118	.007
IW - Interest in int. career	.315	.783	.292	.082
IW - Aversion to work abroad (recode)	.107	.685	.220	.344
IN - Look at foreign news	.717	.238	.037	.131
IN - Discuss foreign affairs	.705	.340	.012	.041
IN - Strong interest in int. affairs	.791	.315	.283	-.199
IN - No interest in int. news (recode)	.693	.086	.295	.195
TC - Issues to discuss	.467	.434	.282	-.265
TC - Desire to discuss	.492	.434	.513	-.185
TC - Think about int. problems	.784	.197	.207	-.272
TC - No opinion (recode)	.750	-.069	.100	.208
% of variance explained	22.71	21.38	15.31	7.55

Note: IA = intergroup approach/avoidance, IW = interest in international work/activities, IN = interest in international news, TC = things to communicate with international community

Due to the cross-loading demonstrated by the *things to communicate* scale it was removed from further analysis. Cross-loading of the volunteer activities and troubled by neighbour items for the *intergroup approach/avoidance* scale also led to their removal at this stage of the

analysis. Finally, the two negatively worded items for the *interest in international work/activities* scale (desire to stay home and aversion to work abroad) were removed due to cross-loading and also to improve the reliability score of the scale. The amended three factor scores are shown below (Table 3.13). The Eigenvalues were 2.611 for Factor 1 (interest in international news), 2.494 for Factor 2 (interest in international work/activities) and 2.289 for Factor 3 (intergroup approach/avoidance). Factors loadings of <0.4 were excluded from the results. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .86, and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant ($\chi 2$ (46) = 766.28, p < .05).

Table 3.13 *Amended three factor loadings*

Variable	Component		
	1	2	3
	(α = .84)	(α = .89)	(α = .79)
IA - Make friends			.822
IA - Aversion to talking (recode)			.687
IA - Desire to speak			.839
IW - Desire to work abroad		.829	
IW - Work for int. org.		.851	
IW - Interest in int. career		.806	
IN - Look at foreign news	.789		
IN - Discuss foreign affairs	.784		
IN - Strong interest in int. affairs	.776		
IN - No interest in int. news (recode)	.726		
% of variance explained	26.61	24.94	22.89

3.2.5 Correlations

After the TPB and international posture scales were amended and factor regression scores were calculated, an analysis of the correlations between these constructs and the measure for behavioural intention was carried out. This was performed in order to provide a preliminary consideration of the second research question (RQ2). The results below (Table 3.14) show significant, moderate, positive correlations between all of the TPB constructs and behavioural intention. The international posture constructs also demonstrated significant correlations with behavioural intention.

Table 3.14 *Correlation of behavioural intention and factor regression scores for theory of planned behaviour and international posture scales*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. BI	-							
2. Attitudes (direct)	.21*	-						
3. Attitudes (indirect)	.26**	.27**	-					
4. Subjective Norms	.28**	.00	.13	-				
5. PBC (indirect)	.35**	.18*	.00	.43**	-			
6. Int. News	.17*	.11	.28**	.34**	.21*	-		
7. Int. Work	.26**	.06	.27**	.44**	.26**	.00	-	
8. IA	.23**	.12	.43**	.07	.16	.00	.00	-

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** = $p < 0.01$; BI = behavioural intention, PBC = perceived behavioural control, IA = intergroup approach/avoidance

The third of the research questions (RQ3) will be addressed in the main study using structural equation modelling. This analysis was not performed on the data collected during the pilot stage.

3.2.6 English Proficiency

The results for the English proficiency items were not analysed in depth at the pilot stage. However, it should be noted that both the IELTS and 'Other' options for type of test were not chosen by any of the 140 participants in the pilot stage and were therefore removed from the main study version of the questionnaire.

3.2.7 Actual Behaviour

For the pilot stage of the study I only conducted trials of potential tasks to test the procedures to be used during the main data collection phase. Therefore no data suitable for analysis were collected. However, I will present an example response from each of the two piloted tasks to demonstrate the type of data that will be collected during the main study. Figure 3.3 below shows an example response to the Instagram task. As can be seen, all the comments apart from mine are in Japanese.

Figure 3.3 Screenshot of piloted Instagram task

Figure 3.4 below is an example of the responses from the pilot stage task.

Figure 3.4 Screenshot of piloted Twitter task

3.3 *Lessons Learned from the Pilot Study*

The primary reason for conducting a pilot study was to check and test the questionnaire measures to be used in the main data collection phase. As it contained 70 items the pilot questionnaire was quite long, so there was also a desire to make it more manageable for the main study. Additionally, the pilot study also acted as an opportunity for testing the SNS task procedures and data collection methods.

3.3.1 *Changes to Questionnaire*

The first alteration to the questionnaire was the removal of the SNS platform options for 'Snapchat' and 'Other'. This change was made as none of the respondents at the pilot stage chose either of those options.

Furthermore, the measures for three whole scales, *perceived behavioural control*, *normative beliefs and motivation to comply*, and *things to communicate with the international community* were deleted from the questionnaire due to issues of cross-loading onto other factors or low reliability. A number of items from some of the other measures were also removed due to similar problems.

In some cases, notably for *perceived behavioural control*, the items deleted during the pilot stage were replaced with other measures. As there was no suitable replacement for the indirect *normative beliefs and motivation to comply* measure, the decision was made to remove the other indirect measures in order to maintain balance in the model to be tested. Therefore, the *behavioural beliefs and outcome evaluation* scale, in addition to the *control beliefs and power factor* scale were removed. The new measures and the rationale behind their inclusion will be detailed later in Section 4.4.

Finally, the options for 'IELTS' and 'Other' were deleted from the English proficiency measure on the questionnaire, again due to none of the participants in the pilot choosing them. Table 3.15 below is a summary of the items removed from the questionnaire.

Table 3.15 *Summary of questionnaire items deleted*

Measure	No. of items	Rationale
SNS platform type	2	Not selected
Attitudes	1	Cross-loading/Reliability
Subjective norms	1	Cross-loading/Reliability
Perceived behavioural control	4(all)	Cross-loading/Reliability
BB x OE	10(all)	Balance model
NB x MC	8(all)	Cross-loading/Reliability
CB x PC	8(all)	Balance model
Intergroup approach/avoidance	2	Cross-loading/Reliability
Interest in int. work/activities	2	Cross-loading/Reliability
Things to communicate	4(all)	Cross-loading/Reliability
English proficiency	2	Not selected

Notes: BB x OE = behavioural beliefs x outcome evaluations, NB x MC = normative beliefs x motivation to comply, CB x PC = control beliefs x power of control

3.3.2 Changes to Social Network Service Tasks

In general the procedures and data collection for the SNS tasks went relatively smoothly. The one noteworthy change was the addition of a clear time limit, in Japanese, to the task sheets. This was added in order to comply with Ajzen's insistence that the measurements of behavioural intention and the behaviour itself must occur within a limited timeframe. Ajzen suggested that the lack of an elucidated timeframe in some previous studies contributed to their findings of low correlations between intention and actual behaviour (Ajzen, 2011a). Despite verbal instructions during the SNS task phase of the pilot study, several participants completed the task outside of the designated one-week timeframe. Therefore, I decided to

emphasise the time limit further with the addition of a written instruction in Japanese for the main study.

3.4 *Conclusion*

In this chapter I demonstrated how the instruments used in this project were tested and revised. This process was an important step in conducting a mixed-methods study that involved a model that had not been tested previously. First, the methods used during the pilot stage were detailed. I also included the results of the pilot questionnaire and examples of online tasks. This data was then analysed and used to revise the instruments to be utilised in the main study. This revision process involved the removal and amendment of a number of scales and items on the questionnaire. These changes were made due to issues that arose during the data analysis of the pilot questionnaire which suggested that the scales were unreliable or cross-loaded onto other factors. Additionally, some of the items proved to be unnecessary. The next chapter is an account of the methods used in the study proper.

4   Methods

This chapter details the procedures that were followed during the main data collection phase of this research project. Firstly, I describe the development of the conceptual model that was used as a basis for the study. Then I list the research questions of the study and describe the context where the research was conducted and the participants who took part in it. The second half of this chapter explains the procedures and analysis that was carried out in each of the three stages of data collection: questionnaire, online social network tasks, and interviews.

4.1   *Development of Conceptual Model*

The goal of this research was to investigate second language (L2) use on online social network services (SNSs). In particular I was most interested in exploring the underlying beliefs and attitudes regarding the use of English on SNSs of tertiary level students in the Japanese context, and how those attitudes affected actual L2 behaviour on SNSs.

A comprehensive review of the literature (see Chapter 2) led to the selection of two theoretically grounded constructs. Firstly, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) was chosen due to its long history of successfully modelling the relationship between beliefs and behaviour. As was seen in Chapter 2, the TPB has most frequently been incorporated into L2 learning research via the willingness to communicate construct. However, in this case I decided that the emergent nature of SNS communication, along with some concerns over the suitability of the instruments used to measure L2 willingness to communicate for this context, made use of the original model preferable.

International posture was the second of the constructs used in this study. International posture was developed as a substitute for Gardner's (1985) integrativeness construct with the Japanese context in mind. Yashima (2002) suggested that language learners who do not encounter L1

speakers on a regular basis are unlikely to form opinions of them as a group. Rather, they are likely to hold opinions regarding English due to its position as an international language. I therefore considered it a suitable measure, bearing in mind the contextual considerations outlined below in Section 4.3.

Furthermore, as previous models utilising the international posture construct have shown it to be an antecedent of L2 willingness to communicate (e.g., Yashima, 2002; 2009: Peng, 2015), and L2 willingness to communicate is a representation of behavioural intention, I considered it a suitable addition to the model to be tested in this study.

The model of L2 SNS communication tested in this project is shown in Figure 4.1.
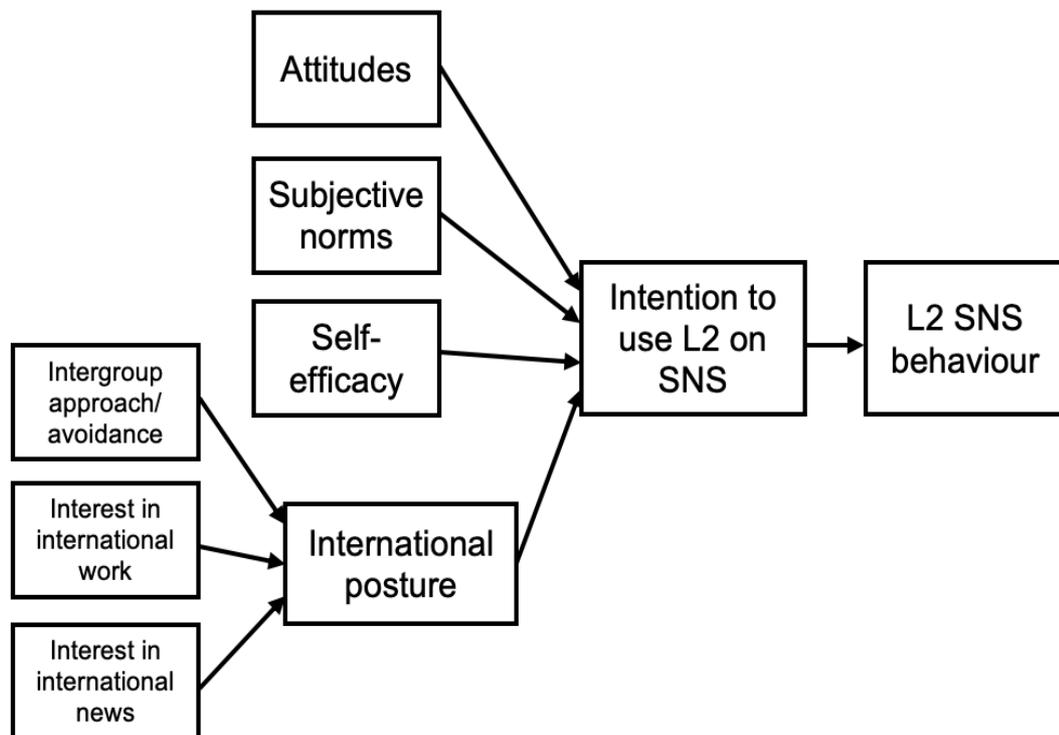
Figure 4.1 Schematic presentation of the tested model

4.2 *Research Questions*

This project was a mixed-methods investigation that attempted to answer the research questions listed below. A questionnaire was used to

assess the participants' use of SNSs and to investigate their attitudes and intentions regarding online L2 usage. A series of online SNS tasks were created to gauge the participants' willingness to engage in L2 SNS behaviour. Finally, interviews were performed to further explore the participants' responses to the questionnaire and performance of the tasks.

A mixed-methods approach has been advocated by many for its capacity to offset the weaknesses of individual research methodologies through the combination of several different types of data collection (e.g., Dörnyei, 2007). Quantitative methods such as questionnaires have the advantage of producing objective and quantifiable results. However, some researchers have pointed out that as online communication is still developing careful consideration of factors such as context make relying solely on quantitative methods problematic (Stickler & Hampel, 2019). Qualitative data can produce more naturalistic data that is more closely situated to the subject and context under investigation. It has, however, sometimes been criticized as creating 'soft' data that cannot be replicated (Richards, 2003).

In this project quantitative methods were used to meet the demands of producing a replicable model of L2 SNS use based on the TPB and the international posture construct. Qualitative methods were used to contextualise the results of the questionnaires and to account for the emerging nature of online communication. Furthermore, the questionnaire data were used to inform both the creation of the online SNS tasks and the selection of the interviewees and interview topics. Therefore, the methodology could be described as explanatory sequential mixed-methods (Creswell, 2014).

For the most part these research questions are the same as those detailed for the pilot stage (see Section 3.1.1). The only amendment of note being the replacement of perceived behavioural control with self-efficacy beliefs. In addition to replacing perceived behavioural control with self-efficacy, a fifth research question was added to include the discussion of

gender differences in the results, and a sixth to take into account the results of the post-task interviews.

RQ1: What is the relationship between the frequencies of L1 and L2 use on SNSs among Japanese university students?

RQ2: What is the interrelation of the following factors in regard to L2 SNS use: behavioural intention, attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms about the behaviour, self-efficacy beliefs regarding the behaviour, and the international posture subscales?

RQ3: How is the intention to post in an L2 on a SNS related to:
   i.   Attitudes towards the behaviour?
   ii. Subjective norms about the behaviour?
   iii. Self-efficacy beliefs regarding the behaviour?
   iv. International posture?
   v.   L2 competence?

RQ4: How do the relationships in RQ3 differ according to gender groups?

RQ5: To what extent does behavioural intention to use an L2 on SNSs predict actual participation in teacher-directed optional tasks?

RQ6: What are the reasons for and impediments to L2 SNS use suggested by the participants?

4.3 *Context and Participants*

As the setting remained the same from the pilot study further details regarding the context can be found in Section 3.1.2. To recap, the data collection took place at a national university of education in Japan. The university in question is not located on the main island; rather it is on the

northern island of Hokkaido. Although the city the university is located in is quite large, its location on an island, separated by a considerable distance from the political and cultural centres of Japan, creates the image of it being quite remote. This remoteness is exemplified by the makeup of the population. Out of nearly 2 million residents less than 14,000 are non-Japanese nationals (City of Sapporo, n.d.). The majority of whom are second or third generation Chinese or Korean nationals whose dominant language is Japanese. It can therefore be assumed that the majority of the students at the university do not come into regular contact with L1 English speakers outside of classroom contexts.

All of the participants in the study were first year, non-English majors taking a compulsory foreign language communication course. The course runs for the entirety of the two 15-week semesters during the academic year, and consists of one 90-minute class a week. Data collection started from week six and continued to the end of the first semester.

One change to the procedures carried out during the pilot was the addition of extra groups. These were added to increase the number of participants in order to expand the size of the data set. For the main data collection phase of this study I sought the cooperation of two colleagues who were teaching the same course to separate groups at different times during the week. This allowed for data to be collected from eight different groups.

To summarise, the participants in this study were all first-year students at a national university in Japan. None of the participants were English majors. The sample for the study consisted of 198 participants in eight different teaching groups, 94 males and 104 females. The age range was from 18 to 21 (Mean = 18.48, SD = 0.598).

4.4 *Questionnaire*

The questionnaire used in the main data collection phase of this project contained 39 items. It was an edited form of the questionnaire used during the pilot (see Section 3.1.3). The measures for the TPB scales were

adapted from Ajzen (2006) and Francis et al. (2004). However, as there were issues with scale reliability and factor cross-loading, the *perceived behavioural control* scale and indirect measures were removed from the piloted version of the questionnaire. The *perceived behavioural control* scale was replaced by a self-efficacy measure developed with reference to Bandura's (2006) guidelines. There was no suitable replacement for the indirect measures, and therefore they were not included in the main study questionnaire.

Ajzen (1985) modelled the perceived behavioural control factor in the TPB on Bandura's (1977) work on self-efficacy. Therefore, there were no theoretical obstacles to a straight substitution of self-efficacy for the perceived behavioural control measures. It is possible that the measures for perceived behavioural control in the pilot e.g., The decision to use English on a SNS is under my control (agree ~ disagree) were too abstract for the students to clearly imagine. The self-efficacy measures (see Section 4.4.1 below) contained items with more easily envisioned actions.

In order to provide a sufficiently sensitive measure, Bandura (2006) recommended either 0 ~ 100 or 0 ~ 10 steps for a self-efficacy scale. The scale chosen in this case was 0 ~ 10. This allowed the participants to circle their answer instead of writing a figure, and mirrored the format of the other items on the questionnaire. The scale was created through an elicitation process with students fitting a similar profile to the participants in this study. Another set of students were then asked to think-aloud while answering the questions. The feedback received suggested that the format, items, and range of responses were a suitable fit for this context.

The international posture subscales, which were adapted from Yashima (2009), were edited slightly for the main questionnaire. The editing process was carried out through the reliability and factor analysis detailed in Chapter 3. In addition to the removal of some items from the *interest in international work/activities* and *intergroup approach/avoidance* scales, the entire *things to communicate with the international community* scale was removed from the final version of the

questionnaire. This scale was not included in Yashima's (2002) original proposed model of international posture, and did not prove sufficiently reliable during the pilot stage.

Apart from a few minor alterations, the demographic and SNS use questions remained essentially the same as in the piloted questionnaire. The only differences being the removal of some SNS platform and English test options. The English and Japanese versions of the main questionnaire can be found in Appendices D and E.

4.4.1 Questionnaire Measures

Type of SNS platform and frequency of use (5 questions)
These questions covered the different SNS platforms used by the participants, and the frequency they use them in both their L1 and in the L2.
e.g., How often do you check English content on SNSs? Answers = 1. More than once a day, 2. More than once a week, 3. Less than once a week, 4. Hardly ever, 5. Never

Behavioural intention (5 questions)
This is a direct measure of intention to perform the behaviour under investigation. The scale was designed to link behavioural intention with the SNS tasks created for the study.
e.g., If you had 4 opportunities to respond to an English comment about your photo on Instagram, how many times would you? Answers = 0 ~ 4

Self-efficacy beliefs (8 questions)
This is a direct measure of the participants' levels of self-efficacy regarding their ability to perform the SNS related behaviour.
e.g., I can read and understand comments written in English. Answers = 0. Cannot do ~ 10. Definitely can do

Attitudes towards the behaviour (3 questions)

This is a direct measure of attitudes towards the behaviour using semantic differential scales.

e.g., Using English on SNSs is boring/interesting. Answers = 1. Boring ~ 7. Interesting

Subjective norms (3 questions)

This is a direct measure of the perceived societal pressures to perform the behaviour.

e.g., Most people who are important to me want me to try to use English on SNSs. Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Intergroup approach/avoidance (3 questions)

This scale is a measure of the participants' openness to establishing contact with members of other groups.

e.g., I would talk to an international student if I had the chance. Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Interest in international activities and work (3 questions)

This scale measures the level of interest in participating in activities or working in a foreign country.

e.g., I'm interested in an international career. Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Interest in international news (4 questions)

This scale gauges the participants' engagement level with news from abroad.

e.g., I have a strong interest in international affairs. Answers = 1. Strongly disagree ~ 7. Strongly agree

Demographic questions (5 questions)

These included items for age, gender and also whether they had taken an English test in the past 12 months, and if they had what score they achieved.

Finally, there was an item to indicate if they were willing to take part in a follow-up interview at a later date.

4.4.2 Procedures

For the main data collection phase the questionnaires were again distributed during regular scheduled classes. For my four groups I set aside 15 minutes at the end of a class. I then distributed the information sheets and read through them while explaining the rationale and goals of the study. I also highlighted the potential benefits and lack of any disadvantages arising from participation in the study. Furthermore, I described how the collected data would be stored and used. I also explained how participation was completely voluntary and that it would have no consequences for their course grades if they chose not to take part. I then gave out the consent forms and questionnaires and directed their attention to the final question, which asked about their willingness to take part in a follow-up interview. The students were informed that those who completed the questionnaire and checked the affirmative box for the interview would be eligible for a gift voucher if they were one of the ones chosen to be interviewed. After finishing the explanations regarding the questionnaire I gave them the remaining 10 minutes of the class to complete it. Students who chose not to participate were free to sit and chat. At the end of the class I collected all the consent forms and questionnaires, regardless of whether or not they had been filled-in.

For the four groups that were taught by other teachers the procedures were essentially the same. I explained the research project in advance to the teachers and asked for their cooperation. After securing permission to use the final 15 minutes of one of their classes I went to the classroom at the appropriate time and repeated the explanations and procedures as above.

4.4.3 Analysis

The main questionnaire data were analysed in the same manner as for the pilot. That is, the data were coded and input into SPSS version 23.

The resulting data set was checked for any anomalous responses, the screening process is described in Section 5.1.1.

In addition to the descriptive statistics and factor analyses, the results of which can be found in Chapter 5, the questionnaire data for the model shown in Figure 4.1 were analysed using structural equation modelling (SEM). Hankins, French, and Horne (2000) detailed the suitability of SEM for analysing models based on the TPB, and its superiority over multiple regression. Among the advantages listed by Hankins and his colleagues was the ability of SEM to allow for the testing of individual variables whilst simultaneously measuring their relationship to each other within complex models. I therefore considered it to be the most suitable method of data analysis for this project.

4.5 *Social Network Service Tasks*

The second part of the data collection phase of this research project involved a series of online SNS tasks. These tasks were designed to closely mimic authentic online communication behaviours and to provide data to help address RQ5. In the following sections I will describe the SNS tasks, the procedures used for them, and the analysis performed on the data collected.

4.5.1 *Procedures*

Similarly to the pilot tasks, the tasks used during the main study were chosen after a preliminary analysis of the questionnaire data. Although I originally planned to create tasks on four SNS platforms (Twitter, Line, Facebook, and Instagram), as less than 10 per cent of the respondents to the questionnaire indicated that they used Facebook I decided not to proceed with that task. In order to retain four tasks I added a second Line task, as that was the only platform with a 100 per cent adoption rate among the questionnaire respondents. The reason for running

four tasks was in part due to the behavioural intention item on the questionnaire offering four chances to write in English on an SNS.

The first SNS task used in the main study replicated the Instagram task used in the pilot study (see Section 3.1.4). The only change to this task was the addition of a time limit in Japanese. I added a time limit to all the SNS tasks in the main study to aid data collection, and to conform with Ajzen's (2011a) recommendation to include one. The second task was also similar to the piloted Twitter task. However, I added a second option where the participants could search for a specially created Twitter account and respond to questions posted there. The two Line tasks were both new for the main study. The first task was to plan a party in a group chat with some friends and send screenshot(s) of the chat to me via email. The second task involved using a QR code to add me to their contact lists. I then created a group with all the participants and encouraged them to engage in a group chat by asking me questions. All the SNS task prompts can be found in Appendix F.

I distributed the task prompts at the end of each class throughout the duration of the project. I explained the task and also reminded the students that participation was completely voluntary and would have no effect whatsoever on their course grades. For the groups taught by other teachers, I followed the same procedure for the first task by visiting the classroom at the end of the period. For the remaining tasks I distributed the task prompts before the class to the teacher, and asked them to hand them out to their students and give a brief description of the tasks.

4.5.2 Analysis

The task data were collected primarily through screenshots of the SNS platforms where the tasks were completed. In cases where the task was completed after the deadline it was still collected, however, it was not included in the analysis. The tasks completed within the timeframe were then matched with the correct participant and added to the SPSS questionnaire data set. This allowed for the correlations presented in

Section 5.2.2 to be calculated. For the purposes of this study the quantity or quality of the language used in the tasks was not recorded.

4.6 *Interviews*

Interviews made up the third and final stage of data collection. In the following section I will discuss the manner in which candidates for the interviews were selected, the procedures used during the interviews themselves, and finally the analysis that was performed on the data collected during this stage.

4.6.1 *Candidate Selection*

Towards the end of the SNS task phase I began to create a list of possible interviewees. Preliminary results from the questionnaires were combined with the task data to make a list of twenty candidates. For the questionnaire data screening the first consideration was whether the participant had checked the affirmative option for the *Are you willing to take part in an interview* question. Once I confirmed which participants were willing to be interviewed, I then divided them into those who had attempted at least one of the SNS tasks and those who had attempted none. From each of those lists I then chose ten candidates who represented a cross-section of the data collected from the questionnaires. This selection was made by comparing the mean scores for the TPB and international posture scales. An attempt was made to have candidates of both genders who had means ranging from low to high, in comparison to the average means for the whole study, for both groups. This was done to find participants with varied profiles in terms of their beliefs and attitudes. I then distributed a handout containing information about the interviews to the twenty candidates. The information was written in Japanese and included the estimated length of the interview (approximately 15 minutes), language the interview was to be conducted in (Japanese), location of the interview (my office), and the

reward that would be given to those who participated (a 2000-yen gift voucher). Also included on the handout was a reminder that participation was completely voluntary and would have no effect whatsoever on the course grades of those who did or did not participate. Instructions on how to arrange the date and time of the interview for any willing participants were written at the bottom of the handout. Regrettably, a smaller number of candidates than expected contacted me to indicate a willingness to be interviewed. In total only nine of the twenty replied to my invitation and scheduling conflicts, compounded by the oncoming end of the semester, finally limited the number of interviewees to only six. A table summary of the interviewees can be found later in Section 5.3.1.

4.6.2 Procedures

The interviews were all conducted in my office at the university where the research project took place. When the students arrived at the prearranged time I first gave them an information sheet and two copies of the consent form. Both the information sheet and consent forms had been translated into Japanese. Time was taken for the interviewees to read the information sheet and ask any questions they had. I also asked for permission to record the interview and explained to them how the data obtained would be stored and used in my research. The participants were then asked to sign and return one copy of the consent form. English versions of the information sheet and consent form can be found in the appendix (Appendix C).

A set of preliminary questions were developed in advance of the interviews. These questions were then translated into Japanese and the translation checked by two bilingual L1 Japanese speakers. The first questions were used to recap some of the topics covered on the questionnaire regarding the participants' type and frequency of SNS use in both their L1 and L2. The following questions were then formed with the goal of examining the self-perceived reasons for the interviewees' general SNS behaviour and their participation or non-participation in the SNS tasks in

this project. Finally, questions were added to access the interviewees' views regarding the usefulness of L2 SNS behaviour for themes related to the overall study. An English version of the preliminary question list can be found in Appendix G. At each stage of the interview process supplementary questions were asked when appropriate to encourage the interviewees to expand on promising topics.

4.6.3 Analysis

After all the interviews had been completed, I first transcribed the whole script verbatim in Japanese. These scripts were then translated into English and the translations were again verified by two bilingual L1 Japanese speakers. Samples of the original Japanese and translated English scripts can be found in Appendices H and I.

The translated interview scripts were then uploaded with the original audio files into Atlas.ti (Version 8). A multistep process was then followed to create a set of codes that reflected the theory-based themes of the research questions, in addition to post-hoc themes that emerged from the interviews themselves. This process was based upon the guidelines suggested by Saldaña (2009). The codes, definitions, and examples are listed in Table 4.1 below. Additionally, a set of the codes along with anonymised interview transcripts were distributed to three colleagues with qualitative data analysis experience. These three inter-coders each analysed one of the interviews and applied the codes as they deemed appropriate. I then compared my own application of the codes with the inter-coders and checked for notable differences. All three dual-codings of the interviews displayed no noteworthy discrepancies.

Table 4.1 *Codes used in analysis of interview data*

Code		Definition (expressions about...)	Example
Theory of planned behaviour	Fun/Interest (ATT)	Pleasure of using English on SNSs	I thought it'd be fun to tag a photo in English and write a comment.
	Usefulness (ATT)	Utility or benefit of using	I think it's useful.
	Showing off (SN)	Appealing to others	People might think why are you using English when you're Japanese.
	Social pressure (SN)	Need to match or impress others	If everyone else were using it I'd have to use it too. I'd have to keep up.
	Social recognition (SN)	Appreciation by others	People will think, "She can speak English", so people will think more highly of you.
	Confidence in ability (SE)	Self-evaluation of ability to use English on SNSs	I don't have the ability to translate what I want to say in English from Japanese.
	Difficulty (SE)	Judgements regarding level of difficulty	It's difficult, so it's not easy for me to read.
	Understandability (SE)	Ease or difficulty of understanding English on SNSs	There have been times when I didn't understand the meaning.
International posture	Intergroup approach/avoidance	Desire to (not) make friends from abroad	I'd like to have more to do with people from abroad.
	Lingua franca	English as a universal form of communication	Not only Japanese people, but people around the world can understand your tweets. I think that's an advantage.
Feelings	Embarrassment	Possibility of, or feelings of embarrassment	Disadvantages are, feeling embarrassed if you make a mistake.
	Fear	Worries regarding negative outcomes	I worry that if I make a mistake my meaning won't get across.

Impediments to English SNS use	Japanese only	Surrounding linguistic environment /available interlocutors	The people reading it are Japanese. So I don't write in English.
	Lack of opportunity	Chances to use English	I don't really have the opportunity.
	Lacks of specific skills	Absence of English skills deemed necessary for SNS communication	If I could read it.
	Privacy issues	Worries about internet security	I have a lock on my account; I don't really want people looking at it.
	Time issues	Not enough time	I didn't have time.
Reasons for SNS use	Communicate (English)	Using English to communicate	I think using SNSs to communicate with English speakers is useful but...
	English employment	Benefits for getting or performing a job	I think that would be an advantage for getting a job.
	Improve English skills	Increasing English ability	If you used it purposefully and looked at foreigner's posts regularly, I guess your ability would improve a bit.
	Get information (English)	Looking at English news etc.	If there were more interesting things to look at, I might want to look at English stuff.
	Communicate (Japanese)	L1 communication	Keeping in touch with friends, keeping in touch with family
	Get information (Japanese)	L1 news etc.	I just tend to look at Japanese stuff.
SNS platform		What SNS sites they use	I didn't really see the point of using Line.
Use in class		Opinions about SNS use in class	I think it would be useful, but I'm not sure about making it compulsory.

4.7 *Conclusion*

This chapter outlined the methods used in this study. It began with a description of the conceptual model employed in this project. I then listed the research questions and gave some background regarding the context and participants. The next section gave an account of the questionnaire and how it differed from the one used in the pilot study, it also detailed the measures used in it. I then described the data collection procedures and analysis used for the questionnaire and tasks. For the interviews, in addition to information regarding the procedures and analysis employed, the interviewee selection process was also detailed. Finally, the coding themes used during the analysis of the interview data were presented. The following chapter is a report of the results derived from this data collection process.

5   Results

This section will detail the analysis performed on the data collected during the main stage of this research project. The data will be divided into three categories: questionnaire, social network service (SNS) tasks, and interviews. In each section the data will be organised so as to address the research questions outlined earlier in Section 4.2.

5.1   *Questionnaire*

The first category of data that will be focused on is from the questionnaire. In this section I begin by briefly describing the screening process before presenting the descriptive statistics derived from the data. The screening and descriptive analysis were both carried out using SPSS Version 23. I will then present the results of the factor and Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) analysis. The SEM portion of the analysis was conducted using AMOS Version 24. The results from this analysis will be linked to the appropriate research questions.

5.1.1   *Data Screening*

The questionnaire was carefully screened for missing or outlying data. Two respondents were completely removed from the analysis as they had missed over 20% of the items. Several variables had missing values, however, as none had more than two omissions, the values were imputed and replaced with the median values for the variable. A number of negatively worded items were recoded at this stage to allow for subsequent analysis.

The data from the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) and international posture related variables were also checked for kurtosis and skewness. Values that fell between +2.00 to -2.00 were considered normal for the purposes of this data screening (Lomax & Hahs-vaughn, 2013; De Laurentis, Maino, & Molteni, 2011). The kurtosis and skewness scores are shown below in Tables 5.5 and 5.6.

5.1.2 Descriptive Statistics

5.1.2.1 Type and Frequency of Social Network Service Use (RQ1)

Taking into account the results of the pilot study (see Chapter 3), the questionnaire in the main study focused on just four social network platforms: Line, Twitter, Instagram, and Facebook. It can be seen in the results below (Table 5.1) that SNS use among the participants in the main study was found to be concentrated on the Japan based messaging service Line, which also has a newsfeed, and Twitter. Less than half of the participants used Instagram and Facebook had a very low adoption rate of less than one in ten.

Table 5.1 *Type of SNS platform used (n = 196)*

Type of SNS	Number of users	Percentage of participants
Line	196	100
Facebook	17	8.7
Instagram	89	45.4
Twitter	150	76.5

Table 5.2 shows the frequency of different types of SNS behaviour. Almost all of the respondents (98%) indicated that they checked their SNS accounts at least once a day. Over a third of the respondents in the main study (34.7%) answered that they posted on an SNS at least once a day. Unsurprisingly, the response rates for checking and posting English content were much lower, with almost two-thirds of the respondents (66.3%) saying they never posted any English content.

Table 5.2 *Type of SNS platform used (n = 196)*

Type of use	More than once a day	More than once a week	Less than once a week	Rarely	Never
View L1 content	98.0	1.5	0.0	0.5	0
Post in L1	34.7	29.1	10.2	15.3	10.7
View L2 content	10.7	14.3	11.2	42.9	20.9
Post in L2	0.5	1.0	5.1	27.0	66.3

The first of the research questions (RQ1) is addressed in Table 5.3. This table shows the Pearson correlations between the frequencies of L1 and L2 use on SNSs. Data from this stage of the study indicates a significant positive correlation between posting in the participants' L1 and viewing and posting L2 content. There was also a significant positive correlation between viewing and posting in the L2. All of the significant correlations were moderate to weak in strength.

Table 5.3 *Correlations of frequency of L1 and L2 SNS use*

	1	2	3	4
1. View L1 content	-			
2. Post in L1	.102	-		
3. View L2 content	.034	.301**	-	
4. Post in L2	.047	.260**	.405**	-

Note. ** = p < 0.01

5.1.2.2 Behavioural Intention

Possible answers for the behavioural intention measures ranged from 0 (will never perform the behaviour) to 4 (will always perform the

behaviour). As can be seen in the mean scores below (Table 5.4), the respondents displayed very low levels of intention regarding the various behaviours. Posting on Facebook was the behaviour with the lowest mean score (0.22), whilst responding to a comment in English on Instagram had the highest (1.05).

Table 5.4 *Behavioural intention (n = 196)*

Behaviour	Range	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. E of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. E of Kurtosis
Post in English on SNS	0~4	0.63	1.017	1.883	0.174	3.182	0.346
Reply to English comment on Instagram	0~4	1.05	1.477	1.136	0.174	-0.249	0.346
Post in English class Facebook group	0~4	0.22	0.573	3.259	0.174	13.172	0.346
Respond to tweet in English	0~4	0.61	1.054	1.823	0.174	2.525	0.346
Post in Line group English discussion	0~4	0.62	1.048	1.833	0.174	2.736	0.346

The high scores for skewness and kurtosis displayed by some of these variables can be attributed to the low adoption rates for some of the platforms. During the interviews some participants indicated that they chose zero for the items related to platforms they did not use. Due to this issue the platform specific items were judged to be unreliable and were not used in any further analysis.

5.1.2.3 Theory of Planned Behaviour

The options for the *attitude* and *subjective norms* scales ranged from 1 (strongly disagree or never do) to 7 (strongly agree or always do). Therefore a value of 4 would indicate a neutral position. The item measuring the

participants' attitudes regarding the usefulness of using English on SNSs had the most positive score (M = 5.13, SD = 1.45). The items measuring subjective norms all had means below 3. The lowest score was for the expected to use English on SNSs variable (M = 1.95, SD = 1.059). This would seem to indicate that the participants do not feel much social pressure to use English on SNSs.

The *self-efficacy* scales had a range of possible answers from 0 (cannot do) to 10 (definitely can do). Only the item for can read and understand (a comment written in English) had a mean greater than the neutral position of 5 (M = 5.23, SD = 1.637). The variable measuring the participants' self-efficacy beliefs regarding confidence in their ability to express themselves in English on SNSs had the lowest score (M = 2.92, SD = 1.887). All the scores are presented below (Table 5.5).

Table 5.5 *Theory of planned behaviour measures descriptive statistics (n = 196)*

Variable	Range	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. E of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. E of Kurtosis
ATT - Interest	1~7	4.58	1.410	0.042	0.174	-0.222	0.346
ATT - Pleasure	1~7	4.34	1.321	-0.098	0.174	0.669	0.346
ATT - Usefulness	1~7	5.13	1.450	-0.592	0.174	0.113	0.346
SN - Should use English	1~7	2.62	1.266	0.707	0.174	0.453	0.346
SN - Expected to use English	1~7	1.95	1.059	1.297	0.174	2.335	0.346
SN - Want me to use English	1~5	2.02	1.007	0.688	0.174	-0.488	0.346
SE - Read & Understand	0~10	5.23	1.637	-0.403	0.174	0.776	0.346
SE - Vocabulary	0~10	3.88	1.611	.0141	0.174	0.534	0.346
SE - Embarrassment	0~10	4.26	2.072	.0461	0.174	0.166	0.346
SE - Grammar	0~10	3.69	1.760	0.193	0.174	0.304	0.346
SE - Slang	0~9	3.13	1.837	0.462	0.174	0.211	0.346
SE - Spelling	0~10	4.68	1.936	0.026	0.174	-0.297	0.346
SE - Confidence	0~10	2.92	1.887	0.540	0.174	0.482	0.346
SE - Express yourself	0~10	3.11	1.912	0.651	0.174	0.816	0.346

Notes: ATT = attitudes, SN = subjective norms, SE = self-efficacy beliefs

5.1.2.4 International Posture

The international posture construct measures tested in the main stage consisted of ten variables divided between three scales. As in the TPB measures for attitudes and subjective norms, the options for the variables ranged from 1 (strongly disagree or never do) to 7 (strongly agree or always do). Several of the items were negatively worded and therefore were recoded before analysis. Again, a value of 4 would indicate a neutral position. The

kurtosis and skewness values for these variables did not indicate any potential issues (Table 5.6).

Among the measures for *intergroup approach/avoidance* the item measuring the desire to make friends with students from abroad had the highest score (M = 5.36, SD = 1.427). All of scores for that scale had a mean score higher than 4. Whereas all of the variables for the *interest in international work/activities* scale had a mean below 4, the lowest being interest in working for an international organisation (M = 2.07, SD = 1.311). For the *interest in international news* scale the recoded measure for no interest in international news had the highest score (M = 4.89, SD = 1.410) and the discuss foreign affairs item had the lowest (M = 2.92, 1.544).

Table 5.6 *International posture descriptive statistics (n = 196)*

Variable	Range	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. E of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. E of Kurtosis
IA - Want to make friends	1~7	5.36	1.427	-0.650	0.174	-0.123	0.346
IA - Aversion to talking (recode)	1~7	4.28	1.490	-0.060	0.174	-0.534	0.346
IA - Desire to speak	1~7	4.99	1.647	-0.367	0.174	-0.929	0.346
IW - Desire to work abroad	1~7	3.71	1.722	0.167	0.174	-0.891	0.346
IW - Work for int. org.	1~6	2.07	1.311	1.358	0.174	1.277	0.346
IW - Interest in int. career	1~7	3.18	1.596	0.614	0.174	-0.286	0.346
IN - Look at foreign news	1~7	3.37	1.633	0.433	0.174	-0.608	0.346
IN - Discuss foreign affairs	1~7	2.92	1.544	0.831	0.174	0.120	0.346
IN - Strong interest in int. affairs	1~7	4.10	1.488	0.068	0.174	-0.713	0.346
IN - No interest in int. news (recode)	2~7	4.89	1.410	-0.354	0.174	-0.686	0.346

Notes: IA = intergroup approach/avoidance, IW = interest in international work/activities, IN = interest in international news

5.1.2.5 Theory of Planned Behaviour and International Posture Scales

Table 5.7 shows the descriptive statistics for each of the scales detailed in the previous sections. All the scales were created from seven-point semantic differential Likert items (1~7), except for the self-efficacy belief items, which had eleven options (0~10). In both cases a low or high

score indicated a corresponding low or high level of belief or confidence regarding the item in question.

Table 5.7 *Descriptive statistics for subscales (n = 196)*

Scale	Range	Mean	SD	Skewness	Std. E of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. E of Kurtosis
Attitudes	1.00~7.00	4.68	1.187	-0.144	0.174	0.391	0.346
Subjective norms	1.00~5.67	2.20	0.911	0.658	0.174	0.256	0.346
Self-efficacy beliefs	0.00~9.38	3.86	1.478	0.202	0.174	0.681	0.346
IA	1.33~7.00	4.88	1.253	-0.330	0.174	-0.347	0.346
IW	1.00~6.67	2.99	1.312	0.585	0.174	-0.134	0.346
IN	1.25~6.75	3.82	1.151	0.409	0.174	-0.328	0.346

Notes: IA = intergroup approach/avoidance, IW = interest in international work/activities, IN = interest in international news

5.1.2.6 Correlations Between Behavioural Intention and Subscales (RQ2)

Pearson correlations between the factor regression scores were calculated in order to make a preliminary analysis of the relationships between the variables and address the second of the research questions RQ2. Bivariate correlations were calculated among the behavioural intention, attitudes, subjective norms, self-efficacy beliefs, intergroup approach/avoidance, international news, and international work scales. The results of the Pearson correlations are presented below (Table 5.8).

Similarly to the correlations provided by the pilot study results (see Section 3.2.5) there were significant, but moderately positive correlations between behavioural intention and the TPB related scales of attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy beliefs. There were also positive correlations between behavioural intention and the international posture subscales. Furthermore, there was significant positive correlation between the international posture subscales.

Table 5.8 *Correlations of scales and behavioural intention*

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Behavioural Intention	-						
2. Attitudes	.308**	-					
3. Subjective Norms	.197**	.027	-				
4. Self-efficacy beliefs	.203**	.009	.042	-			
5. Intergroup Approach/Avoidance	.296**	.444**	.212**	.157**	-		
6. International Work	.234**	.263**	.317**	.146*	.573**	-	
7. International News	.291**	.366**	.236**	.201**	.488**	.506**	-

Note: * p < 0.05; ** = p < 0.01

5.1.3 Model Testing

A two-stage process was conducted in order to test the hypothesised structural regression model generated from the review of previous literature and the results of the pilot study. The first-stage was to test the measurement model using confirmatory factor analysis. In the second part of the process the structural portion of the model was examined.

5.1.3.1 Measurement Model

The measurement model demonstrates how well the observed variables represent a latent variable (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). The measurement model is evaluated using goodness-of-fit indices. Statistics literature has provided a number of different fit indices that may be used to ascertain the model fit. According to Hooper, Coughlan, and Mullen (2008) there exists a considerable difference of opinion on the appropriate indices and their cut-offs values. Table 5.9 presents several

recommendations and the supporting literature for fit indices that can be utilized in research.

Table 5.9 *Recommended fit indices*

Fit indices	Source
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA).	Hu & Bentler (1999)
Chi-square, RMSEA, CFI.	Hair at al. (2006)
Chi-Square, CFI, TLI, RMSEA and SRMR.	Bandalos and Finney (2010)
RMSEA, SRMR, and at least one of CFI, NFI and TLI.	Hancock, Mueller, & Stapleton (2010)

According to Brown (2006) a results section should report several different fit indices to evaluate a model fit. This research will follow Hu and Bentler's (1999) recommendation and present CMIN ($\chi 2$/*df)*, SRMR, CFI, TLI, and RMSEA indices. There are designated cut-off values for each of the different indices to assess the model fit. The recommended fit indices and their cut-off values are presented in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10 *Recommended fit indices cut-off values*

Fit indices	Recommended value	Source
RMSEA	≤.08	Hu & Bentler (1999)
SRMR	≤.08	Hu & Bentler (1999)
CFI	≥ .90	Bentler (1990)
TLI	≥ .90	Bentler (1990)
CMIN	2 ~ 5	Lomax & Schumacker (2004)
Factor Loading	>.50	Bollen (1989)

As shown in Table 5.11, the model showed an acceptable level of fit ($\chi 2$= 490.7, *df* =254, CMIN = 1.932, SRMR = .08, CFI = 0.91, TLI = 0.89, RMSEA = 0.069). As for factor loadings, all items showed acceptable

loadings onto their respective factors with loadings greater than .50, except for IA – Aversion to talking, which was less than .50. However, the item was not removed as AVE (Average Variance Extracted) > .50 was attained for IA (See convergent validity below).

Table 5.11 *Estimates*

Item	Variable	Estimate	SE	CR
Q40	SN – Want me to use English	.814		
Q34	SN – Expected to use English	.792	.110	9.276
Q26	SN – Should use English	.578	.121	7.409
Q24	IA – Want to make friends	.910		
Q32_recode	IA – Aversion to talking	.391	.081	5.539
Q38	IA – Desire to speak	.922	.074	15.740
Q27	IN – Look at foreign news	.582		
Q33	IN – Discuss foreign affairs	.672	.162	6.755
Q39	IN – Strong interest in int. affairs	.802	.173	7.261
Q44_recode	IN – No interest in int. news	.533	.137	5.772
Q25	IW – Desire to work abroad	.857		
Q35	IW – Work for int. organisation	.755	.078	8.655
Q43	IW – Interest in int. career	.792	.087	9.866
Q11	ATT – Interest	.934		
Q12	ATT – Pleasure	.577	.088	6.611
Q13	ATT – Usefulness	.682	.100	7.469
Q21	SE – Express yourself	.823		
Q20	SE – Confidence	.862	.061	17.054
Q19	SE – Spelling	.740	.080	11.439
Q18	SE – Slang	.712	.077	10.872
Q17	SE – Grammar	.854	.069	13.801
Q16	SE – Embarrassment	.690	.087	10.445
Q15	SE – Vocabulary	.820	.065	13.001
Q14	SE – Read & Understand	.643	.070	9.572
Q6	BI – Behavioural Intention	1.000		

Fit Indices	
X^2	490.7
df	254
CMIN	1.932
SRMR	.08
CFI	.91
TLI	0.89
RMSEA	.069

The tested measurement model is shown in the figure below (Figure 5.1).
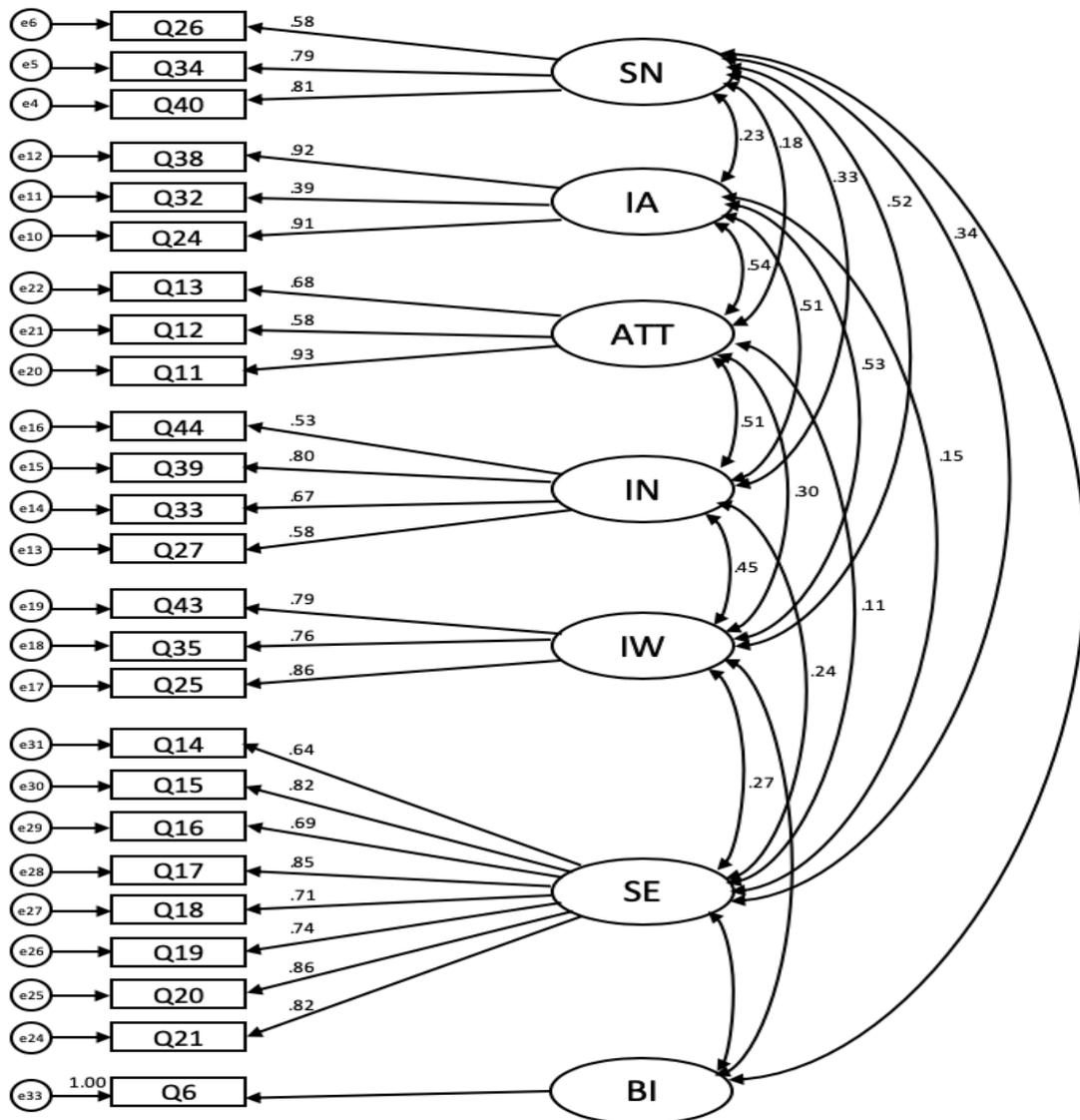
Figure 5.1 Measurement model

The different factors in the study were evaluated for reliability to ascertain the internal consistency of the constructs. *"Reliability* is defined as the extent to which a measuring instrument is stable and consistent. The essence of *reliability* is repeatability. If an instrument is administered over and over again, will it yield the same results" (Mark, 1996, p.285). The most commonly used methods to check the reliability of a construct are Cronbach's alpha (α) and Composite Reliability (CR).

Composite Reliability is a measure of internal consistency of a construct based on the set of items measuring the latent construct. It is calculated based on the factor loadings. Using Cronbach's α alone to judge the reliability of a construct may not always be adequate (Cronbach & Shavelson, 2004). Therefore, both Cronbach's α and CR analysis techniques were used to establish reliability. The Cronbach's α for the constructs ranged between .750 and .921 while the CR values ranged between .746 and .923. The results (see Table 5.12) revealed that the Cronbach's α and CR for all the constructs were over .70, indicating good reliability (Nunnally, 1978; Hair et al., 2011).

Table 5.12 *Reliability*

Constructs	Cronbach's α	CR
ATT (Attitudes)	.800	.784
SN (Subjective norms)	.750	.776
SE (Self-efficacy)	.922	.921
IN (International News)	.810	.746
IW (International Work)	.752	.844
IA (Intergroup Approach/avoidance)	.761	.809

After assessment of the reliability of the scales had been completed construct validity was established to further ascertain the psychometric properties of the instrument. According to Bagozzi, Yi, and Phillips, "Construct validity can be broadly defined as the degree to which a construct actually measures the concept it is supposed to measure" (1991, p.421).

Construct validity is determined through convergent and discriminant validity.

To statistically ascertain convergent validity, the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) statistic is calculated. "Convergent validity is the degree to which multiple attempts to measure the same concept are in agreement. The idea is that two or more measures of the same thing should covary highly if they are valid measures of the concept" (Bagozzi et al., 1991, p.425). An AVE value of .50 or higher establishes convergent validity (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). AVE values for all the constructs in the measurement model were found to be over .50, except for *international news*, which was over .40. However, the CR for *international news* was greater than .70. Malhotra and Dash (2011) suggest that AVE is a strict measure of convergent validity and that it is a more conservative measure than CR. Based on CR alone, the researcher may conclude that the convergent validity of the construct is adequate, even though more than 50% of the variance is due to error. Moreover, according to Ping (2004), if the AVE is less than .50, the convergent validity should be assessed in conjunction with CR. The CR for *international news* was above .70, therefore convergent validity was confirmed for all the constructs. Table 5.13 shows the AVE and values for each of the constructs.

Table 5.13 *Convergent validity*

Constructs	AVE	CR
ATT	.557	.784
SN	.541	.776
SE	.596	.921
IN	.429	.746
IW	.644	.844
IA	.611	.809

According to Straub, Boudreau, and Gefen (2004), "Discriminant validity refers to the extent to which the constructs in the study are different from each other" (p.382). Discriminant validity is the extent to which a

latent variable W differs from other latent variables (e.g., X, Y, Z). To establish discriminant validity, the square root of AVE is compared to the inter-construct correlations between constructs. Fornell and Larcker (1981) found that to ascertain discriminant validity, the square root of the AVE for the constructs must be greater than the construct inter-correlations. Discriminant validity was established through comparison of the square root of AVE with the correlation coefficients between the constructs. The results of this comparison found that discriminant validity was established in each case, as the square root of AVE was higher than the inter-construct correlations. Table 5.14 shows the comparison of the square root of AVE (in bold) with the inter-construct correlations.

Table 5.14 *Discriminant validity*

	SN	IA	IN	IW	ATT	SE
SN	**.736**					
IA	.234	**.782**				
IN	.331	.510	**.655**			
IW	.519	.528	.448	**.803**		
ATT	.176	.540	.515	.304	**.747**	
SE	.342	.147	.236	.273	.113	**.772**

5.1.3.2 Structural Regression Model (RQ3)

In structural equation modelling (SEM), the structural model is designed to assess the proposed hypothesized relationships among the different constructs in the study. The following section summarizes the results from the proposed hypothesized relationships shown previously in Figure 4.1, and addresses the third research question (RQ3).

Structural Model Results

Overall, the model showed an acceptable level of fit: ($\chi2$ = 599.8, df = 265, $\chi2$/df *(CMIN)* = 2.263, CFI = 0.86, TLI = 0.85, SRMR = .16, RMSEA = 0.08).

Hypotheses Testing

H1: There is a significant relationship between self-efficacy (SE) and behavioural intention (BI)

Hypothesis (H1) seeks to ascertain if SE has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that SE has a significant relationship on BI (B = .098, CR = 2.237, p = .025), thus supporting H1.

H2: There is a significant relationship between subjective norms (SN) and BI

Hypothesis (H2) seeks to ascertain if SN has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that SN does not have a significant relationship with BI (B = .105, CR = 1.309, p = .191), thus H2 is not supported.

H3: There is a significant relationship between attitudes (ATT) and BI

Hypothesis (H3) seeks to ascertain if ATT has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that ATT has a significant relationship with BI (B = .209, CR = 3.009, p = .003), thus H3 is supported.

H4: There is a significant relationship between international posture (IntPosture) and BI

Hypothesis (H4) seeks to ascertain if IntPosture has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that IntPosture has a significant relationship with BI (B = .184, CR = 2.245, p = .025), thus H4 is supported.

The hypotheses results are summarized in Table 5.15.

Table 5.15 *Hypotheses results*

Hypothesis	Dependent	Independent	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Results
H1	BI	SE	.158	.044	2.237	.025	Supported
H2	BI	SN	.105	.081	1.309	.191	Rejected
H3	BI	ATT	.272	.070	3.009	.003	Supported
H4	BI	IntPosture	.184	.082	2.245	.025	Supported

The model below (Figure 5.2) shows the results of the hypothesised model for all the respondents in the study. All the paths were significant except for the one from SN to BI (H2).
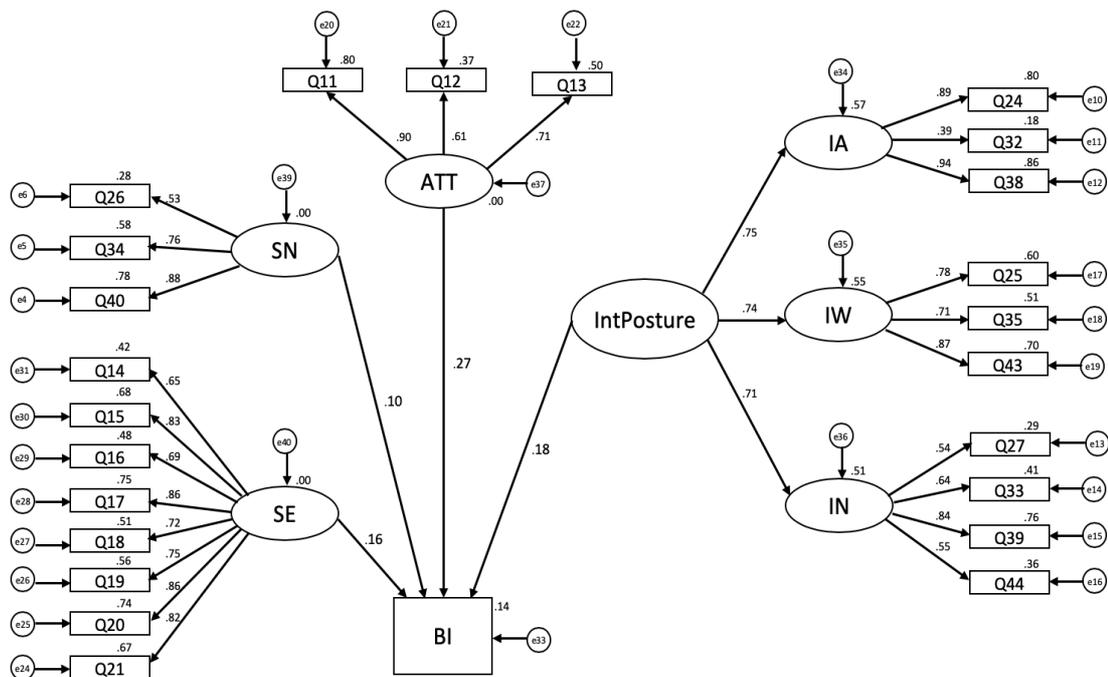
Figure 5.2 Structural model for all respondents

5.1.3.3 English Proficiency Tests (RQ3v)

The results for the English proficiency test items are displayed in Table 5.16 below. As can be seen, the number of respondents who had taken any type of English proficiency test in the previous year was very low, less than one in four. Unfortunately, this unexpectedly low number of values for

the English test variable made an exploration into the research question RQ3v impractical.

Table 5.16 Number of *English proficiency tests taken in previous year (n = 196)*

Type of test	Taken	Not taken
TOIEC	6	190
TOEFL	2	194
Eiken	27	169
Unspecified	4	192
TOTAL	**39**	**157**

5.1.4 Model Testing by Gender Group (RQ4)

The following section contains the results of hypotheses testing analysed separately for male and female respondents.

Hypotheses Testing - Male

H1: There is a significant relationship between SE and BI

Hypotheses (H1) seeks to ascertain if SE has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that SE has a significant relationship with BI (B = .121, CR = 1.905, p = .057), thus moderately supporting H1 for the male respondents.

H2: There is a significant relationship between SN and BI

Hypotheses (H2) seeks to ascertain if SN has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that SN has a significant relationship with BI (B = .267, CR = 2.136, p = .033), thus H2 is supported in male respondents.

H3: There is a significant relationship between ATT and BI

Hypotheses (H3) seeks to ascertain if ATT has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that ATT has a significant relationship with BI (B = .220, CR = 2.420, p = .016), thus H3 is supported.

H4: There is a significant relationship between IntPosture and BI

Hypotheses (H4) seeks to ascertain if ATT has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that IntPosture has no significant relationship with BI (B = .000, CR = .007, p = .994), thus H4 is not supported in male respondents.

Table 5.17 *Hypotheses results - male*

Hypothesis	Dependent	Independent	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Results
H1	BI	SE	.187	.063	1.905	.057	Supported
H2	BI	SN	.234	.125	2.136	.033	Supported
H3	BI	ATT	.361	.091	2.420	.016	Supported
H4	BI	IntPosture	.000	.047	0.007	.994	Rejected

The model below (Figure 5.3) shows the results of the hypothesised model for the male respondents in the study. All the paths were significant except for the one from IntPosture to BI (H4).

Shaun Hoggard - March 2020
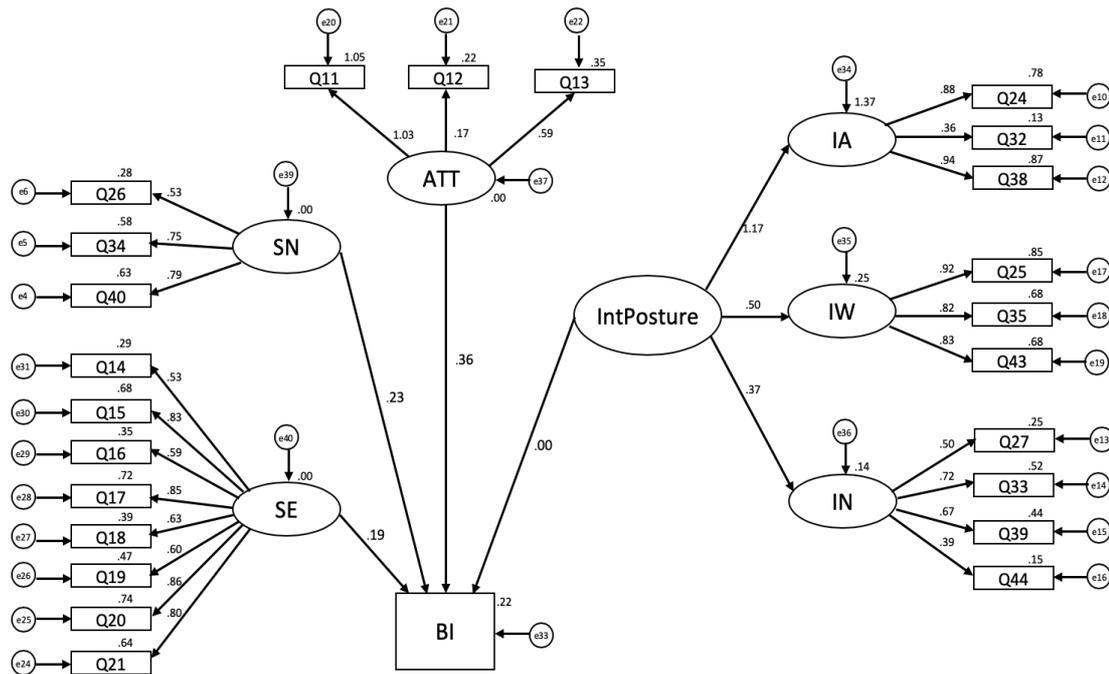
Figure 5.3 Structural model for male respondents

Hypotheses Testing - Female

H1: There is a significant relationship between SE and BI

Hypotheses (H1) seeks to ascertain if SE has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that SE has no significant relationship with BI (B = .107, CR = 1.749, p = .080), thus H1 is not supported for female respondents.

H2: There is a significant relationship between SN and BI

Hypotheses (H2) seeks to ascertain if SN has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that SN has no significant relationship with BI (B = -.007, CR = -.071, p = .943), thus H2 is not supported in female respondents.

H3: There is a significant relationship between ATT and BI

Hypotheses (H3) seeks to ascertain if ATT has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that ATT has a significant relationship with BI (B = .195, CR = 1.925, p = .054), thus H3 is moderately supported in female respondents.

H4: There is a significant relationship between IntPosture and BI

Hypotheses (H4) seeks to ascertain if ATT has a significant relationship with BI. The results revealed that IntPosture has a significant relationship with BI (B = .387, CR = 2.592, p = .010), thus H4 is supported in female respondents.

Table 5.18 *Hypotheses results - female*

Hypothesis	Dependent	Independent	Estimate	S.E.	C.R.	P	Results
H1	BI	SE	.169	.061	1.749	.080	Rejected
H2	BI	SN	-.007	.099	0.071	.943	Rejected
H3	BI	ATT	.195	.102	1.925	.054	Supported
H4	BI	IntPosture	.287	.149	2.592	.010	Supported

The model below (Figure 5.4) shows the results of the hypothesised model for the female respondents in the study. The paths from SE and SN to BI (H1 & H2) were not significant. The ones from ATT and Intposture to were significant (H3 & H4).
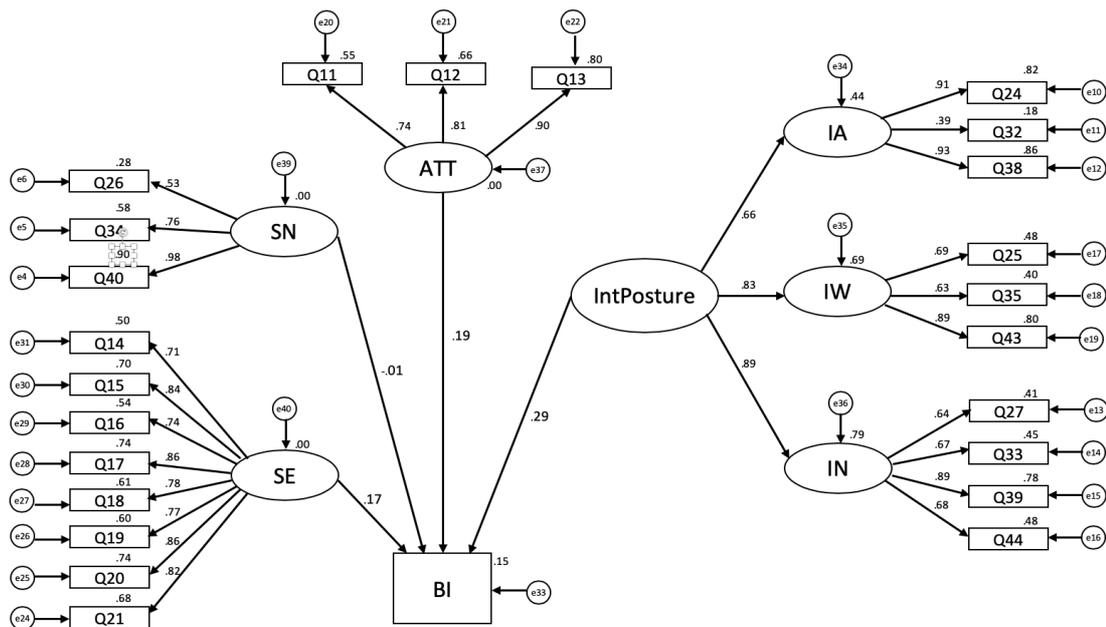
Figure 5.4 Structural model for female respondents

5.2 *Social Network Service Tasks*

This section will present the results of the voluntary SNS tasks that were given to the participants. I will also attempt to address the fourth research question linking behavioural intention with actual behaviour. Information about the procedures and analysis performed for the tasks can be found in Section 4.5.

5.2.1 *Number of Participants*

The numbers of questionnaire respondents who completed the various SNS tasks are shown in Table 5.19 below. There were low rates of participation among all the tasks, with the Instagram based task receiving the fewest participants and the Line based tasks receiving the most.

Table 5.19 Number of *participants completing SNS tasks (n = 196)*

Task	Completed	Did not complete	Absent	Platform users present	% of platform users present
Instagram	6	181	9	85	7.1
Twitter 1 / 2	7[A]	174	16	136	5.1
Line 1	14	171	11	185	7.6
Line 2	9(9)[B]	171	7	189	4.8(4.8)

Note: [A] One participant did both options for the Twitter task. [B] Number in parentheses registered but did not fully complete task.

5.2.2 *Correlations between Behavioural Intention and Actual Behaviour (RQ5)*

Absences and the differing numbers of users across the various platforms made for some difficulties when measuring and tracking the data. In this section I will present a Pearson correlation between the behavioural intention variable and the results from the SNS tasks. For this comparison participants who were absent from class during any of the tasks were

removed. On the questionnaire the behavioural intention measure options were from zero (would never try) to four (would try every time). Full completion of a single task was scored as one. Partial completion of the Line task, those who only registered without completing it, was scored as a half point. The task score was calculated as the sum of the four tasks.

Table 5.20 *Correlation between behavioural intention and task score (n = 156)*

	Behavioural Intention	SNS tasks
Behavioural Intention	-	
SNS tasks	.165*	-

Note: * $p < 0.05$

As can be seen above in Table 5.20 there was a significant, yet quite weak, correlation between the behavioural intention measure and actual task performance. The additional behavioural intention variables targeted at specific SNS platforms and behaviours were not used in the analysis as feedback received during the interviews indicated they may not be reliable (see Section 6.5).

5.2.3 Instagram Task

The first task given to the participants involved tagging a photo with the course related hashtag #gaikomi. They would then respond to a comment posted regarding the photo. The table below (Table 5.21) is a summary of all the photos, comments, and replies posted during the task. As can be seen from the table, there were some issues due to the participants deleting posts or making them private before data collection could be completed.

Table 5.21 *Instagram task data*

Participant	Photo (tag)	Comment	Reply
1	Paper with drawings of people and Japanese writing (I'm making a paper to use a presentation. #gaikomi)	Who are the drawings of?	Old Japanese hairstyles.
2	Badminton racket (New racket!! NANORAY)00!! #gaikomi)	Have you used it yet?	No, I haven't. I will use it tomorrow.
3	Selfie with dog (With my dog [dog emoji] #gaikomi)	Nice dog! What's its name?	Thanks! It's Chiroru.
4	Baseball bat (new bat [fire emoji] #underarmour #iwill #gaikomi)	Are you in the baseball club?	N/A*
5	Selfie with task sheet (#gaikomi)	Nice photo! What kind of 'pose' is that?	N/A*
6	Selfie with 3 friends with ears & whiskers (#gaikomi It isn't fine today, but I study strenuously.)	You look like you're having fun!	Yes, we are. [cat emoji]

Note: * post deleted/blocked before data collection

5.2.4 Twitter Tasks

For the second set of tasks, which were based on the SNS Twitter platform, the participants had two options. Option 1 was to search for the Twitter user @GaikomiShaun and reply to any of the tweeted questions. The second option was to simply retweet any English language tweet and put the hashtag #gaikomi on it. Table 5.22 below summarises all the participants' responses.

Table 5.22 *Twitter tasks data*

Option 1: Reply to question		
Participant	Question	Reply
1		I am going to swim in the sea.
2	What are you going to do in the summer holiday?	I'm going to visit my grandparents.
3		I'm going to play volleyball and basketball.
4	Which country would you most like to visit?	I want to go to Germany!!
Option 2: Retweet an English language tweet		
Participant	User	Tweet
1	@realDonaldTrump	Great news! #MAGA
2	@EliasHarger	#season2 of #fullerhouse is going to be great! I can't wait for #december9
3	@ChilliPeppers	Watch the brand new music video for "Goodbye Angles" now!

5.2.5 Line Tasks

The third and fourth tasks were both based on Line as it was the most widely used SNS platform, with 100% of the questionnaire respondents indicating that they used it. The first of the Line tasks involved the participants planning a party in English using the Line chat function. They were then required to send a screenshot of the chat via email. A summation of the task results is shown below (Table 5.23).

Table 5.23 *Line task 1 data*

Participant(s)	No. in group	No. of turns shown (in screenshots)
1 ~ 7	7	48
8 ~ 11	4	8
12 ~ 13	2	6
14	2	6

The second of the Line tasks was to add me to their contact list and to ask questions in the specially created chat group. As can be seen in Table 5.19 above, half of the participants only completed the first step of the task. A summary of the all the task contents is presented below (Table 5.24).

Table 5.24 *Line task 2 data*

Participant	Question	Answer	Follow-up
1	What is your favourite food? I like Mexican food. How about you?	Normally it's pizza. But on days like today it's [ice cream emoji]	No
2	What is your favourite food?	My favourite food is pizza - How about you?	No
3	What season do you like? I like spring.	I like summer the best. But before I had to shovel snow my favourite season was winter.	Yes
4	What sports do you like?	I like watching ice hockey & playing football.	Yes
5	Please tell me what you did today!	I went to a friend's wedding.	Yes
6	Why did you want to be English teacher in Japan?	I liked Japan since I first came here as a student, so teaching here was a way to combine two things I enjoyed very much.	Yes
7	Do you usually get up? I usually get up at 5:30.	I usually get up around 6:30. But it's too hot to sleep well at the moment.	No
8	What do you do in your free time?	I spend a lot of my free time outdoors, hiking, camping etc. How about you?	Yes
9	Do you know Ansatsukyousutsu?	Interesting question, no I don't. What is it? (Who are they?)	Yes

5.3 *Interviews*

The interviews were conducted after the final SNS task period had finished. A description of the participant selection methods, interview procedures, and analysis performed on the interview data can be found in Section 4.3. After a brief description of the participants, this section will present the interview data in terms of its relation to the main theoretical themes discussed in the literature review with reference to the research questions where applicable. Therefore, the first set of results will be connected to the theory of planned behaviour. This will include data connected to attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy beliefs regarding the use of English on SNSs. I will then look at themes that emerged from the data related to the international posture construct. Finally, other topics not directly related to the TPB and international posture models will be introduced. Most notable among these being reasons for and impediments to English use on SNSs.

5.3.1 *Participants*

Table 5.25 below shows a summary of the interviewee data: age, gender, their mean scores for the questionnaire sub-scales, the SNS platforms they use, and the SNS tasks they completed. Plus or minus signs next to the means indicate if they were higher or lower than the averages shown above in Table 5.7. The names used are pseudonyms.

Table 5.25 *Summary of interviewees*

	Saki	Kana	Taku	Miho	Hiro	Yuki
Age	19	18	18	18	18	18
Gender	female	female	male	female	male	female
ATT	6.33+	4.00-	4.00-	4.33-	4.67-	5.67+
SN	2.00-	3.67+	1.00-	3.00+	2.00-	3.00+
SE	6.25+	2.25-	3.13-	4.88+	4.00+	4.00+
IA	6.33+	4.67-	4.00-	3.33-	5.33+	5.33+
IN	4.50+	3.00+	3.25+	3.00+	3.50+	4.25+
IW	4.33+	3.00-	1.00-	3.33-	3.33-	4.67+
SNS used	L, I & T	L, I & T	L, I & T	L & T	L, I & T	L & I
Tasks	None	None	None	L2	I & T2	I

Notes: ATT = attitudes, SN = subjective norms, SE = self-efficacy beliefs, IA = intergroup approach/avoidance, IW = interest in international work/activities, IN = interest in international news, L = Line, I = Instagram, T = Twitter

5.3.2 *Theory of Planned Behaviour Themes (RQ3)*

The theory of planned behaviour themes were organised by the three categories of attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms regarding the behaviours, and self-efficacy beliefs about the behaviour. Furthermore, those categories were divided into different aspects. The number of mentions for each aspect by those who participated and those who did not participate in the tasks are shown below in Table 5.26.

Table 5.26 *Theory of planned behaviour coding themes*

Coding theme	Aspect	Participant	Non-participant
Attitudes	Fun/Interest	10	1
	Usefulness	13	10
Subjective norms	Social recognition	2	0
	Social pressure	6	5
	Showing off	1	5
Self-efficacy beliefs	Confidence	10	11
	Level of difficulty	9	1
	Understandability	6	3

Attitudes

The coding procedures outlined previously in Section 4.6.2 resulted in two aspects related to attitudes regarding the use of English on SNSs. The first of these revolved around the idea that using English on SNSs was fun or interesting. Miho referred to her participation in one of the tasks in the following way:

"*It was fun to try it. It didn't feel like classwork."* (Miho)

As Miho only participated in the final task she went on to discuss her slight feelings of regret that she had not tried the previous tasks in light of the pleasure she derived from using English online:

"*Even though I only did one task, I wish I'd done more. People who didn't even do one didn't use any English did they? If you just try it, it's fun, it's fun and it was good. I was happy to be able to use some English by doing this."* (Miho)

Another interviewee who participated in the tasks, Yuki, spoke about how she found the novelty of using English on an SNS fun:

"*Well, I thought it'd be great to write something in English. Also to put an English tag on. My English isn't that great, but I like English and want to be able to do it so I thought it'd be fun to tag a photo in English*

and write a comment. Even though it might not have been a suitable photo, even though it wasn't a great photo I wanted to try it." (Yuki)

However, Yuki also made it clear that her level of interest was heavily dependent on the SNS platform in question:

"I enjoyed doing the Instagram task, for me I like Instagram the best. I didn't really see the point of using Line. I haven't really ever used English on Line so..." (Yuki)

There were also several mentions of English use on SNSs being fun or interesting due to its usefulness and potential for communicating with people from different countries. These themes will be addressed further below.

It was notable that none of the interviewees who did not participate in the tasks made any positive comments regarding using English on SNSs being fun or interesting. The only remark in this category from a non-participant suggested that his use of English on SNSs was dependent on there being more interesting content:

"What would make me use English more? If there was an interesting foreigner tweeting, that might make me want to look at it. For example Trump, if there were more interesting things to look at I might want to look at English stuff." (Taku)

In summary, the interviewees who participated in the tasks noted how enjoyable and different to normal class-based English activities it felt. However, it was also apparent that participation and interest was dependent of the SNS platform utilised for the task and the degree to which they viewed the available English language content as worth seeking out.

The second of the coding themes related to attitudes concerned judgements about the usefulness of using English on SNSs. Clearly discussions regarding usefulness will tend to focus on aspects of utility for

various purposes. Miho said she believed that using English on an SNS was useful for learning the language:

"*I think you can learn English for communicating with people through SNSs.*" (Miho)

One of the interviewees who did not participate in any of the tasks also expressed her opinion that using English on SNSs would be beneficial for learning English:

"*If you use it your vocabulary will improve. You'll be able to communicate more in English than if you don't use it.*" (Saki)

Although Miho did not complete the Instagram task she made the following observation about its potential for cross-border communication:

"*On Instagram you can get friends from abroad, you get comments, so that looks interesting. There are no walls between people from different countries, being able to connect with anybody seems like it would be fun to me.*" (Miho)

Taku also conceded the hypothetical usefulness for communicating with and becoming friends with people from other countries by using English on SNSs. However, he hedged his comments by noting obstacles that could prevent that from happening:

"*Yeah, I guess it'd be useful. If you didn't have a lock on your account and you posted something that someone abroad was also interested in, I guess you could become friends with an English speaker.*" (Taku)

From the viewpoints expressed by the interviewees it appears that they consider using English on SNSs most useful for improving their English communication skills and also for interacting with a wider scope of users than the limited range provided by Japanese speakers. The numerous issues generated by privacy concerns will be covered in greater detail later (see Section 6.7.1). I will also delve further into the themes of English as a

lingua franca and its efficacy for intergroup approach in the international posture section below.

Subjective norms

Using English on an SNS is an inherently public undertaking, so the participants' opinions about how their peers and other important social referents view the use of English online are of particular interest. To begin with I will present examples of the interviewees discussing the positive aspects of social recognition. When Miho was asked about the possible work-related benefits of using English on an SNS she made the following comment:

> *"People will think, 'She can speak English', so people will think more highly of you. I think that would be an advantage for getting a job."* (Miho)

Yuki also referenced the positive aspects of appearing to be good at English and linked them to feelings of social pressure:

> *"If the people around me were good at English, I wouldn't want to be left behind so I'd try to use it too. I think it's cool to be able to use English, so if other people were using it I'd try my best to keep up with them."* (Yuki)

Social recognition of English use on SNSs can therefore be seen to have a positive influence on users and their opinions regarding its utility for employment purposes or for boosting social standing.

The theme of social pressure resulting in a perceived need to use English on SNSs was one that occurred quite often in the interviews. Hiro said the following when asked if he would want to use English on SNSs more if his friends were using it:

> *"Yes. I think I'd be carried along by the crowd."* (Hiro)

Two of the interviewees who did not participate in any of the tasks also spoke about the pressure they would feel if their peers were using English on SNSs:

"Well if everyone was using it I'd feel like I'd have to use it too."
(Interviewer: You'd feel pressured?) *"Yes, pressure, pressure [laughs]!"*
(Saki)

"Hmm, well if everyone started using English I guess I'd have to."
(Taku)

In the case of social pressure, it appears that it can take the form of both a light sense of competition and a heavier feeling of obligation in its effects on social media use.

While perceived social pressure could act as a motivating factor, the possibility of being viewed as a show off has the potential to have a negative effect on English use on SNSs. All three interviewees who did not complete any of the online tasks mentioned this as a likely disadvantage of using English on an SNS:

"Disadvantages? People might think 'Why are you using English when you're Japanese?'" (Interviewer: People might think you're showing off?) *"Yeah, that kind of feeling."* (Kana)

"If it's a Japanese person who doesn't understand English there's a chance they might wonder why you're using English [laughs]." (Saki)

"If the only people looking at it are Japanese then the meaning won't be understood, they'll just say, 'Why are you using English?' And they might think you are trying to look cool." (Taku)

As all three non-participants proffered the same disadvantage for using English on SNSs it would appear that this is a common concern. The

idea that Japanese people should only use Japanese to communicate will be looked at more closely in the discussion section (see Section 6.7.4).

Self-efficacy

The third and final aspect of the theory of planned behaviour I will cover are comments related to self-efficacy beliefs, or perceived behavioural control. During the coding stage three themes related to self-efficacy emerged: confidence in ability to perform the behaviour, judgements regarding the difficulty of the behaviour, and opinions about the understandability of the SNS behaviours.

On the questionnaire Saki indicated that she never posted English content on SNSs. When asked why that was, she replied:

"Hmm, well I'm not very good at English [laughs]. Even if I wrote in English I don't think I'd get my meaning across very well [laughs]." (Saki)

Hiro, who did try both the Instagram task and one of the Twitter tasks, also expressed his belief that a lack of confidence hindered his further use of English on SNSs:

"I'm not really confident with my vocabulary or grammar, so if I had a bit more knowledge I'd probably use it more." (Hiro)

It can be seen from the comments above that the interviewees, whether they participated in the tasks or not, shared a common sensitivity to the limitations of their English ability.

Ideas about the perceived difficulty of using English on SNSs were also frequently expressed. An interviewee who did one of the tasks and attempted a second cited the difficulty of the other task and problems with that platform's usability as reasons for not completing it:

"I did try to use Instagram once, but I didn't really understand it so I erased it. It was difficult to use, I couldn't figure out how to use it, so I didn't do it." (Miho)

However, Miho offered up a different perspective when explaining why she indicated she would not participate in SNS tasks on the questionnaire yet took part when the opportunity actually presented itself:

"It seemed difficult, but being told 'Just ask a question', that seemed simpler than that [the questionnaire]." (Interviewer: You think the phrasing of the question made it sound difficult?) *"Why I wonder [laughs]? I have a feeling that my image of a discussion was of quite a difficult topic."* (Miho)

Although she participated in one of the tasks, and her mean scores for the scales were all higher than average, Yuki answered that she rarely looked at English content online on the questionnaire. When asked why she stated:

"Well English is a little difficult. It's difficult so it's not easy for me to read. There have been times when I didn't understand the meaning, so I figure if that's the case I might as well read Japanese content that I can understand." (Yuki)

These three examples demonstrate how difficulties arising from using the different SNS platforms and images of what a discussion entails, in addition to the perceived difficulty of the language itself can all contribute to a failure to engage in English use on SNSs.

The final aspect of self-efficacy beliefs that emerged from the interviews was concerned with issues of understandability. In the quote directly above, Yuki links her inability to understand English content with its difficulty. Below Miho describes how her lack of understanding led to feelings of fear and ultimately made her cease contact with her friend:

"When I went to Vietnam I made a friend, we contacted each other by SNS but I always used a translation application to write messages. I didn't really understand what they were saying, which was scary [laughs]. So I stopped messaging them." (Miho)

Saki also spoke about her worries of miscommunication hampering her use of English on SNSs. In her case it was related to a concern that she might be misconstrued or make a mistake:

"Well, I think there's more chance of not being able to get my meaning across than with Japanese. I don't really understand English [laughs]. So I guess I don't think I'll be able to communicate well." (Saki)

Both of the examples above reveal the ways in which apprehension about whether they can effectively understand English can limit the interviewees' use of it on SNSs. Now that all three categories connected to the theory of planned behaviour have been covered, the next section will be concerned with themes related to international posture.

5.3.3 *International Posture Themes (RQ3)*

A thorough investigation of the interviews could only identify two themes linked to the international posture construct. They were the themes of intergroup approach or avoidance and English as a lingua franca. Table 5.27 below presents the number of mentions of each by the interviewees who participated in the tasks and those who did not.

Table 5.27 *International posture coding themes*

Coding theme	Participant	Non-participant
Intergroup approach/avoidance	7	7
Lingua franca	6	4

Intergroup approach/avoidance

Intergroup approach or avoidance relates to the desire to make connections with members outside of one's own group or a tendency to shy away from them. In this case the groups are defined linguistically. The first extract from the interviews shows Miho's belief that interactions not limited to Japanese speakers would have a positive effect on her:

"Well, if I had friends from other countries, not just from Japan, I'd see different points of view and ways of thinking and my own viewpoints would expand. So I'd like to have more to do with people from abroad." (Miho)

During her interview Yuki pondered whether it was actually possible to make friends with people abroad by just using SNSs. Although she expresses doubts, she is unequivocal in her statement that she would if it were possible:

"I've never used it so I can't really say, but I always wondered whether you could connect with foreign people by using SNS. I wonder if you could make foreign friends and share information with them if you use English. I think perhaps not." (Interviewer: Would you like to make friends from abroad?) *Yes, I would [laughs]!"* (Yuki)

Towards the other end of the spectrum, Taku expressed his reasons for not looking at English content in the following terms:

"Well the language I use is Japanese, so I usually just use Japanese. I don't use English, I don't use SNSs to communicate with people abroad, I just use it for between friends, so I don't look at English." (Taku)

Finally, Miho made a comment that illustrated her view of English and its power as a tool to connect with people all over the world:

"English is used in lots of countries. So if you know English it's fun to make friends in lots of countries [laughs]." (Miho)

The comments presented above show the generally positive attitudes the interviewees had toward making intergroup connections. However, the possibility of making friends from abroad through the use of English on SNSs was squarely situated in the realm of the hypothetical.

Lingua franca

The second theme related to the international posture construct that appeared in the interview data was the idea of English as a lingua franca. This was a widely acknowledged attribute of English, even among those who did not participate in any of the tasks (see Table 5.27). Both Saki and Taku mentioned this as an advantage of using English on SNSs:

"On Twitter etcetera you can look at more people. If you can use English you can understand people from various countries, it's easier to communicate. More than in Japanese." (Saki)

"If you want to communicate with the world, using English means that people other than just Japanese can read your posts, which is a good thing I think." (Taku)

The third interviewee who did not participate in any of the tasks, Kana, also suggested it as a positive:

"Advantages? You can use it to connect with people from abroad, not just with Japanese people." (Kana)

These selections from the interviews show how widely held the view of English as an international language is in the Japanese context. In the next section I will introduce themes relating to the reasons for and impediments to using English on SNSs.

5.3.4 Reasons and Impediments to Use (RQ6)

In this section I will first detail some of the reasons the interviewees gave for using English on SNSs. Examples of comments regarding the use of SNSs for communication in Japanese or for getting information in Japanese will not be introduced, however they are listed in the table below presenting the number of mentions related to each aspect (Table 5.28).

Table 5.28 *Reasons for and impediments to SNS use*

Coding Theme	Aspect	Participant	Non-participant
Reasons for SNS use	English communication	6	6
	English information	2	1
	Employment	4	3
	Improve skills	3	8
	Japanese communication	4	6
	Japanese information	5	2
Impediments to SNS use	Lack of opportunity	3	9
	Lack of time	3	2
	Japanese only	6	12
	Lack of specific skills	4	3
	Privacy issues	4	8

Reasons - English communication and information

The first two aspects covered in relation to reasons for using SNSs are for English communication and accessing English information. As seen above in the intergroup approach or avoidance section, the interviewees mainly view the use of SNSs for English communication in hypothetical terms. Kana linked increased use of English for communicating on SNSs with increases in proficiency and employment prospects;

"I guess if you used English regularly, by the time you come to look for a job it will be easier to communicate in English... so it might be useful." (Kana)

Yuki reiterated her beliefs regarding the potential for English SNS use as a tool for intergroup communication due to its position as an international language:

"Like I said before, you can communicate with a much wider range of people. Not just with Japanese." (Yuki)

She was also one of the only interviewees to make reference to actually using English on SNSs:

"Sometimes I put a simple English word in a Japanese sentence, for example 'I'm (happy) today' [laughs]. Sometimes I like to use words that I've learnt. But I never really think about writing a whole sentence in English." (Yuki)

There were only three mentions of the use of SNSs to access English information and two of them have already been introduced earlier to illustrate other themes. In the third related comment Yuki conveyed that a low level of confidence in her English ability held back her use of it on SNSs. However, she did acknowledge the wealth of information that would be opened up if she had a greater level of English ability:

"There're not many people in the world who know Japanese, are there? But with English I think there are people all over the world you can get in contact with and see their information. If my English were better I'd like to write in English." (Yuki)

It can be seen from the examples provided that using SNSs for English communication and accessing English information is not widespread among the interviewees, although they do see the conceivable benefits of using them for those purposes.

Reasons - Employment and improving skills

The final two reasons for using English on SNSs that I will present are the practical benefits of improving employment prospects and language skills. The interviewees tended to agree that having English skills was a positive when it came time to look for a job:

"Recently it seems like candidates who can use English are favoured. It seems like they have an advantage. I've really noticed that recently,

being able to use English and not being able to are really different."
(Yuki)

However, they seemed sceptical that English use on SNSs could lead directly to employment opportunities:

"If you tweet in English, I doubt this would happen [laughs], but if someone from an overseas company saw it and replied that could lead to a potential career chance." (Hiro)

Taku in particular had a perhaps realistically cynical view of the potential benefits when it came to job hunting:

"I don't really see the connection. I think it depends on how you use SNSs. If you wanted to appeal to foreign companies you could maybe write your profile on Facebook or wherever in English, and that might make it easier for foreigners to view it. If you just use them for personal use like me then I don't really see a connection." (Taku)

When it came to using English on SNSs to improve language skills, however, the interviewees were much more positive. Although she did not participate in any of the SNS tasks, Kana could see how using English online might improve specific language skills:

"For vocabulary and expressions, err... if you come in to contact with English regularly I think your ability will improve." (Kana)

Hiro also expressed a belief that increased exposure to the language would lead to improvement:

"Yes. I think as you write and read English your skills will increase. The more you use it the better it will get, I think." (Hiro)

However, another of the interviewees failed to see a distinction between using English on SNSs and traditional study methods:

"It's okay to post something in English, I guess. But I don't think it's any different from just writing something in English. Posting in English or just been told 'write this in English', I think they both have the same effect on improving English ability." (Taku)

In general the interviewees were positive about the potential for SNS English use to improve their language ability but far more circumspect about its usefulness for the purpose of finding employment. Next I will present some of the reasons suggested as impediments to using English on SNSs.

Impediments - Lack of opportunity, lack of time, and Japanese only

The interviews provided a useful insight into the impediments to the use of English of SNSs as perceived by the participants in the study. In this first section I will present some examples of comments regarding the lack of opportunities to use English, lack of time to complete the tasks, and the monolingual environment the interviewees view themselves as occupying.

Saki made numerous mentions of a lack of opportunity when discussing English use on SNSs. The two comments below illustrate her perceived lack of exposure and also her belief that not having friends from abroad was a limiting factor in her online use of English:

"I don't really come across English. On Twitter etcetera I don't come across people using English."

"I think if I had more foreign friends I'd use it more." (Saki)

Hiro also referenced the link between the members of his social group and the type of content he came into contact with:

"I don't really have the opportunity... [pause]... I just tend to look at Japanese stuff. If a friend tweeted in English I'd look at it. But I wouldn't look at English content, for example Trump's tweets, of my own accord." (Hiro)

The last comment regarding looking at English content on SNSs displays the close link between lack of opportunity and an absence of initiation behaviours:

> *"That's right. I don't really have the opportunity, and to be honest I don't really try to look. So I don't get to see any."* (Yuki)

An issue that was connected with the issue of opportunity was the time factor. In order to facilitate the measurement of the link between behavioural intention and actual behaviour in this study a time limit was imposed for each task. The following comment, by Hiro, demonstrates how the time constraints and collaborative nature of one the tasks combined to prevent a successful completion:

> *"That was the one you couldn't do alone, right? I thought about doing it, I was going to do it with a friend but we just didn't get around to it. The other ones could just be done on your phone on the train or whenever, but with the group one you're dependent on whether the other people want to do it and arranging a time to do it etcetera. That's why I didn't do it."* (Hiro)

Miho also made several mentions of time being a limiting factor on the number of tasks she managed to complete:

> *"I did plan to do it, but the time limit passed so I ran out of time too."*
> *"I planned to do the first task with my friend, we said we would do it, but we didn't get around to it [laughs]."* (Miho)

The next impediment I will focus on is the notion that the interviewees see themselves as residing in a monolingual bubble, surrounded exclusively by Japanese speakers. This was a very common theme in the interviews producing the third highest number of comments, after confidence and usefulness, despite none of the questions specifically prompting observations on that theme. Taku alone made nine comments related to this theme. Here are a couple of examples:

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"The people I'm communicating with are Japanese so why use English?"
"If, like me, all your friends are Japanese then I don't really see any advantages to using English. They just think, 'Why is he writing in English?'" (Taku)

Another of the interviewees who did not participate in any of the online tasks, Saki, also made the point that her linguistic environment made it unnecessary for her to use English:

"If I had foreign friends then I might use English to communicate, but for Japanese people I don't have to use English to communicate, I can just use Japanese. That's what I think [laughs]." (Saki)

The last examples of this theme come from Hiro, who did try some of the tasks. Hiro's comments expressed the sentiment that he did not wish to cause discomfort among his Japanese only social network by introducing English content. In particular, the second comment demonstrates his perception that English use might be unwelcome:

"Some of my friends aren't very good at English, so they're more likely to understand if I tweet in Japanese. I'm not really tweeting to the world as such; it is just for fun among friends. So that's why I don't use English."
"People who don't understand or don't like English will think 'What is he on about?' People who don't understand will prefer it if you write in Japanese." (Hiro)

The examples presented above show how the collaborative nature of some SNS tasks, and the time limits imposed by the study decreased opportunities for successful completion of the tasks. They also demonstrate the strong sense of monolingualism that pervades their thinking about the use of English online. In the next section I will introduce the lack of specific skills and privacy aspects and how they influence English use on SNSs.

Impediments - Lack of specific skills and privacy issues

When asked to discuss changes that might make them increase their use of English on SNSs the interviewees frequently mentioned a lack of specific skills that held them back. Sometimes, as in the case of Hiro below, these were common elements of language:

> *"I'm not really confident with my vocabulary or grammar, so if I had a bit more knowledge I'd probably use it more."* (Hiro)

However, several of the interviewees additionally focused in on skills and techniques specific to the realm of online communication:

> *"That thing where English speakers don't use y-o-u to say you, they just use 'U'. I don't really understand that, so if I understood those kinds of expressions and emojis etcetera. I think it'd be easier to communicate."* (Miho)

> *"Obviously English vocabulary and grammar. Also, to communicate on the Net I think it would be useful to know internet expressions and slang."* (Taku)

Privacy issues were also unsurprisingly a theme that emerged during the interviews. For two of the interviewees who did not participate in any of the tasks privacy concerns were cited as reasons why they would not favour their adoption into coursework:

> *"Some of my friends only want to use SNSs for personal use. They might not like having to use it."* (Saki)
> *"I fundamentally only use SNSs for personal use. I don't really want to use it for anything connected with school." (Taku)*

Other comments highlighted how the interviewees delineated their use of SNSs according to the specific platform:

> *"Line in particular is just for my private personal use."* (Taku)

And finally, one interviewee related how her participation in one of the tasks led to unwanted interactions:

"Well, after I made that public so anyone could see it I got lots of requests from strange users, so I put a lock on it. I didn't erase it. I still have it." (Yuki)

These examples help to highlight how using English online can create a new set of language skill and privacy related issues that need to be negotiated. In the next, and final, section of interview data results I will briefly detail some of the emotion related themes that surfaced.

5.3.5 Emotions and Social Network Service Use (RQ6)

Although an in-depth discussion of emotions is beyond the scope of this project, I will introduce a couple of themes that recurred numerous times during the interviews. The two emotions that emerged during the coding process were the interrelated feelings of fear and embarrassment. Table 5.29 shows the number of mentions for each aspect made during the interviews. However, it should be noted that most of the mentions of each emotion came in close proximity to the other.

Table 5.29 *Emotion coding themes*

Coding theme	Participant	Non-participant
Embarrassment	5	2
Fear	4	0

Embarrassment

Most of the interviewees indicated having feelings of embarrassment in regards to the use of English on SNSs:

"Yeah. I don't have much ability so I get embarrassed." (Yuki)

However, a couple did not:

"I don't feel embarrassed, I just don't use it." (Taku)

(Interviewer - Do you feel embarrassed using English on SNSs?) "*No, not really."* (Hiro)

Fear

As noted above, the fear of negative outcomes expressed by the interviewees were all closely associated with feelings of embarrassment. The two examples presented here both show how the two emotions are linked together:

"Yeah. I don't have much ability so I get embarrassed. I worry if I'm making a mistake." (Yuki)

(Interviewer - What are the disadvantages of using English on SNSs?) *"Disadvantages are, feeling embarrassed if you make a mistake. I'm scared that people will think I'm dumb."* (Miho)

Although this look at the emotional themes that appeared during the interviews was necessarily brief, it does demonstrate the close connection between fear and embarrassment due to making mistakes in such a public forum.

5.4   Conclusion

In this chapter I have attempted to provide a comprehensive cataloguing of the three stages of data collection that took place during this study. The questionnaire data and the quantitative analysis that was performed on it showed the applicability of the proposed theoretical model for investigating online communication behaviours. Structural equation modelling produced significant pathways for all of the proposed connections, except for the one from subjective norms to behavioural intention, when all the data was analysed together. Actual performance of the tasks suggested

that language learners in this context are hesitant to use English on SNSs. The low uptake of the tasks showed that the participants are unlikely to engage in L2 SNS use even when given the opportunity to do so. Finally, the interviews provided a more in-depth perspective on the participants' attitudes and beliefs regarding the use of English on SNSs. The interviews highlighted some of the issues with L2 SNS use as viewed from the perspective of the interviewees and suggested some reasons for and against it. When viewed as a whole these mixed-methods results provide a triangulated picture of the participants' beliefs and behaviours regarding L2 SNS use. In the next chapter I will discuss how these results illuminate the research questions posed in this study when they are combined together.

6 Discussion

In this chapter I will interpret the results and discuss the themes that have emerged during this research project. To do this I will first provide an accompanying discussion to the results detailed in the previous chapter. This discussion will be organised by the research questions outlined in Section 4.2. Each of the first three sections will focus on the questionnaire data, and how the results can be interpreted as they relate to the first three research questions. For the third research question I will then supplement those results with data derived from the interviews. I will then briefly discuss the differences in the data that emerged when it was divided into gender groups to address the fourth research question. Then I will discuss the results from the task and interview data and how they relate to the fifth and sixth research questions.

For the final part of this chapter I will then develop and try to situate some of the themes discussed in the first part of this chapter into a wider context, derived from topics previously covered in the introduction and literature review chapters. This will attempt to place this project within the bodies of research created by other studies that have been carried out in the areas of L2 communication behaviours, technology mediated L2 learning, and the use of social network services (SNSs).

6.1 *Type and Frequency of Social Network Service Use (RQ1)*

The first research question asked; what is the relationship between the frequencies of L1 and L2 use on SNSs among Japanese university students? This question was addressed by calculating Pearson correlations between the self-reported measures of L1 and L2 use on the questionnaire (see Section 5.1.2.1). For these results it is notable that there were no significant correlations between viewing L1 content and any of the other SNS behaviours.

Significant correlations between posting content in the L1 and viewing and posting L2 content suggest that users of SNSs who are active

in their own language are liable to be more active in an L2. There was also a moderately positive significant correlation of viewing L2 content with posting in the L2. This suggests that L2 content related behaviour, be it viewing or posting, is interrelated for the participants in this study. This contrasts with the lack of significant correlation found between viewing content and posting in the L1.

Due to the participants in this study viewing themselves as existing in a primarily monolingual environment, a theme that will be discussed in greater depth later, it follows that it takes a conscious effort to seek out L2 content. It could therefore be supposed that anyone who makes that effort would be more likely to extend that effort into posting in the L2. For the students to be prepared to post in the L2, the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) model suggests that they would be presumed to hold positive attitudes and beliefs concerning subjective norms and their own self-efficacy regarding the behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). In the next section I will look at the TPB and international posture factors, and how the measures for those constructs on the questionnaire were interrelated.

6.2 *Interrelation of Theory of Planned Behaviour and International Posture Subscales (RQ2)*

The second of the research questions asked; what is the interrelation of the following factors in regard to L2 SNS use: behavioural intention, attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms about the behaviour, self-efficacy beliefs regarding the behaviour, and the international posture subscales? In order to investigate this, Pearson correlations were calculated between the factor scores of each of the TPB and international posture subscales, and the behavioural intention variable (see Table 5.8 in Section 5.1.2.6). In this section I will first discuss the results of the correlations of the TPB scales with behavioural intention. I will then discuss the correlation of the international posture subscales with behavioural

intention, before moving on to the interrelation between the TPB and international posture subscales.

6.2.1 Interrelation of Attitudes, Subjective Norms, Self-efficacy Beliefs and Behavioural Intention

Behavioural intention showed significant correlations with all the TPB scales (see Table 5.8). These results support and add to the long history of studies and meta-analyses showing significant correlations of attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy beliefs, with behavioural intention (e.g., Armitage & Conner, 2001). The positive correlations found in this study suggest that the TPB is a suitable model for investigating online communication behaviours in this context.

For the TPB results the positive correlations adhere to the underlying premise of the theory that positive attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy beliefs all contribute to an individual's intention to perform a specific behaviour (Ajzen, 1985). On the questionnaire, attitudes were measured by the participants' rating of the interest, usefulness, and worth of using English on SNSs. As all these variables produced means higher than the mid-point (see Table 5.5), and the correlation with behavioural intention was the strongest among the scales, it can be inferred that in general the participants saw value in the use of English on SNSs and that was related to their intention to use it. However, as with the other scales, the size of the correlation was moderate. It should also be noted that the questionnaire did not ask the participants to specify in what way or how they viewed using English on SNSs to be interesting, useful, and worthwhile.

Subjective norms presented a weaker correlation than attitudes. Additionally, the individual variables for this scale were all considerably lower than the neutral mid-point (see Table 5.5). Based on these results, one can query the impact or strength of the opinions of others in regard to the use of English on SNSs. For students in this context then, it could be argued that social pressure is not keenly felt in regards to their use of English on

SNSs. This supports previous findings in the literature that suggest some language learners in this context do not feel compelled to use English, as they experience next to no L2 communication outside the classroom (McVeigh, 2002), or that they do not view English as being useful (Tsuchiya, 2006). It could also be linked to the emergent nature of SNS communication. Previous studies into internet usage using the TPB have also produced low-levels of correlation between subjective norms and behavioural intention (George, 2004; Shih & Fang, 2004). This is a theme I will return to later in Sections 6.3.2 and 6.7.3.

The correlation of self-efficacy with behavioural intention was also quite weak. For the self-efficacy measure, the questionnaire contained eight variables that gauged the participants' self-perceived ability to perform certain SNS related communication behaviours. As can be seen in Table 5.5 in the previous chapter, the only variable that had a mean score that leaned to the *can-do* side of the scale measured the participants' confidence in their ability to read and understand English content. The questions that asked if the respondents had knowledge of slang or confidence in their ability to write and post in English on an SNS were the variables with the lowest mean scores. These results seem to indicate that the participants had greater self-efficacy beliefs regarding their ability to passively view and understand English content in comparison to their capability to actively engage in creating content. The theme suggesting a preference for passive behaviours tallies in with previous research in this area (e.g., Usuki, 2002; Harumi, 2010). These studies suggested that sociocultural factors present in the Japanese context might contribute to the tendency to passivity.

Despite the significant and moderate correlations found between all three of the TPB scales and behavioural intention, the correlations between the scales themselves were not significant and very weak. However, none of the works underpinning the theory suggest a significant relationship between them (e.g., Ajzen, 1985). Therefore, a lack of correlation here does

not suggest any problems in using the model to investigate this type of behaviour.

6.2.2 Interrelation of International Posture Subscales and Behavioural Intention

All the subscales for the international posture construct displayed significant, moderately positive correlations with the behavioural intention variable (see Table 5.8). This supports the hypothesised link based on previous research by Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, and Shimizu (2004). As the factors that make up the international posture construct all positively correlated with the intention to perform L2 SNS behaviours, these results suggest that the section of Yashima's (2002) model linking international posture with L2 WTC can also be applied to SNS communication behaviours.

The intergroup approach/avoidance subscale had the strongest correlation with behavioural intention. It was also the subscale with the highest mean scores from among the three subscales, with all the variables in the scale on the positive side of the mid-point (see Tables 5.6 and 5.7 for the descriptive statistics of the international posture subscales). As these variables measured how interested the participants were in talking with, or making friends with people from abroad, it could be inferred that by and large the students in this context were open and eager to establish intergroup contact with L1 English speakers.

Yashima suggested that "even though many Japanese learners wish to interact with native speakers of English, they are not particularly interested in identifying with them" (2009, p. 145). This would help explain the positive results for the intergroup approach/avoidance scale in contrast with some of the comments received in the interviews that will be discussed below in Section 6.3.4.

The means for the scale and individual items for the interest in working abroad subscale were all below the neutral mid-point. Among these items, the one that measured the participants' desire to work for an international organisation was especially low. On a seven-point Likert scale

the mean for this item was 2.07. This low score, which pulled down the mean for the whole scale, could have been caused by the participants in this study viewing the possibility of pursuing such a career as being far-fetched and difficult to envisage. As the context of this study was a small, regional university of education, it is possible that the remote prospect of working for such an organisation contributed to the low score. The low mean for this scale in comparison to the intergroup approach/avoidance one could also be due to the participants being content to live and work in Japan, with only occasional sojourns into non-Japanese contexts. This is a topic that will be discussed in more depth later in Section 6.7.4. The correlation between this scale and the behavioural intention variable was also the lowest among the three international posture subscales.

In Yashima's (2009) study linking international posture with Dörnyei's (2005) concept of ideal selves, she suggested that in EFL contexts ideal selves need cultivating, as language learners in Japan cannot easily envisage themselves as requiring L2 skills in their day-to-day lives. This could partly explain the low scores of the interest in working abroad items, as the participants in this study do not view working abroad as being a realistic or obtainable option. It also corresponds to the theme of passive behaviour in these learners, further demonstrated in the next scale.

Interest in international news is the last of the international posture subscales to be discussed. This scale had a similar moderately positive correlation to behavioural intention as the intergroup approach/avoidance one. Although the mean score for the subscale was slightly below the neutral mid-point, two of the four measures used had individual means above it. The two higher means were for the interest in international news, and strong interest in international affairs variables. Meanwhile, the lowest mean was for the discussing international affairs measure. This would seem to indicate that the participants again tended to be passive in their attitudes towards international content, with a focus on absorbing information, rather than critically analysing it and offering their own opinions about it. However, as previously noted, the issue of passivity in this context is a

complex one. Although the behaviour may appear passive to an outside observer, the internal perception of the language learner may be different (Usuki, 2002), or a culture-specific learning strategy (Harumi, 2010).

The international posture subscales all had strong, significant correlations between them. This supports previous research carried out by Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide and Shimizu (2004) that showed a strong interrelation between the subscales of the international posture construct. Yashima's original intention when proposing the international posture construct was to capture "a general attitude towards the international community that influences English learning and communication in Japanese learners" (Yashima, 2002, pp.63-4). The results in this study affirm that the attitudes of learners towards intergroup approach/avoidance, and interest in international news and work in this context are closely interrelated. This interrelation suggests that Yashima's supposition that language learners in Japan develop an attitude towards English that is based upon its position as an international language holds true in this case. However, as this study did not measure other attitudinal variables, it does not exclude the possibility that they also play a role.

6.2.3 Interrelation of Attitudes, Subjective Norms, Self-efficacy Beliefs and International Posture Subscales

The attitude scale from the TPB showed significant correlations with all of the international posture subscales. These were the highest correlations of any of the TPB scales with the intergroup approach/avoidance and interest in international news subscales. The correlation between attitudes and intergroup approach/avoidance indicates that the participants who were open to contact with L2 speakers were also likely to exhibit a positive outlook regarding the use of English on SNSs. Interest in working abroad was only weakly correlated with attitudes. This lends further support to the supposition that, even when the participants have positive attitudes towards using English online, they are not closely linked with a desire to immerse themselves in a foreign culture.

Subjective norms had significant correlations with all of the international posture subscales. These correlations were weaker for intergroup approach/avoidance and interest in international news in comparison to attitudes. However, the correlation between subjective norms and interest in working abroad was the highest correlation among the TPB scales. This suggest that those who took into account the views of their social referents may be more likely to be open to an international career.

Out of the three TPB factors, self-efficacy beliefs had the weakest correlations with all of the international posture subscales. As the self-efficacy scales measured the participants' self-assessed ability to perform certain SNS communication behaviours, it would appear that confidence in one's aptitude does not closely align with a high level of interest in English as an international language. This could possibly be a reflection of the disconnect the L2 learners in this study have, between viewing English as merely an academic skill rather than a useful conduit for expanding their circle of communication.

In this section I have presented a discussion of the interrelation between behavioural intention and the subscales representing the TPB and international posture constructs. Although this discussion proposed possible reasons behind certain correlations and themes that appear to be emerging from the data, it should be noted that correlations alone are not sufficient to confirm any causal relationship between the factors in this study. In order to achieve a clearer understanding of how these measures are related to the behavioural intention to use English on an SNS, I will next discuss the results of the structural equation modelling that was carried out in this study.

6.3 *Relationship of Behavioural Intention with Attitudes, Subjective Norms, and International Posture (RQ3)*

The third research question asked; how is the intention to post in an L2 on an SNS related to: attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms about the behaviour, self-efficacy beliefs regarding the behaviour, international posture, and L2 competence? This part of the analysis used structural equation modelling (SEM) to measure the effect each of the preceding factors had on behavioural intention. The results of the SEM analysis can be found in Section 5.1.3. Unfortunately, L2 competence could not be included in the analysis (see Section 5.1.3.3).

The research model (Figure 4.1 in Chapter 4) proposed a link from each of the TPB sub-scales and international posture with the measure for behavioural intention. Several indicators suggested that this model provided a good fit for the data. When all of the questionnaire respondents were included in the analysis the model showed significant relationships for all of the hypothesised links, apart from the one between subjective norms and behavioural intention.

In this section I will first look at the questionnaire data and discuss how they relate to each factor for the group as a whole. I will then discuss some of the interview data and use them to further illuminate the results gleaned from the questionnaire analysis and to provide a deeper insight into the participants' views on L2 SNS use.

Before the introduction of data from the interviews, however, it is worth reflecting on some of the potential issues raised in Section 3.1.3. As a number of the interviewees were students on one of my courses, and all of them were enrolled at the university at which I teach, the power imbalance that was present during the interviews should be noted. Friedman (2020) suggested that the interview itself could become a part of the process it is supposed to be investigating. In this project it could be that the interviews and the topics covered in them were affected by the respective position of the researcher and participants and this will be considered as I discuss the findings. Additionally, as participation in the interviews was voluntary, the

self-selected nature of the interviewees should also be kept in mind during these discussions. Clearly the possibility exists that the students who volunteered to be interviewed are not representative of the group as a whole.

6.3.1 Relationship of Behavioural Intention with Attitudes

The path from attitudes to behavioural intention was the strongest to emerge from the analysis. This is consistent with previous meta-analysis of the TPB which showed attitudes having the largest effect on intention for all types of behaviour (McEachan, Conner, Taylor, & Lawton, 2011). It is also consistent with previous studies into language learning in online settings (e.g., Alhamami, 2018). This result indicates that for the participants in this study, their personal judgements regarding the usefulness, interest, and worthwhileness of using English on SNSs were the most significant predictors of their intention to perform the behaviour. I will now use some of the interview data to provide more depth and background to the results of the SEM analysis.

A review of the interview data related to the TPB (see Section 5.3.2) produced two distinctive themes connected to attitudes. The first of these were the hedonic related topics of fun and interest. The second theme to emerge from the data was more utilitarian and focused on the usefulness of using English on an SNS.

Hedonic

Among the interviewees there were far more mentions of the hedonic qualities of L2 use on SNSs from those who participated in the tasks than from those who did not (ten to one). These comments tended to focus on how fun it was to experience the novel sensation of using English on an SNS. As noted in Section 2.3.1.2, the hedonic-motivation system adoption model (Lowry, Gaskin, Twyman, Hammer, & Roberts, 2013) emphasised how users were intrinsically motivated to use technology such as games or social-media by the joy, or cognitive absorption, they experienced whilst using

them. The level of joy experienced in this case could also have been magnified due to the lack of L2 interaction opportunities experienced by the participants in their regular lives.

However, one interviewee pointed out that her enjoyment of the Instagram task was closely linked to the platform itself, and that she could not foresee using English on the Line messenger application. This raises the issue of whether it is feasible to classify all SNS behaviours on all SNSs as belonging to the same type, for the purposes of studying L2 online communication. There appears to be a delineation of use between the platforms that are more social-media focused, such as Twitter and Instagram, and the ones that are used more for interpersonal communication, such as Line. I will return to this theme in Section 6.3.2 below.

Utilitarian

The comments made regarding the utilitarian aspects of L2 SNS use were more or less evenly spread between those who did and did not participate in the tasks. The majority of the remarks centred on the usefulness of using English on SNSs for improving language skills and connecting with people from other countries. From the distribution and content of these comments it appears that the participants in this study see practical benefits to using English on an SNS. In particular, considering the lack of opportunities for interactions with L1 English speakers in this context, the interviewees seemed to view SNSs as being useful for their ability to facilitate authentic English communication.

The genesis of this research project was to explore the feasibility of using SNSs to facilitate and promote L2 learning in contexts with few opportunities for contact with speakers of the target language. The generally positive attitudes displayed by the interviewees regarding the possibility of using SNSs for improving their English skills and interacting with English speakers indicates some opportunity in this regard. However, it should also be noted that although the participants did seem to

acknowledge the potential of SNSs for improving their language ability, and increasing their contact with L1 English speakers, that did not always lead to participation in the tasks.

6.3.2 Relationship of Behavioural Intention with Subjective Norms

The path in the research model from subjective norms to behavioural intention was not supported by the questionnaire data results. Although past studies have shown a significant link between subjective norms and intention for behaviours such as food consumption (Vermeir & Verbeke, 2008) and public transportation use (Heath & Gifford, 2002), these behaviours have tended to be ones that are well situated in society. That is, behaviours like eating food and using public transportation have been performed in society for a long enough length of time, and are widespread enough, to make it reasonable to assume that most people have formed an opinion about them. Online communication on the other hand, particularly in the form of SNSs, is a relatively new type of behaviour. As was noted in the literature review, studies performed in the early years of the internet did not produce significant relationships between subjective norms and behavioural intention either (George, 2002; Shih & Fang, 2004). It is possible that, as this mode of communication is quite novel, and that it is constantly evolving and changing in the ways in which it manifests itself, subjective norms regarding it have yet to fully develop. As the subjective norms are not yet fully formed it could be that SNS users do not perceive any society-generated pressure that they feel compelled to adhere to. I will explore this possibility further in Section 6.7.3.

The next set of results I will discuss are the subjective norms related themes that emerged from the interviews. Comments regarding social pressure, social recognition, and concerns over appearing to be showing off, all appeared during the interview stage of data collection. The comments regarding social pressure were quite evenly spread between those who did and did not do the tasks. Comments about social recognition, on the other

hand, were only made by those who participated in the tasks, and comments regarding showing off were mostly made by those who did not.

Social Pressure

Social pressure, mainly in the form of the views of their peers, appeared to have two types of effect on the interviewees. In some cases, peer pressure seemed to have a positive influence in that it engendered a competitive spirit. This manifested itself in a desire to not fall behind if others in their social orbit were using English online. However, social pressure also had the effect of creating a feeling of obligation among the interviewees. It could be in this case that needing to use English online in order to maintain parity with others could create a negative association due to the perceived lack of self-regulated agency. Previous works have suggested that social comparison can have an effect on the perceived self-regulation levels of an individual (e.g., Pintrich, 2000).

Social recognition

There were only two comments made regarding the effects of social recognition on L2 SNS use during the interviews. Both were made by participants who completed at least one of the tasks. The comments indicated the positive results social recognition could have in boosting social standing through online English use. However, the small number of comments also indicated that this was not an aspect that many of the interviewees had considered. Furthermore, one of the comments was an agreement to a suggestion I had made that the interviewee might feel a sense of pressure to use English online. The possibility exists that this elicited response did not accurately reflect the true nature of the participant's views.

Showing off

All of the interviewees who did not participate in any of the tasks mentioned their desire not to be seen as showing off by using English on

SNSs. However, similarly to the example directly above, one of these mentions was only made after I had suggested it as a possibility, and this suggestion could also be indicative of a bias that may have existed in my interpretation of these comments.

In part the desire not to be perceived as showing off seemed to be to be a simple wish to avoid being viewed as a braggart. This echoes the findings of Lamb and Arisandy (2019) in their investigation into online use of English in the Indonesian EFL context. In that study the interviewees mentioned their fear of appearing arrogant if they used English on SNSs. However, in the present study it also appeared to stem from the idea that the use of English had no place within this context. In this case a concern from the perspective of language education is that, rather than just lacking interest in using English, the participants in this study do not see a need to use it. This could be attributable to the paucity of opportunities for intergroup contact in this context due to the low number of L1 English speakers (City of Sapporo, n.d.), or a general view that English communication skills are not relevant to them. Previous research at the tertiary level in Japan has shown that a negative valuation of the usefulness of English can act as a demotivator (Tsuchiya, 2006).

As the university in this study is primarily focused on preparing students for a career as elementary or junior high school teachers, the view that proficiency in English communication is not important is relevant due to their future roles as educators. This is especially so in the case of teachers at elementary schools due to the ongoing expansion of English education at that level. In 2014 the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology started implementing changes to increase the length and extent of English education at elementary schools in the build-up to the 2020 Tokyo Olympics (MEXT, n.d.). Therefore, even for non-English majors, English education will be a part of their teaching responsibilities once they graduate and begin work at elementary schools.

In the earlier discussion of the utilitarian benefits of L2 SNS use it appeared that the participants did view it as useful for improving their English skills and communicating with L1 English speakers. However, the theme espoused by some of the interviewees, that English use did not fit in the context they lived in, demonstrates that for some, at least, English ability is not considered to be necessary or even desirable. This could also be attributable to the milieu the research took place in, and reflect the novelty aspect of L2 learning here. McVeigh was particularly damning in his characterisation of the 'fantasy' English phenomenon in Japan, "a form of simulated studying invested with idealization, exoticization, and occidentalism" (2002, p.41). This view suggests that English education in Japan, especially at the tertiary level, is aimed more at providing an entertaining experience, rather than producing competent L2 users.

6.3.3 Relationship of Behavioural Intention with Self-efficacy Beliefs

The path from self-efficacy beliefs to behavioural intention was supported by the SEM analysis. However, it was not as strong as the one from attitudes. Again, this follows the results of meta-analyses of the TPB (e.g., McEachan, Conner, Taylor, & Lawton, 2011), and research done in related studies (e.g., Alhamami, 2018). This result shows self-efficacy, in the self-perceived view of participants, is a significant predictor of the intention to use English on SNSs. Next, I will discuss the interview data related to self-efficacy beliefs.

Three self-efficacy related themes emerged during the analysis of the interviews: confidence in their ability to perform the behaviour, judgements regarding the difficulty of the behaviour, and opinions about its degree of understandability.

Confidence

The interviewees' confidence in their own abilities seemed to be regulated by their self-perceived lack of skills. Even though the SNS tasks

presented during the study were of a simplistic nature, during the interviews there were a large number of comments, from both those who had and had not performed the tasks, claiming that they did not have the requisite skills to adequately communicate on SNSs. This lack of confidence made them hesitant to use English in a public forum, as they did not feel they would be able to suitably express themselves or be understood. In Zhong's (2013) study of Chinese language students, she found that a lack of confidence in their ability to express themselves discouraged L2 communication behaviours. The comments made by the participants in the present study show how vital self-perceived confidence can be in enabling the initial movement towards performing L2 communication behaviours.

Although it is beyond the scope of this particular study, previous studies that have been carried out in a similar context (e.g., Benson, 1991) have found that a lack of opportunity to use English in authentic situations can lead to low levels of confidence. For the participants in this study, it could be that their limited opportunities to interact with L1 English speakers, and the confinement of their English-speaking opportunities to the classroom, has contributed to their lack of confidence. If this is indeed the case it highlights the need for bridging activities, to move past the initial reticence to engage in online communication.

Previous research has shown the potential for language learning in the wild through online gaming (e.g., Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012). However, most of this research has been carried out in Sweden, a context in which learners are exposed to subtitled English media content from an early age. Exposure to English content from an early age has been shown to have a positive effect on English ability among young learners in the similar context of Denmark (Muñoz, Cadierno, & Casas, 2018). In the current study's context, the goal of encouraging English use on SNSs may prove to be too ambitious without adequate scaffolding.

Difficulty

The difficulties of using English on SNSs that came up in the interviews ranged from perceptions of the tasks being more involved than they in fact were, to not being able to use the specific platform in question. Where the interviewees initially viewed the use of English on SNSs as being beyond their abilities, it was encouraging that the experience of actually using it made the participants realise it was within their capabilities. This bodes well for the possible effectiveness of interventions designed to get language learners over the first hurdle to engaging in online English use.

Another point mentioned were the difficulties involved in viewing English online in comparison with the ease of consuming Japanese content. The interviewee in this case said that on the occasions they had tried to look at English content they soon became discouraged when they could not understand it completely. This highlights two noteworthy issues that could be encountered when attempting to utilise SNSs for language learning purposes. First of all, it is exceedingly difficult to scaffold content that appears organically online. Clearly this is further evidence of the need for bridging of the sort as recommended by (Thorne & Reinhardt, 2008; Reinhardt & Zander, 2011). However, even with some kind of bridging between classroom work and SNS interactions, language learners are still likely to encounter a range and level of language that they will struggle to comprehend. The second issue is that learners in this context frequently become discouraged when they do not understand enough of the language they receive from a source of input. As seen in previous studies (Kimura, Nakata, & Okumura, 2001), learners in Japan often lose motivation when encountering challenging L2 content. This stems from an accumulation of negative experiences and can have the effect of inhibiting future learning behaviour.

Understandability

The final theme related to self-efficacy beliefs concerns the understandability of content found on SNSs. Comments regarding this

theme were centred on the interviewees' worries about a lack of understanding leading to a situation in which they could not communicate effectively. These fears echo the ones found in studies in Hong Kong (Lai, Hu, & Lyu, 2018) and Indonesia (Lamb & Arisandy, 2019). The participants in those studies were concerned by the added pressure caused by the perceived need to be faultless in their SNS postings, due to the public and permanent nature of online content.

6.3.4 Relationship of Behavioural Intention with International Posture

Previous research (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004) showed a significant path between international posture and L2 WTC. As WTC is a representation of intention for L2 communication behaviours, it was expected that that link would be repeated in this study. Indeed, the results did produce a path of a similar degree to that from self-efficacy to behavioural intention. This result suggests that for the participants in this study, international posture has a similar effect on the intention to perform L2 SNS behaviours as previous research had found between international posture and L2 WTC.

Extracts from the interviews highlighted two themes connected to the international posture construct. The first of those were comments related to intergroup approach or avoidance and the second were connected to English's role as a lingua franca.

Intergroup approach/avoidance

One of the interviewees talked about how she believed contact with speakers of other languages would have a positive effect on her, as it would expand her knowledge and viewpoints. Another interviewee expressed how she would like to make friends with non-Japanese speakers from abroad, and wondered if it would be possible to utilise SNSs for that purpose. However, she was doubtful over whether it would actually be feasible in real life.

Previous studies of international posture, which have predominantly been carried out in the Japanese context, have also shown a positive attitude towards intergroup contact (e.g., Yashima, 2002; 2009). The questionnaire data from this study also supported the observation that language learners in Japan were open to, and indeed positively inclined towards, interactions with non-Japanese speakers. Despite these positive inclinations, it appears that there do not have to be many obstacles placed in the way of achieving this goal before it is abandoned. A topic that warrants further investigation is the seeming lack of momentum found behind these kinds of motivational impulses in this context. One potential factor could be that forging ahead into cross-cultural interactions, particularly in the realms of online SNSs, is usually an activity that is conducted individually. In a country like Japan, where there is an emphasis placed on group action and consensus, it is possible that behaviours such as L2 SNS use, that are primarily undertaken on a personal level, are apt to low levels of motivational follow through.

One last issue related to intergroup approach or avoidance came from the comment of an interviewee, Taku, who did not participate in any of the tasks. He viewed SNSs solely as a tool for communicating with his friends. As his existing friends were all Japanese, he did not see any value or utility in using SNSs for interacting with non-Japanese speakers. This demonstrates the need to recognise that not everyone will be open to using SNSs for language learning purposes. A key aspect of language learning in the wild is its voluntary nature and any attempts to overcome resistance to the types of behaviour we are trying to promote may produce negative consequences.

Lingua franca

The contrast of Taku's views above, in comparison to the positive attitudes expressed in the preceding paragraph, are a vivid display of a common tension found in Japan. This tension is between the acknowledgement of English's place as an international language, with the

reality that many of the participants in this study view themselves as living in a Japanese bubble. It could be that this tension is a product of the government's conflicting education policies of "cultivating Japanese people who are educated to live in the international community" (MEXT, 2006, Part 1-2), who simultaneously "possess a profound understanding of their identity as Japanese people and the Japanese culture" (MEXT, 2014, Section 2-5). I will delve more deeply into this topic later in Section 6.7.4.

The notion of English as an international language was commented upon by both those who did and did not participate in the tasks. Almost all of the interviewees spoke about how useful English was for gathering and sharing information between speakers of different languages. It is clear that the language learners in this context do view English as being a useful tool for international communication. Also, as shown above in the intergroup approach/avoidance section, the participants in this study showed an interest in making friends from abroad through the use of English. However, they also expressed doubts over how likely such interactions would be. In this context it appears that although the participants recognise English's utility and value, that alone is not enough to encourage them to actually use English on SNSs.

6.4 *Differences in Model-fit by Gender (RQ4)*

The fourth research question asked whether the outcomes obtained for research question three differed when the data were analysed separately by gender group. The results showed that the various hypotheses diverged in some cases.

Whereas in the male group the hypothesised relationships between all of the TPB factors and behavioural intention were supported, in the female group no link was found either between self-efficacy or subjective norms and behavioural intention. Indeed, the female group showed a slightly negative relationship between subjective norms and behavioural

intention. Additionally, the link from international posture to behavioural intention was only significant for the female group.

Gender differences were not a primary focus of this study, and it is problematic to attempt to draw too many conclusions from the gender specific results obtained. It should also be noted that the results in the gender groups were the product of analysis of only a subset of the participants, and therefore are not as statistically robust as the ones of the entire study. However, previous research in a similar context found a significantly lower level of international posture for males at university in Japan compared to females (Birdsell, 2014). Birdsell suggested that established gender roles in Japan constrained males to follow established paths, while simultaneously freeing females to explore options beyond the low-level clerical careers available to them in Japan. This in turn created a somewhat inward-outward looking dichotomy between males and females. It could also be speculated that differences between males and females not specific to the Japanese context could explain the more internationally-interested responses derived from the female participants.

The absence of any significant link between subjective norms and the intention to communicate on SNSs for females was unexpected. Previous research into gender differences for technology related behaviours have found no disparity between males and females (White Baker, Al-Gahtani, & Hubona, 2007), or a greater effect of subjective norms on the female group (Morris, Venkatesh, & Ackerman, 2005). However, Morris and colleagues only found a greater effect in older women, in the younger age group comparison there was no difference between males and females. Therefore, results in the present study could be another indication that subjective norms do not operate in the same manner for SNS behaviours as they do for more established behaviours. This possibility will be covered in Section 6.7.3. In the next section I will look at the results of the online tasks and the link between intention and behaviour in this study.

6.5 *Behavioural Intention and the Predication of Actual Behaviour (RQ5)*

The fifth research question asked; to what extent does behavioural intention to use an L2 on SNSs predict actual participation in teacher-directed optional tasks? Although there were difficulties in tracking and comparing actual behaviour with the behavioural intention variable, there are some results that can be discussed (see Sections 5.2.2 ~ 5.2.5). First of all, a comparison of behavioural intention and the sum of the task participation results produced a significant, yet weak, correlation between the two (see Table 5.20).

Several of the possible causes of a weak correlation between behavioural intention and actual behaviour proposed by Ajzen (2015) could have applied in this case. First of all, as the classes in this study only met once a week, by the time the last of the optional SNS tasks was presented to the participants there had been at least five weeks since the administering of the questionnaire. This could have allowed enough time for the underlying beliefs, that interact to form intention within the TPB model, to have shifted in regards to the participants' attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy beliefs about using English on an SNS (Madden, Ellen, & Ajzen, 1992).

Another contributor to the weak correlation could have been the lack of specificity in the measure used to capture behavioural intention on the questionnaire. The original intent had been to have both general and specific measures, in order to cover the whole range of SNS communication behaviours in addition to specific, platform related behaviours. However, feedback during the tasks and the interviews indicated that the non-uniformity of adoption for some of the platforms had led to the specific measures being unreliable. This was due to the participants not having sufficient knowledge of the platforms, or being unable to adequately envision themselves performing the behaviours in question on an SNS that they had never used. Therefore, the only measure that was available to compare with the task results was the general one.

As Ajzen (2015) suggested, a lack of clarity in the questionnaire measure for behavioural intention could have contributed to the weak correlation displayed in this study. This view is supported by comments made during the interviews that showed the participants had varying impressions of what constituted SNS communication behaviours in this case. A number of them mentioned that the impression of an online task they had when completing the questionnaire did not match up with the actual tasks they were presented with.

Finally, the unexpectedly low correlation found in this study between behavioural intention and participation in the SNS tasks could also stem from control factors inhibiting the participants from carrying out the tasks as intended. The control factor interference in this study could have come from several sources. First of all, as previously mentioned, the majority of the participants did not use all three SNS platforms utilised for the tasks. Therefore, even though they might have intended to take part in the tasks, if they did not have accounts on that particular platform it would have been impossible for them to do so.

One of the most intractable problems resulting from trying to investigate behaviour in a real-world setting is creating a set of conditions that are broad enough to cover an adequate number of participants. As SNS behaviours are distributed among a wide range of internet sites and platforms, to which users sign-up and interact with freely, producing parameters that encompass enough participants to allow for meaningful data-analysis is a challenge.

Furthermore, as some of the tasks required the cooperation of one or more classmates to complete, dependency issues could have prevented the participants from going through with their intended action. As with all communication behaviours, a willing interlocutor is essential to conduct a two-way conversation. In the cases in which I personally did not respond to the participants they were required to find a classmate (or classmates) to complete the tasks with. Due to the participants in this study being first-year students only a few weeks into their university lives, it is likely that

they had yet to develop close relationships with their peers. Therefore, it is conceivable that this lack of familiarity contributed to and exacerbated the interlocutor dependency issues in this case.

Table 5.19 in Section 5.2.1 shows the number of participants who completed the various tasks. The percentage of the platform users in attendance who took part in the tasks ranged from five per cent to just under ten per cent. It is notable that the more SNS specific behaviours, such as posting a photo on Instagram or retweeting on Twitter, did not attract as many participants as the more communicative behaviours on the messaging application Line. This could be attributable to privacy concerns, as the Instagram and Twitter tasks were carried out in a publicly accessible forum. In comparison, the Line tasks were only viewable by myself and the other participants. The privacy theme and its implications for this study will be discussed further below in Section 6.7.1.

Another possible cause for the greater participation levels seen for the Line-based tasks is the ubiquity of the application among the users in this context. Every respondent to the questionnaire indicated that they use Line, and it is unquestionably the dominant platform for messaging for the tertiary-level age group in this context, at the time of writing. This ubiquity could lead to increased participation due to the familiarity of the application and the large number of possible interlocutors minimising any dependency issues.

One illustration of the familiarity and widespread use of the Line application is the large number of participants who completed the initial part of the second task conducted on it. This entailed using a QR code to send a request to add me as a contact on their friend list. However, only half of those who did that then went on to complete the communicative part of the task. This lack of follow-through indicates a gap in the link between the intention to perform the behaviour and actual initiation of the behaviour. A gap of this sort could be representative of the difficulties suggested by Ajzen (2011a) in forecasting behaviour from intentions. Ajzen pointed out that in

some situations the perceived level of control does not accurately reflect actual control. The discrepancies between perceived and actual control lead to a loss of predictive validity of the model. In this case the participants could have considered themselves capable of performing the task, yet when confronted with the questions in the Line group, they discovered that they could not complete it.

It could also highlight problems that may arise when investigating multi-step behaviours. For behaviours that require several distinct actions to complete, there are likely to be issues when attempting to measure the link between intention and behaviour. As an illustration, if we go back to the behavioural example of eating an apple a day that was introduced in the literature review, it can be seen that in order to eat the apple one must first purchase it. Although purchasing an apple clearly shows intention, it does not follow that the person will definitely complete the behaviour. Similarly, although some participants in the study completed the first step in the Line task, indicating an intention to perform it, they did not then go on to complete it.

Undoubtedly, issues caused by multi-step behaviours contributed to some of the confusion created between the behavioural intention and behavioural expectation constructs seen during the expansion of the theory of reasoned action (see Section 2.1.3). These issues form part of a larger discussion over the adequacy of the TPB to accurately investigate complex behaviours that is beyond the scope of this study. However, it is worth noting that, as even the simplest of human behaviours often require multiple steps from initiation to completion, we need to be careful when discussing the link between intention and actual behaviour.

6.6 *Reasons for and Impediments to L2 Use on SNSs (RQ6)*

The sixth and final research question asked; what are the reasons for and impediments to L2 use on SNSs suggested by the participants? In this section I will draw exclusively upon the data derived during the interview

portion of this study. In the first part I will discuss the reasons for L2 SNS use proffered up by the participants. I will then focus on the impediments to the use of an L2 on SNSs suggested by the interviewees. Finally, I will briefly discuss the issues of emotions as they arose in the interviews.

6.6.1 Reasons for Use

During the interviews a large number of comments were made regarding possible reasons for the use of English on SNSs. In the following section I will first discuss possible reasons for L2 SNS use as they related to English communication and information. I will then discuss the comments made regarding employment and improving skills.

English communication and information

As seen above in the discussion of lingua franca, there was widespread recognition of the usefulness of English for communicating with people from different linguistic backgrounds, from both those who did and did not complete the online tasks. Some of the participants linked the use of English as a communication tool on SNSs to increased proficiency, and through that improved job prospects. However, apart from the mention by one interviewee of using standalone English words within Japanese sentences, there was no reported use of actually using English on SNSs.

There were much fewer mentions of using English to view the greater range of information made accessible through it online. However, one participant at least did concede that, in comparison to Japanese, she would be exposed to a much wider variety of people and information if she were able to use English.

Employment and improving skills

The possible link between L2 SNS use and employment prospects emerged during an elicitation session with a number of students prior to the pilot stage of this project. However, in light of the responses received to this line of inquiry during the interviews it could be argued that it was not a fruitful topic of discussion. This could be attributed to the lack of

authenticity in the linkage of L2 use and employment for students in this context.

There was therefore a considerable amount of scepticism when it came to the possibility of using English on SNSs improving employment opportunities. Although some of the interviewees suggested that the use of English on SNSs might improve their job prospects if their English ability increased, in general they thought it unlikely that merely using English online would have any effect. The seeming lack of connection between using English for unregulated SNS interactions, and increasing employment opportunities among the participants, demonstrates the superficial nature of English for employment purposes found by Morita (2010) in their comparison of Japan with Singapore. Morita noted that whereas in Singapore English skills were commonly required in the workplace, in Japan they tended to be only utilised as a means of differentiating between job candidates.

It is also not surprising that the participants in this study did not consider the use of English as being a positive when looking for employment when we consider the low interest in international work shown in the questionnaire results. Perhaps, owing to the context this research took place in, the participants have very little desire to explore employment outside of Japan. Therefore, in their eyes, English is not a prerequisite for pursuing their chosen careers.

On the other hand, the interviewees were almost uniform in their belief that using English on SNSs would lead to an improvement in their English skills. This stemmed from the idea that frequent use would improve their reading and writing skills and increase their knowledge of vocabulary and expressions. Incidental learning of this kind would be the anticipated outcome for English use on SNSs, and this topic will be explored in more depth below in Section 6.7.5.

6.6.2 Impediments to Use

Unsurprisingly, those interviewees who did not participate in any of the online tasks offered up more impediments to the use of English on SNSs than those who did attempt them. The first set of impediments that I will discuss concern a lack of opportunity or time, and a Japanese only environment. I will then move onto the impediments caused by a lack of SNS specific skills and privacy related issues.

Lack of opportunity, lack of time, and Japanese only

Comments regarding a lack of opportunity in the interviews tended to focus on how the participants seldom encountered English in their day-to-day SNS use. This was primarily attributed to all of their social network contacts being Japanese, foreshadowing the Japanese only theme I will discuss below. The interviewees did, however, suggest that they would look at English content if it appeared on their feeds. They were just unlikely to seek it out themselves.

Once again, the issue of an absence of initiating behaviours seems to be a noteworthy obstacle to the utility of SNSs for language learning. If there is no initial movement towards L2 content and interaction, there will be no opportunities for incidental language learning. In contrast with online gaming, where the language learners have a hedonic source of intrinsic motivation to engage in the behaviour (Sundqvist, 2009), people engaged in communication behaviours on SNSs may be lacking in a strong enough source of motivation that would lead them to seek out L2 interactions.

Another impediment mentioned by the interviewees was the lack of time to perform the tasks. As Ajzen recommends a limited time frame when measuring behaviours (Ajzen, 2011a), a weeklong limit was applied to each task. The purpose of a time limit is to allow for a meaningful measurement of participation, with no deadline enforced it becomes impossible to say definitively if they did or did not perform the behaviour as specified. Due to access to the participants being confined to one session a week, logistical constraints led to the research tasks being given on a weekly basis.

Unfortunately, some of the interviewees said that although they had intended to perform the tasks they ran out of time. This was particularly an issue when the task required the cooperation of a classmate. Dependency and the time limit thus combined to act as an obstacle to participation in the behaviour.

By far the largest number of comments suggesting impediments to using English on SNSs were those concerning the Japanese only environment the participants see themselves as inhabiting. The interviewees noted that they could see no need to use English as their social circle was made up exclusively of Japanese speakers. In addition to a lack of necessity, they also suggested that others in their online networks might feel uncomfortable if they were to use English. This was due to the sense that people without sufficient language skills to understand the content would resent English being used. These concerns mirrored those expressed in Lai and her colleagues' investigation of L2 learners in Hong Kong (Lai, Hu, & Lyu, 2018). The participants in that study also mentioned the fear that posts not made in their L1 would not be understood by their friends.

It would appear that a fissure exists in the supposition that international posture would positively influence L2 usage on SNSs. Without the existence of English speakers in their social networks, an interest in English as an international language alone is not sufficient to create opportunities for incidental language learning. If the learners only engage in communication within close knit social groups, or are passive in their use of SNSs, it is unlikely they will have any interaction with English speakers, or exposure to English content. I will explore this fissure in more detail below in Section 6.7.4.

Lack of specific skills and privacy issues

The final set of impediments mentioned by the interviewees that I will discuss are those related to a lack of specific skills and privacy issues. Several of the interviewees suggested that they did not possess adequate knowledge of English vocabulary or grammar to use the language online.

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They also felt that they did not know enough internet specific slang and expressions to be able to converse in English online. Although overcoming a self-perceived lack of English ability is something that cannot easily be accomplished, instruction in internet communication forms would hopefully be able to address some of the concerns. Lamb and Arisandy (2019) discussed the need for teachers to be cognisant of the language learning opportunities provided by out-of-class online activities. There is undoubtedly a need for language educators to be aware of their students' online L2 interactions and to attempt to facilitate them. Additionally, the topic of L2 learners and internet communication forms is itself one that would benefit from further investigation. The study in Hong Kong elicited concerns from some of the participants that the English they encountered on SNSs was inaccurate, and presumably not a suitable model to follow (Lai, Hu, & Lyu, 2018). These concerns seem to present an opportunity for educators to engage with their students in discussions regarding appropriate forms.

The issue of privacy is one that is at the forefront of discussions about SNS use. In order to be able to facilitate language learning in the wilds of online communication, careful consideration of the privacy needs of the users will need to be made. Several of the interviewees indicated that they severely limited access to their social-media accounts, and expressed concerns suggesting that they would be wary of opening them up to public interactions. Some were also against the idea of utilising SNSs for course-related work, as they preferred to keep them solely for private use. I will return to privacy related issues and how they impact upon the utilisation of SNSs for language learning later in Section 6.7.1.

6.6.3 Emotions and SNS Use

As emotions are not an integral part of this study the discussion of these themes will be quite limited. The two emotions that emerged during the analysis of the interview data were fear and embarrassment.

Both of these emotions are closely intertwined, in that the participants often talked about how they were fearful that they would be embarrassed if they attempted to use English on an SNS and made a mistake. These fears replicate earlier studies that uncovered concerns over the potential for embarrassment to be found through L2 SNS use (Prichard, 2013; Lai, Hu, & Lyu, 2018). The public nature of many types of SNS interactions appears to heighten the existing levels of communication apprehension that language learners in this context often experience. Students who already demonstrate high levels of communication apprehension or anxiety, and low levels of willingness to communicate when confronted with regular classroom-based activities, are even less likely to step out into the wilds of the internet and engage in online communication.

For L2 learners in Japan then, it could be that the potential for embarrassment that exists on the exposed platforms of social-media is a risk that they are unwilling to take. The interviewees' expressions of fears regarding making mistakes, or not having the requisite skills to communicate adequately, might prove to be barriers to online interactions that are difficult to overcome.

So far in this chapter I have discussed the questionnaire, interview and online task results, and how they could be interpreted in relation to the six research questions posed in this study. For the final part of this chapter I will expand on some of the themes that have emerged from the discussion of the research questions.

6.7 *Emerging Themes*

I this section I will introduce and discuss several topics that have emerged from the collection and analysis of the questionnaire, task, and interview data. These themes will include ones closely related to the use of SNSs, such as concerns about privacy, the separate and compartmentalised nature of SNS use on various platforms, passive versus active SNS use, and

the constantly changing nature of how communication occurs in online settings. I will also consider wider issues by looking at how, while English is commonly recognised for its position as an international language within Japan (e.g., Yashima, 2002), the participants in this study seemingly view themselves as residing in a Japanese dominated environment. Finally, I will discuss the potential for incidental language learning through the use of English on SNSs.

6.7.1 Privacy and SNS Use

The issue of privacy is a complex one as it relates to online L2 use. As I have pointed out in the discussions above, privacy can be a factor in the type of platform and online communication language learners in this context choose to use or engage in. It can also amplify concerns over who has access to any content posted online, and the risks of attracting unwanted interactions. Finally, it can be the cause of discomfort for students wishing to clearly delineate between their private SNS use and course related activities (Gunuc, Misirli, & Odabasi, 2013).

The different SNS platforms, and the varying levels of privacy that they afford, appear to have had an effect on the decision to perform the tasks in this study. Data from the tasks themselves showed that more participants were willing to engage in the activities that did not appear in publicly visible forums. Conversely, they were more open to using English within SNS interactions that were only viewable by their peers and myself. Differentiating between the various SNS platforms and the types of behaviours they allow will be covered in the next section. However, the results in this study do seem to suggest that a preference for private interactions makes hopes of using SNSs for promoting language learning in the wild via authentic online interactions problematic to realise. It should also be noted that these concerns do not seem to be unique to the Japanese context. Research in Hong Kong found similar worries among language learners regarding the use of publicly viewable forums (Lai, Hu, & Lyu, 2018).

Privacy settings were also a factor in this study. Several of the participants spoke about how they used the settings on their SNS accounts to restrict access to the content they posted. One of the interviewees even mentioned that she had received unwelcome comments after she opened up her settings in order to participate in the Instagram task. Numerous stories in the media regarding data breaches have created yet another reason for users to worry about their privacy. In addition to concerns about how safe their personal data are in the hands of the SNS platform providers, the language learners in this context also seem wary of engaging with the rough and tumble reality of unfiltered SNS communication. This wariness is no doubt heightened by the prospect that the unwanted SNS interactions may be in a language they do not fully understand.

One further contributor to this wariness could be the many warnings students at universities in Japan receive about the dangers of online interactions. Students are warned repeatedly during the orientation period, and there are posters displayed prominently around campuses detailing the various dangers that can be encountered through use of the internet. Having not being a regular visitor to campuses outside of Japan during recent times, it may be that similar warning are given in other contexts. However, it could also be a symptom of the coddling of students in higher education that stems from the idea that young adults do not become *shakaijin*, or members of society, until they join the workforce (Amano & Poole, 2005). This tends to lead to students who are comparatively immature in comparison to tertiary level students in other contexts. In conjunction with the Japanese-bubble effect that I will discuss below, the treatment of students here as still being heavily dependent on their parents and teachers for guidance, surely contributes to their hesitancy to be adventurous in their use of SNSs.

My own personal experience of the culture of education in Japan, as a student, educator, and parent, spans the entire pre-school to post-graduate range. A notable factor in this context in my opinion is the high level of involvement in the private lives of students by teachers at all levels.

This manifests itself in frequent contact between teachers and parents and has the consequence of appearing to slow down the maturation of students here, and perhaps makes the process of becoming independent take longer than in other contexts. Although this is not necessarily a negative, it is a factor that should be considered when discussing this context.

6.7.2 Compartmentalisation and Type of SNS Use

I will now look at the issue of the compartmentalisation of SNSs and how it affected this study. During the data collection and analysis it became clear that the participants had varying attitudes towards, and levels of engagements with, different SNS platforms. I will also discuss the different types of behaviours users engage in on SNSs.

As any user of SNSs will attest, we utilise different platforms for different purposes, and the amount of time we spend on them varies as our interests and priorities change. The design and functionality of the platforms also plays a role in how we use and interact with them. Facebook tends to focus on social groups and existing friends, whereas Twitter and Instagram are designed with the aim of sharing content with the widest possible audience. The Line messaging application, which is ubiquitous in its adoption among the participants in this group, has evolved from its initial focus on private or group messages, to include news and a timeline similar to Facebook.

However, despite the efforts of the developers, the way users interact with the platforms does not always go as planned. Due to the previously mentioned tendency of the participants in this study to use the privacy settings to severely limit access to their content, it was noticeable that the actual use of the applications in this context often diverged from their intended purposes. This was especially evident for Instagram and Twitter, which the users in this study utilised primarily for private communications within their existing social groups.

Acknowledging that SNS adoption and use varies significantly between platforms and individual users, it becomes evident that attempts

to compare communication behaviours across platforms will be difficult. For the purposes of this study all SNS behaviours, be they posting or viewing content in the participants' L1 or L2, were considered to be interchangeable, irrespective of the platform they took place on. However, for future research it is clear that care needs to be taken to carefully differentiate and define SNS behaviours according to their type and the platform that they occur on. Just like the differentiations the early researchers on L1 WTC made, between talking in a dyad with a close friend and speaking in front of a large group of strangers (McCroskey & Richmond, 1987), SNS communications cannot all be viewed in the same way. A further complicating factor is the constant and rapid change seen in technology and the way in which it is used. I will return to this theme below in Section 6.7.3.

Similarly to the issues surrounding the compartmentalisation of SNS use, the manner in which users interact with SNSs also raises questions about how online behaviour can be researched. Applications such as Instagram and Twitter tend to promote passive behaviour, in that a majority of users simply consume content that has been created by a comparatively small number of people. Therefore, if the users are *window shoppers* (Robinson, Callahan, Boyle, Rivera, & Cho, 2017) the communication that occurs in those circumstances is only going in one direction. Additionally, as the communication is not personalised it is seldom modified to make it comprehensible to non-L1 speakers.

The instances reported by the interviewees in which they did participate in two-way communication were overwhelmingly in their L1, and with members of their existing social circle. In this case it is clear that the type of give-and-take L2 communication likely to result in language acquisition is unlikely to take place. Unlike the language learning in the wild observed in previous research on gaming (e.g., Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012), it appears that communication on social-media, even if it does take place on SNSs with large and varied linguistic communities, in most cases does not include the necessary stimulus to promote L2 use.

6.7.3 Emergent Nature of Online Communication

Following on from the discussions regarding the segregation of behaviours according to platform type and the nature of SNS communication above, I will now look at the rapidly changing environment found online. One major risk for any research project that takes several years to complete is the danger of the premises underpinning it shifting before it can be completed. In the case of this study, it became apparent in the period from its initial conceptualisation, though the pilot and onto the main study, that it was built upon a swiftly moving landscape.

In the case of SNSs, one factor to consider is the rise and fall in popularity of the different applications. At the time of the elicitation phase of the pilot study Facebook was still relatively popular among the target age group, and Snapchat was also beginning to take a foothold. However, at the time of the main study a year later Facebook use was in decline and there were no Snapchat users to be found among the participants. The applications themselves are also constantly evolving and changing in the type and style of content and interactions they allow. In addition to making it problematic to research online behaviours, the non-stop ebb and flow of SNS development also has the effect of stymying the creation of behavioural norms within society.

One of the key components of the TPB is the inclusion of subjective norms in the creation of behavioural intention. The opinions of important social referents concerning the behaviour in question, and the degree to which the subject feels compelled to adhere to those opinions, form an important part of the TPB model. In the case of online communication and SNS applications, the behaviours themselves have not been in existence long enough for societal norms to have solidified. The results from the SEM analysis detailed in Section 5.1.3.2 showed no significant relationship between subjective norms and behavioural intention for SNS behavioural intention. However, all the other theoretically suggested relationships between attitudes, self-efficacy beliefs, and international posture were found to be significantly correlated.

One possible cause of the lack of a relationship between subjective norms and behavioural intention in this case could be the emergent nature of these behaviours. Although the individually created attitudes and self-efficacy beliefs did show a significant relationship, subjective norms are created socially and thus are reliant on the perceived judgement of others' opinions. In the case of SNS use, as the behaviours themselves are constantly changing, there is no opportunity for commonly held subjective norms to form. If newly developing behaviours are not subject to the same impact of subjective norms as more established ones, this would have consequences for the application of the TPB model in other contexts and for other behaviours. It is even possible that questions regarding the sufficiency assumption of the TPB model, previously refuted by Ajzen (2015), could be raised again for these types of behaviour.

6.7.4 English as an International Language in a Japanese Bubble

Some of the data from the questionnaire, and even more noticeably from the interviews, showed that the participants in this study tended to view themselves as living in a world where English's role as an international language has little relevance. There are many reasons that could be put forward to explain this state of affairs, and I will introduce and discuss several of them below.

The first of the possible causes is related to the geographical and social isolation of the students in this context. All of the participants in this research project are non-English majors studying, primarily, to become elementary or secondary school teachers. The institution in which they are enrolled in is a small, regional university of education with only around 1000 students. Although the university has some international students the numbers are very low, usually less than 20, and the majority of them come from non-English-speaking countries. Within the city the university is located there are only approximately 14,000 non-Japanese nationals, despite having a population of almost 2 million (City of Sapporo, n.d.). Furthermore, the majority of those non-Japanese nationals are second or

third-generation Chinese or Korean residents, whose dominant language is Japanese. It can be therefore easily imagined that the students have little to no interactions with non-Japanese speakers outside of the language classroom.

The reality of non-Japanese speakers only being encountered within the confines of the L2 classroom brings up another factor that impacts upon the position of English as an international language in Japan. World Englishes, and their importance for cross-cultural communication, have struggled to gain recognition on many levels in Japan. A brief perusal of private language schools' advertisements or job postings will invariably result in numerous references to 'native speakers'. Even the government run JET (Japanese Exchange and Teaching) program, which brings recent non-Japanese university graduates to Japan to teach and engage in 'internationalization' activities, emphasises that participants are only eligible to teach their first-language (JET, n.d.). This focus on 'real' English, and the corresponding devaluation of versions that are not seen as being authentic, has the effect of detracting from the potential utility of English for communicating with people other than those from the traditional L1 English countries.

Another contributor to the Japanese-bubble effect is the view that I commonly hear expressed that the rest of the world is dangerous in comparison to Japan. It is not at all unusual for students about to embark upon a trip abroad to come to me with questions concerning what safety precautions they need to take when venturing out to places such as London or Sydney. Japanese media, in particular the variety shows that fill-up the majority of the primetime schedules, routinely propagate the notion of an unsafe world. This is either done by visiting Japanese nationals living abroad and marvelling at how they survive, or interviewing foreign visitors to Japan, who are encouraged to comment on how clean and safe Japan is in comparison to their home country. The image of the world beyond Japan's borders being unsafe, along with a varied domestic climate ranging from sub-arctic in the north to subtropical in the south, in addition to the

difficulty of taking long holidays for the majority of workers, has resulted in a comparatively small outbound tourism market. Less than 11 million visits abroad were made by Japanese nationals in 2018, out of a population of over 126 million (JNTO, n.d.). For comparison, there were over 70 million outbound trips from the United Kingdom, out of a population of 66 million (Office for National Statistics, n.d.).

Although Yashima's international posture construct suggested that language learners in contexts such as Japan were interested in English's position as an international language (Yashima, 2002). It could be that, in the context of the present study, this interest is superficial and passive in nature. The age of the participants in this study could also be a contributing factor to the low levels of interest in English as an international language seen in this study. As the mean age was 18.48, it is likely that almost all of the participants had entered university directly after graduating from high school. Therefore, they would have had comparatively few opportunities to travel abroad and experience using English outside of classroom contexts.

6.7.5 SNS Use and Incidental Language Learning

Although there is undoubtedly potential for language learning through online interactions, as previous research into behaviours such as gaming has shown (e.g., Reinders & Wattana, 2015), it appears that there are certain barriers preventing social-media use from leading to L2 acquisition. Foremost among these is the unavoidable recognition that online social interactions are usually just an extension of people's real-world social life.

The shared or dependent goals that emerge during online gaming, where players either compete with or against each other, is more conducive to creating opportunities for communication than the passive browsing that is prevalent on SNSs. Even if the social-media users have shared interests, they are unlikely to connect unless there are no groups within their own L1 that serve that community. Several of the interviewees alluded to this when

they suggested that they saw no reason to view L2 content, as all the members of their social networks were Japanese speakers.

Despite these challenges, there are clearly a varied and almost limitless amount of potential opportunities for absorbing and interacting with second languages on SNSs. The issue then becomes how to encourage and support the exploration of language learners into the wilds of social-media. As I have noted above, the utilisation or bridging activities would be one way to scaffold language learners' skills until they overcome any initial reticence towards online communication. However, creating exercises that adequately capture the natural patterns of SNS interactions, while tailoring them to the needs of the language learners will no doubt be a challenging task. Furthermore, protecting the privacy and security of young learners creates an added level of difficulty. Particularly in the context of this study where the language learners, despite being young adults at the tertiary level, are less worldly-wise than their counterparts in other countries.

6.8 *Conclusion*

In this chapter I have discussed the results outlined in Chapter 5, and attempted to show how they sit within existing bodies of research. The model used in this study, linking international posture with the TPB for L2 SNS behaviours, appears suitable for purpose. However, subjective norms concerning online behaviours do not yet seem well-defined enough to be a significant factor.

I also highlighted several themes that emerged from the analysis and discussion of the data collected in this study. Privacy, compartmentalisation, and the emergent nature of online behaviours were all topics related to SNS use. Passive tendencies and an arms-length view of English's importance as an international language were the notable context themes that emerged.

This chapter therefore provided support for the hypothesis that, although language learners in this context are open to L2 SNS use, there are many obstacles to its inclusion in teaching pedagogies. These include

navigating the privacy concerns and issues of SNS users and addressing the need for bridging-activities and SNS specific language education. In the next, and final chapter, I will summarise the major findings reached in this project and highlight the theoretical, methodological, and pedagogical contributions this study makes. I will also discuss its limitations and the possibility for future research in this area.

7 Conclusion

In this concluding chapter I will provide a summary of the findings obtained in this study. I will also describe the contributions made by this research in terms of theory, methodology, and pedagogy. Finally, I will discuss the limitations of this project and make suggestions for possible future areas of study.

7.1 *Summary of Findings*

RQ1: What is the relationship between the frequencies of L1 and L2 use on SNSs among Japanese university students?

This study did not find any significant correlations between viewing L1 content with any other type of L1 or L2 SNS behaviour. However, there were significant correlations between posting in the L1 and both viewing and posting L2 content. This suggested that SNS users who were more active in their L1 were also likely to be active in an L2. The highest correlation, between viewing and posting L2 content, also suggested that those users who seek out L2 content are then more prone to extend that effort into being active on SNSs.

RQ2: What is the interrelation of the following factors in regard to L2 SNS use: behavioural intention, attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms about the behaviour, self-efficacy beliefs regarding the behaviour, and the international posture subscales?

Previous studies during the long history of the theory of planned behaviour (TPB) have shown an interrelation between the key factors of attitudes, subjective norms, and self-efficacy beliefs with behavioural intention. This study confirmed those relationships and also reproduced the lower correlation of subjective norms with behavioural intention that has often been found in studies using the TPB (see Armitage & Connor, 2001), especially for behaviours involving technology. The lower correlations for

subjective norms supported the hypothesis that the emergent nature of technology related behaviours lessen the effect of socially constructed beliefs.

The international posture subscales also showed significant, positive correlations with behavioural intention. Again, these results supported the findings of earlier studies which linked L2 willingness to communicate (WTC) with international posture (Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004). Due to the international posture construct being created in order to capture interest in English as an international language, rather than a desire to integrate with the English-speaking community, this finding demonstrates the link between SNS behavioural intention and English's role as a lingua franca in this context. There were also significant positive correlations between the subscales for international posture. This affirmed the supposition that all of the subscales were tapping into a connected level of interest in English for international communication.

The study also showed an interrelation between the TPB factors with the international posture subscales. As no previous studies had included both the TPB and international posture, the significant correlations between them supports the hypotheses underlying this study. That is, in this context, English's position as an international language and as the dominant language of the internet is closely aligned with SNS users' intention to use it in online communications.

RQ3: How is the intention to post in an L2 on an SNS related to: attitudes towards the behaviour, subjective norms about the behaviour, self-efficacy beliefs regarding the behaviour, international posture, and L2 competence?

The third research question was addressed with the use of structural equation modelling (SEM) in conjunction with analysis of the data derived from the interviews. The model tested in this project hypothesised a link between international posture and the TPB factors with L2 SNS behavioural intention. All of the proposed pathways produced significant links, except for the one from subjective norms.

The strongest link was between attitudes and behavioural intention, which suggested that the participants' judgements regarding the usefulness and interest of using an L2 on SNSs was the most significant factor in the creation of their intention to perform the behaviour. In the interviews the participants noted the usefulness of SNSs for improving their English skills and for facilitating authentic English communication. The interviewees who participated in the online tasks also spoke about the enjoyment they derived from using English on SNSs.

Self-efficacy did not produce as strong a link to behavioural intention as attitudes, however, it was still a significant one. Three factors related to self-efficacy beliefs emerged from the interviews. The first of these was the issue of confidence. A perceived lack of skills among the interviewees adversely affected their confidence in their ability to communicate effectively online in an L2. The second factor was related to the difficulty level of the language they expected to encounter online. Several of the interviewees spoke about how they imagined net-slang and other online-specific language would be beyond their capabilities. The final issue was related to understandability. In this case the interviewees expressed concerns that misunderstandings of L2 content on SNSs could lead to potentially embarrassing situations.

The lack of a significant pathway from subjective norms to behavioural intention provided one of the most interesting results in this study. As noted above, previous studies and meta-analyses have shown subjective norms to have the weakest effect of the three TPB factors on behavioural intention. In particular, studies carried out in fields related to technology seem susceptible to weak links (e.g., George, 2004). It seems that as social norms are created through the knowledge of others' opinions regarding behaviours, those behaviours that are new and have not had time to develop widespread and commonly held sentiments within society are unlikely to be as affected by them. During the interviews, the participants mentioned themes related to social recognition, showing off, and social pressure. On balance these comments suggested that the opinions of others

in this context might have a negative effect, as the participants did not want to be viewed as using English in socially inappropriate ways.

The SEM results showed a significant pathway from international posture to behavioural intention. During the interviews the participants mentioned several positive aspects of SNS use in terms of its ability to provide opportunities for contact with English speakers. They also acknowledged English's position as an international language. However, these positive views did not appear to produce a noteworthy tendency towards actual L2 behaviour on SNSs. This was mainly attributed to the interviewees viewing themselves as residing in a Japanese-only environment, where English use would be out of place in their online communications.

RQ4: How do the relationships in RQ3 differ according to gender groups?

When the questionnaire data were divided into gender groups several differences emerged. First of all, for the males in this study all of the TPB factors showed significant links to behavioural intention. However, for the females only the pathway from attitudes was significant. These results suggested that for the female participants in this study, concerns about the opinions of others and worries about their own abilities were not significant factors in the creation of their intention to communicate in English on SNSs.

For international posture, on the other hand, the male group did not show a significant link to behavioural intention, while the female group did. A previous study in a similar context found a lower level of international posture among the male participants (Birdsell, 2014). It was hypothesised that males in the Japanese context were less likely to be interested in English due to its position as an international language, as they were constrained by societal expectations to rigidly defined career paths. Females, however, were prone to be international minded as a life outside of Japan offered more opportunities for career fulfilment.

RQ5: To what extent does behavioural intention to use an L2 on SNSs predict actual participation in teacher-directed optional tasks?

The results for this research question indicated a low yet significant correlation between intention and actual behaviour. The low correlation could be attributed to several factors related to the study itself. Ajzen (2015) pointed out that a time gap between the administration of the questionnaire and the opportunity to perform the behaviour could lower the observed correlation. Furthermore, a lack of specificity in the measure of behavioural intention could also contribute to a weakened degree of correlation. Also, there is the possibility that control factors, such as not all participants actively using the SNS platforms on which the tasks were conducted, interfered with the intention-behaviour relationship. Finally, dependency issues resulting from the absence of a suitable interlocutor to perform some of the tasks with could have been a factor.

In addition to difficulties in specifying the behaviour to be performed, there also appeared to be a divergence between the types of behaviour being performed. This discrepancy seemed to stem from the design and use of the various SNS platforms. Some of the platforms, such as Twitter and Instagram, are geared towards sharing information in public forums. These contrast with platforms such as Line, which is primarily used for private communications between two or more individuals. It is likely that these differences contributed to the low correlations seen in this study.

RQ6: What are the reasons for and impediments to L2 SNS use suggested by the participants?

During the interview stage of this project the participants mentioned several reasons for using English on SNSs. They could see the advantages in using English to access more information and to communicate with a much wider range of people due to its position as an international language. They also believed that regular use of English on SNSs would contribute to an improvement in L2 skills.

However, there were also a considerable number of impediments suggested as limiting their use of English on SNSs. Perhaps the most notable of these was the absence of situations the interviewees could envision for using English online. They tended to focus on the unilingual nature of the online environment they were in, with almost all the content and users they encountered being Japanese. The participants in this study also believed that they did not possess the requisite skills to engage in L2 communication on SNSs. Of particular note was the belief that they would not be able to understand the slang they might encounter online. Finally, there were concerns expressed about online privacy and delineating between their personal and course related use of SNSs.

Other Findings

The data in this study, in particular the interviews, produced a number of other findings independent of the research questions regarding the use of an L2 on SNSs. First among these was the issue of privacy. Although privacy was mentioned in its role as an impediment to L2 SNS use, it was clear that its importance superseded that single question. Privacy was a factor in the choice of platforms the participants used, the manner in which they used them, and the settings they used to control them. It also suggested that users in this context were especially wary of laying themselves open to the possibility of unsolicited online interactions. I suggested that this could be attributable to tertiary level students in Japan being less mature or worldly-wise than their counterparts in other countries.

Another theme that emerged was the compartmentalisation of SNS use. This led to large discrepancies in the number of participants who engaged with the online tasks and made quantifying SNS use problematic. In a similar vein, the emergent nature of online communication also created difficulties. As the type and functionality of SNS platforms are constantly changing and evolving, the manner in which users interact with them is also developing.

The context in which this study took place in was closely connected to the next finding. It was evident in the interviews that the participants viewed themselves as living in an almost totally Japanese environment. As they did not encounter English in their daily lives, either online or offline, the participants struggled to view it as an indispensable skill. This also contributed to the sense that introducing English into their online activities would be inappropriate and unwelcomed by their peers.

Finally, the practicality of using SNSs for incidental language learning was called into question. Whereas other online activities, such as gaming, inherently motivate the users to communicate in English, SNS use tends to be confined to existing real-world social networks. It appears that without a concerted effort to engage in L2 SNS use, incidental language learning in this context would be difficult to achieve.

7.2 *Methodological Contributions*

The methodology used in this study was novel in that it used the TPB to investigate L2 communication behaviours. Previous studies in the field of L2 learning research have tended to utilize the WTC construct. However, I replaced WTC with the TPB model as it allowed for a more focused approach that concentrated on the attitudes, social norms, and self-efficacy beliefs of the participants studied.

Furthermore, many of the previous studies into L2 communication behaviours have relied solely on quantitative data derived from questionnaires or observations. In this study an explanatory sequential mixed-methods approach was adopted in order to contextualise the results obtained from the questionnaires and online tasks through the use of interviews. These interviews provided greater depth and nuance to the issues covered in this research.

7.3 *Theoretical Contributions*

This research contributed to the bodies of research created by other studies in the areas of L2 communication behaviours, technology mediated L2 learning, and the use of social network services by demonstrating a link between the TPB and international posture for online L2 SNS behaviour. To my knowledge no other studies have combined the TPB with international posture and the relationship shown in this project suggests that it is a useful addition to models investigating L2 learning behaviours in the Japanese context.

Previous research in the field of L2 communication behaviours has tended to focus on face-to-face contact (e.g., Peng, 2013). Additionally, studies of technology mediated L2 learning have primarily looked at the use of technology in the classroom (e.g., Reinders & Wattana, 2014) or within existing social networks (e.g., Sun et al, 2017). This project took the communication online and placed the focus on technology use outside the classroom in order to examine L2 behaviours in a context more relevant to the day-to-day communication experienced by young adult language learners.

This research could also be applicable for other contexts where language learners have limited chances for contact with L1 English speakers. Research in countries such as Hungary (Kormos & Csizér, 2008), Poland (Mystkowska-Wiertelak & Pietrzykowska, 2011), China (Peng, 2014), and Chile (Kormos, Kiddle, & Csizér, 2011) have all shown international posture to be a useful construct for investigating language learning in those contexts.

In addition to linking international posture with the TPB, this study's utilisation of the TPB in investigating language learning through the use of technology highlighted the problematic issue of subjective norms for emerging behaviours. This research echoed and added support to previous studies that showed subjective norms to have a low or non-significant effect on newly created or evolving behaviours such as online communication (e.g., George, 2004; Hao, Dennen, & Mei, 2017; Shih & Fang, 2004). It is likely

that as social norms are created over time as behaviours and attitudes towards them become rooted in society, behaviours that are emerging due to changes in technology are less prone to be affected by them.

7.4 *Pedagogical Contributions*

As more and more communication moves onto the internet, the need for educators to harness that effort, and to develop teaching practices that promote learning through it, becomes ever greater. By investigating some of the factors impacting upon L2 SNS behavioural intention, this study has demonstrated the potential there is for utilizing social media use for language learning.

This research has also highlighted some of the obstacles that need to be overcome in order to facilitate meaningful learning opportunities. These include identifying the necessary skills for learners to acquire in order to navigate to the initial stages of L2 SNS use. Overcoming these obstacles will require an ongoing effort on the part of educators to understand the evolving nature of online communication forms, and the changing requirements language learners will need in order to adapt to them.

When considering the pedagogical implications of this study it is necessary to acknowledge the type of online activity that was employed. As these online tasks were primarily designed to mimic simple SNS behaviours the participants were likely to engage in in their L1, they were not created with educational value as criterion. If SNS based activities are to be utilised for language learning purposes, they would need to be adapted with clear teaching goals in mind. For example, SNS searches could be used for vocabulary focused tasks where well-defined language targets are identified in advance. Online tasks could also be used as awareness raising activities to introduce diverse forms of language and expression. In order to facilitate these types of educational opportunities, activities aimed at fostering self-directed learning, such as discussions and strategy sessions, would be

beneficial for empowering students with the tools to expand their language learning beyond the confines of the classroom.

Lai (2013) suggested that interventions should concentrate on developing language learners' willingness to use technology and relevant skill sets. This project demonstrated that the students in this context are at least open to the prospect of incorporating SNS use into their language learning. As mentioned in the introduction to this study, access is a key factor in this context. The use of SNSs and other online resources could increase access to not only authentic English content and communication for language learners in areas with low levels of linguistic diversity. It could also improve access for students with special needs or in rural areas where physical access to classroom-based instruction can be limited. An increase in accessibility via use of SNSs could have positive implications for all stakeholders within the educational process.

However, the ethical issues raised by the prospect of using SNSs for educational purposes are a necessary consideration. These concerns are particularly relevant in regard to protecting the privacy and online safety of students. One way to ameliorate these concerns is to create a virtual language exchange. If the language exchange environment were created and monitored by the educator or institution, some of the privacy and safety concerns that come with online communications can be minimised, while still retaining the accessibility benefits brought by utilising online communication.

7.5 *Limitations of Research*

Trends in the realm of the internet are particularly fluid and fast-moving. During the span of this project there have been a number of factors that have combined to create negative headlines regarding SNSs. Perhaps most troubling and relevant to this study have been the cases of personal data being leaked and used for unsavoury purposes. Stories such as these undoubtedly contribute to increased disquiet over how and where to share

content and interact with social media. In addition to producing concerns regarding the handling of private information, the past few years have also seen a general erosion of trust in online content due to the use of bots on SNSs such as Twitter and Facebook, as well as frequent allegations of *fake news* from certain sections of the political landscape. At the time of writing there are no data to conclusively show whether those factors have already started a roll-back of engagement levels in SNSs.

Another aspect of SNS use that could have impacted on this study is the manner in which different people use and consume these services. There have been some studies that suggest the level and type of engagement with SNSs varies widely among the population (e.g., Robinson, Callahan, Boyle, Rivera, & Cho, 2017). As this project was concerned with the communication that occurs via SNSs, difficulties arise in cases where the user is simply passively monitoring online content and not actively using it for communicative purposes. It also proved challenging to follow SNS use across platforms to monitor who does what and when.

A problem related to tracking SNS behaviours was the use of tasks in this research. Due to the tasks being created in order to allow for the measuring of online behaviour, it necessarily follows that they were somewhat contrived. The contrived nature of the tasks used raises questions regarding the ecological validity of the results in this study. Additionally, the self-selected nature of participation in both the tasks and interviews is a factor that affects the degree to which the results in this study are generalisable.

There were also a number of issues that arose during the analysis of the questionnaire used in this study. The small number of respondents who had completed an L2 test in the previous 12 months did not allow for language competence to be a part of the study. Furthermore, the wording of the SNS platform specific behavioural intention questions led to them proving unreliable at the analysis stage. In order to counteract this limitation it would have been advantageous to include more items to measure behavioural intention across platforms.

Finally, the size and scope of this project also limits its applicability to other contexts. Due to the focus of this study being on university level students in Japan, the unique factors that apply here may render the conclusions arrived at to be quite narrow. Additionally, the limited number of participants that took part in the project may also curtail the strength of the statistical determinations that can be made from the data collected.

7.6 *Possible Future Directions of Research*

As pointed out in the previous section, many of the limitations in this research are attributable to the rapidly evolving nature of online communication. For future research into L2 SNS use it would be interesting to delineate between SNS specific behaviours, such as tweeting, and asynchronous communication behaviours such as messaging or commenting. This would allow for a closer match between the measures for behavioural intention and the actual behaviour being observed.

Furthermore, it would be desirable to collect data in a more ecologically valid manner. Although there are many ethical, legal, and practical obstacles to overcome, if future researchers could analyse actual SNS use data the results that could be drawn from it would be much more robust.

There is also scope for the impact of individual differences on L2 SNS behaviour to be investigated. Although this study briefly looked at the differences that emerged in the data when it was split into gender groups, future research could examine personality traits, language competence, and age to see what effect they have. It would also be worthwhile combining research into SNS user types like that carried out by Robison and colleagues (Robinson, Callahan, Boyle, Rivera, & Cho, 2017) with a TPB based study to assess the patterns that emerge.

This research has investigated the attitudes and intentions of tertiary level language learners towards L2 SNS use in the Japanese

context. The data collected showed that the TPB and international posture based model was a suitable one for linking the participants' attitudes, self-efficacy beliefs and international posture with the intention to engage in L2 SNS behaviour. However, the absence of a significant link from subjective norms suggests that societal norms surrounding online communication have yet to be firmly established. Finally, the engagement levels shown in the SNS tasks and the themes that emerged from the interviews exposed some of the obstacles that need to be overcome in order to effect L2 learning through SNS usage.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Pilot Questionnaire (English)

Student number: _____

1. Which social media sites (SNSs) do you use (access at least once a week)?

Line ☐   Facebook ☐   Instagram ☐   Twitter ☐   Snapchat ☐   Other _____

2. How often do you look at any SNS?

Once a day < ☐   Once a week > ☐   Once a week < ☐   Hardly ever ☐   Never ☐

3. How often do you write something on any SNS?

Once a day < ☐   Once a week > ☐   Once a week < ☐   Hardly ever ☐   Never ☐

4. How often do you look at English language content on SNSs?

Once a day < ☐   Once a week > ☐   Once a week < ☐   Hardly ever ☐   Never ☐

5. How often do you write in English on SNS?

Once a day < ☐   Once a week > ☐   Once a week < ☐   Hardly ever ☐   Never ☐

DIRECTIONS:
Think about your use of social media. Circle the answer that matches your feelings the closest.

If you had 4 opportunities to do the following actions, how many times would you?

6. Post in English on an SNS.

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

7. Respond to an English comment about your photo on Instagram.

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

8. Post your reaction to a course related topic in English in a Facebook group.

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

9. Respond to a course related tweet in English.

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

10. Participate in an English discussion in a Line group.

| 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |

Using English on online social networks is:

11. Worthless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Worthwhile
12. Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
13. Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
14. Useless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Useful

15. I feel under social pressure to try to use English on online social-networks.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

16. Whether or not I use English on a SNS is up to me.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

17. Using English on an SNS will help me get to know people from around the world.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

18. Getting to know people from around the world is desirable.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

19. I want to make friends with international students studying in Japan.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

20. My friends would approve of me using English on an SNS.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

21. My friends' opinion of my SNS use is important to me.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

22. I want to stay in my hometown.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

23. My knowledge of English will be good enough to use on an SNS.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

24. When my knowledge of English is good enough I am likely to use it on an SNS.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

25. I often look at or read news about foreign countries.

Do   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Don't do

26. Most people who are important to me think that I should try to use English on SNSs.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

27. I am confident that I could use English on a SNS if I wanted to.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

28. I want to discuss issues with people in the world.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

29. Using English on SNSs will help me learn everyday English.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

30. Learning everyday English is desirable.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

31. I try to avoid talking with foreigners if I can.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

32. My teachers would approve of me using English on an SNS.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

33. My teachers' opinion of my SNS use is important to me.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

34. I often talk about situations and events in foreign countries with my family and/or friends.

Do   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Don't do

35. I feel embarrassed when using English on an SNS.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

36. Feeling embarrassed makes it difficult to use English on an SNS.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

37. I want to work in a foreign country.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

38. I'm expected to try and use English on SNSs.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

39. Using in English on an SNS is easy.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

40. Using English on SNSs will make me knowledgeable about international affairs.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

41. Being knowledgeable about international affairs is desirable.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

42. I have thoughts that I want to share with people from other parts of the world.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

43. Most of my friends use English on SNSs.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

44. I want to be like my friends in my use of English on SNSs.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

45. I want to work in an international organization such as the United Nations.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

46. I know enough English slang to use English on an SNS.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

47. Knowing enough English slang makes it easy to use English on an SNS.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

48. I would talk to an international student if I had the chance.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

49. I have a strong interest in international affairs.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

50. I have ideas about international issues, such as environmental issues.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

51. Most people around me want me to use English on SNSs.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

52. Using English on SNSs will improve my knowledge of English slang.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

53. Improving my knowledge of English slang is desirable.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

54. I'm interested in an international career.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

55. People I respect use English on SNSs.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

56. I want to be like the people I respect in my use of English on SNSs.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

57. I'm not much interested in overseas news.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

58. The decision to use English on a SNS is under my control.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

59. I know enough vocabulary to use English on an SNS.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

60. Knowing enough vocabulary makes it easy to use English on an SNS.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

61. I want to participate in a volunteer activity to help foreigners living in the surrounding community.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

62. I have no clear opinions about international issues.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

63. Using English on SNSs will improve my knowledge of English vocabulary.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

64. Improving my knowledge of English vocabulary is desirable.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

65. I would feel somewhat uncomfortable if a foreigner moved in next door.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

66. I'd rather avoid the kind of work that sends me overseas frequently.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

DIRECTIONS:
Please complete the following information.

67. Gender: Male □ Female □

68. Age: _____

69. Have you taken an English test in the last year? Yes □ No □

70. If yes, please write your (approximate) score or grade:

TOEIC: _____ TOEFL: _____ Eiken: _____ IELTS: _____

Other - Test: _____ Score/Grade - _____

71. Would you be willing to participate in a follow-up interview? Yes □ No □

Thank you for your cooperation!

Appendix B: Pilot Questionnaire (Japanese)

学生番号: _____

1. どのようなソーシャルメディアサイト（ＳＮＳ）を使用していますか（少なくとも週一回はアクセスするもの）
ライン□　フェイスブック□　インスタグラム□　ツイッター□　スナップチャット□　他 ____

2. どのくらいの頻度でＳＮＳをチェックしますか?
１日一回以上 □　一週間一回以上 □　一週間一回以下 □　滅多に □　見ない □

3. どのくらいの頻度でＳＮＳに書き込みますか?
１日一回以上 □　一週間一回以上 □　一週間一回以下 □　滅多に □　しない □

4. どのくらいの頻度でＳＮＳの英語のコンテンツ（動画、記事等）をチェックしますか?
１日一回以上 □　一週間一回以上 □　一週間一回以下 □　滅多に □　見ない □

5. どのくらいの頻度でSNSに英語で書き込みますか?
１日一回以上 □　一週間一回以上 □　一週間一回以下 □　滅多に □　しない □

DIRECTIONS:
ソーシャルメディアの使用について考え、自分の感情と近いものを〇で囲んでください。

もしあなたが下記のような行動をする機会が4回あったとしたら何回行いますか?

6. ＳＮＳに英語で書きこむ。
　　　　　　0　　　　　1　　　　　　2　　　　　3　　　　　4

7. インスタグラムに載せた写真への英語コメントに返信する。
　　　　　　0　　　　　1　　　　　　2　　　　　3　　　　　4

8. フェイスブックグループの中で授業内容に関連した英語のトピックについて投稿する。
　　　　　　0　　　　　1　　　　　　2　　　　　3　　　　　4

9. 授業内容に関連したツイートに対して英語で返信する。
　　　　　　0　　　　　1　　　　　　2　　　　　3　　　　　4

10. ライングループの英語ディスカッションに参加する。
　　　　　　0　　　　　1　　　　　　2　　　　　3　　　　　4

ＳＮＳで英語を使用することについて
11. 価値がない　1　　　2　　　3　　　4　　　5　　　6　　　7　　　価値がある
12. 詰まらない　1　　　2　　　3　　　4　　　5　　　6　　　7　　　面白い
13. 不愉快　　　1　　　2　　　3　　　4　　　5　　　6　　　7　　　快適
14. 役に立たない 1　　2　　　3　　　4　　　5　　　6　　　7　　　役に立つ

15. ＳＮＳで英語を使わせるような圧力を感じる。
全くそう思わない 1　　　2　　　3　　　4　　　5　　　6　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

16. ＳＮＳで英語を使うか使わないかは自分次第である。
全くそう思わない 1　　　2　　　3　　　4　　　5　　　6　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

17. ＳＮＳで英語を使用することは世界中の人々と知り合う手助けになる。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

18. 世界中の人と知り合うことは魅力的である。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

19. 留学生など外国人と友達になりたい。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

20. 友達は自分がＳＮＳで英語を使用することをよく思っている。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

21. 自分のＳＮＳ利用に関しての友達の意見は私にとって重要である。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

22. 故郷の街からあまり出たくない。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

23. 自分の英語の知識はＳＮＳで使うためには充分である。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

24. 自分の英語の知識が充分であったなら、ＳＮＳで英語を使うだろう。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

25. 外国に関するニュースをよく見たり、読んだりする。
全くしない　　　　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　よくする

26. 自分にとって大事な大半の人達は私がＳＮＳで英語を使ってみるべきだと思っている。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

27. ＳＮＳで英語を 使うことができると自信をもって言える。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

28. 世界の人々と話したい話題がある。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

29. ＳＮＳで英語を使うことは日常英語の勉強に役立つ。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

30. 日常英語を学ぶことは魅力的である。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

31. 外国の人と話すのを避けられれば避ける方だ。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

32. 先生は自分がＳＮＳで英語を使用することについてよく思っている。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

33. ＳＮＳ利用に関しての先生の意見は私にとって重要である。
全くそう思わない　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

34. 外国の情勢や出来事について家族や友人とよく話し合うほうだ。
全くしない　　　　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　よくする

35. ＳＮＳで英語を使う時、恥ずかしいと感じる。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

36. 恥ずかしいと感じることがＳＮＳで英語を使うことを難しくしている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

37. 外国で仕事をしてみたい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

38. 私はＳＮＳで英語を使って欲しいと思われている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

39. ＳＮＳで英語を使うことは簡単である。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

40. SNSで英語を使用することによって世界の出来事について知識豊富になれる。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

41. 世界の出来事について知識豊富になることは魅力的である。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

42. 世界中の人々と様々な問題について話し合いたい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

43. 大半の友達はＳＮＳで英語を使っている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

44. 友達のようにＳＮＳで英語を使いたい。（友達が英語を使用していない場合は、使用していると仮定して。）
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

45. 国連などの国際機関で働いてみたい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

46. ＳＮＳで使うには充分な英語の俗語（スラング）を知っている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

47. 英語の俗語を充分に知っていることによってＳＮＳで英語を使うことが簡単になる。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

48. もし機会があれば、留学生と話したい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

49. 国際的な問題に強い関心をもっている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

50. 環境問題などの国際問題について考えをもっている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

51. 周囲の大半の人達はＳＮＳで私に英語を使って欲しいと思っている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

52. ＳＮＳで英語を使用することによって英語の俗語についての知識が上達する。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

53. 英語の俗語の上達は魅力的である。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

54. 国際的な仕事に興味がある。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

55. 自分が尊敬している人はＳＮＳで英語を使っている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

56. 私は尊敬してる人のようにＳＮＳで英語を使いたい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

57. 海外のニュースにはあまり興味がない。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

58. ＳＮＳで英語を使用する決定権は自分にある。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

59. ＳＮＳで使うには充分な英語の語彙力がある。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

60. 充分な語彙力があることによってＳＮＳで英語が使いやすくなる。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

61. 日本で地域の外国人を世話するような活動に参加してみたい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

62. 国際的な諸問題について特に意見はもっていない。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

63. ＳＮＳで英語を使用することは自分の語彙力を高める。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

64. 語彙力を高めることは魅力的である。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

65. もし、日本で隣に外国の人が越してきたら 困ったなと思う。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

66. 海外出張の多い仕事は避けたい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　　非常にそう思う

次の項目の□にチェック(✔)を入れるか、空欄に回答を記入してお答えください。

67. 性別：男性 □   女性 □

68. 年齢： _____

69. 昨年何か英語の試験を受験しましたか?   はい □   いいえ □

70. はいの場合、点数またはレベルを記入してください。

TOEIC:_____ TOEFL:_____ Eiken: _____ IELTS: _____ そのた ：_____（点数：_____）

71. 今後、更にインタビューに参加してもらえますか?   はい □   いいえ □

<div align="center">ご協力ありがとうございました！</div>

Appendix C: Information and Consent Sheets

Project title: Online social network communication behaviours of second language learners in the Japanese context

Researcher: Shaun Hoggard. I am a doctoral student in the Department of Linguistics and English Language at Lancaster University.

You are invited to take part in this research study. Please take time to read the following information carefully before you decide whether or not you wish to take part.

What is the purpose of this study?

As part of my Doctoral studies in the Department of Linguistics and English Language at Lancaster University, I am conducting a study that aims to investigate English learners' online social-network usage in Japan.

What does the study entail?

This study will involve filling in a questionnaire about your use of online social-networks and your English language communication behaviours. The questionnaire should only take around 10 minutes to complete. There will then be a series of online tasks that you are free to participate or not to participate in. For willing students who are selected there will also be a follow-up interview regarding your answers to the questionnaire and your participation in the online tasks. Participants who are willing and selected to be interviewed will be given a credit voucher for the university's QuickPay system to compensate for your time.

What are the possible benefits from taking part?

Taking part in this study will allow you to reflect on your own experience of using English in online environments. Your insights will contribute to our understanding of how participation in online social-networks can help to improve second-language teaching practice. Participation in the online tasks should also increase your second language skills and give you opportunities to use your English in real-world settings.

What are the possible disadvantages and risks of taking part?

There are no disadvantages or risks to taking part in this study. Participation is completely voluntary, will only involve a short time commitment, and will not affect your performance on this course.

Can I withdraw from this study?

You are free to withdraw from the study at any time or at any stage. If you decide to withdraw after any stage you can request (within two weeks) for your data to be destroyed and not to be included in the study.

Confidentiality and anonymity

All the information obtained if you decide to take part will remain anonymous at every stage of the research. Furthermore, all personally identifiable data (e.g. name, student number, online profiles etc) will remain confidential. The data will be stored on a password protected computer that conforms to the security policy of the University. Files containing the data will be encrypted. The data will be kept for at least ten years after the end of the project, and thereafter any valuable research data will be deposited in a trusted repository. Anonymised data with all identifying information removed will be made publicly available. You can, however, request in the consent form that your data should only be available to myself and my thesis supervisor.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of the study will be used for academic purposes only. This will include being published within my doctoral thesis, journal articles and conference presentations.

What if there is a problem?

If you have any queries or if you are unhappy with anything that happens concerning your participation in the study, please contact:

My thesis supervisor

Dr. Judit Kormos

Professor in Second Language Acquisition

Department of Linguistics and English Language

Lancaster University

Lancaster LA1 4YL

United Kingdom

j.kormos@lancaster.ac.uk

Tel: +44-(0)1524-93039

For further information on the project please contact

Shaun Hoggard

PhD Student

Department of Linguistics and English Language

Lancaster University

s.hoggard@lancaster.ac.uk

Thank you for considering your participation in this project.

UNIVERSITY OF LANCASTER

Department of Linguistics and English Language
Consent Form

Project title: **Online social network communication behaviours of second language learners in the Japanese context**

1. I have read and had explained to me by Shaun Hoggard the Information Sheet relating to this project.

2. I have had explained to me the purposes of the project and what will be required of me, and any questions have been answered to my satisfaction. I agree to the arrangements described in the Information Sheet in so far as they relate to my participation.

3. I understand that my participation is entirely voluntary and that I have the right to withdraw from the project at any time but not later than two weeks after the last session.

4. I have received a copy of this Consent Form and of the accompanying Information Sheet.

5. I understand that any information given by me may be used in future reports, articles, publications or presentations by the research team, but my personal information will not be included and I will not be identifiable.

6. I understand that any interviews or focus groups will be recorded and that data will be protected on encrypted devices and kept secure.

7. I understand that data will be kept according to University guidelines.

8. I agree to take part in the above study and to making the anonymised data I provide to be made publicly available.

Signed:_____

_

Date:_____

_

9.   I agree to take part in the above study but I do not agree to making my anonymised data publicly available.

Signed:_____

_

Date:_____

_

Appendix D: Main Questionnaire (English)

Student number: _____

1. Which of these social media sites (SNSs) do you use (access at least once a week)?

1. Line ☐   2. Facebook ☐   3. Instagram ☐   4. Twitter ☐

2. How often do you look at any SNS?

1. Once a day < ☐   2. Once a week > ☐   3. Once a week < ☐   4. Hardly ever ☐   5. Never ☐

3. How often do you write something on any SNS?

1. Once a day < ☐   2. Once a week > ☐   3. Once a week < ☐   4. Hardly ever ☐   5. Never ☐

4. How often do you look at English language content on SNSs?

1. Once a day < ☐   2. Once a week > ☐   3. Once a week < ☐   4. Hardly ever ☐   5. Never ☐

5. How often do you write in English on any SNS?

1. Once a day < ☐   2. Once a week > ☐   3. Once a week < ☐   4. Hardly ever ☐   5. Never ☐

DIRECTIONS:
Think about your use of social media. Circle the answer that matches your feelings the closest.

If you had 4 opportunities to do the following actions, how many times would you?

6. Post in English on an SNS.

0   *1*   *2*   *3*   *4*

7. Respond to an English comment about your photo on Instagram.

0   *1*   *2*   *3*   *4*

8. Post your reaction to a course related topic in English in a Facebook group.

0   *1*   *2*   *3*   *4*

9. Respond to a course related tweet in English.

0   *1*   *2*   *3*   *4*

10. Participate in an English discussion in a Line group.

0   *1*   *2*   *3*   *4*

Using English on online social networks is:

11. Boring	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Interesting
12. Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Pleasant
13. Useless	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Useful

DIRECTIONS:
Please rate how certain you are that you can do the following using English on social media sites.

Rate your degree of confidence by circling a number from 0 to 10 using the scale given below:

0	5	10
Cannot	Moderately	Highly certain
do	can do	can do

14. Read and understand a comment posted in English.

     0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

15. Use the correct vocabulary when posting in English.

     0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

16. Post in English without feeling embarrassed.

     0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

17. Use the correct grammar when posting n English.

     0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

18. Know enough slang to understand English content.

     0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

19. Use the correct spelling when posting in English.

     0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

20. Be confident enough to post in English.

     0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

21. Express yourself clearly in an English posting.

     0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

DIRECTIONS:
Circle the number that best matches your opinion.

22. I want to make friends with international students studying in Japan.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

23. I want to work in a foreign country.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

24. Most people who are important to me think that I should try to use English on SNSs.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

25. I often look at news about foreign countries.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

26. I try to avoid talking with foreigners if I can.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

27. I often talk about situations and events in foreign countries with my family and/or friends.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

28. I'm expected to try and use English on SNSs.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

29. I want to work in an international organisation such as the United Nations.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

30. I would talk to an international student if I had the chance.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

31. I have a strong interest in international affairs.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

32. Most people who are important to me want me to try to use English on SNSs.

| Disagree | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Agree |

33. I'm interested in an international career.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

34. I'm not much interested in overseas news.

Disagree   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   Agree

DIRECTIONS:
Please complete the following information.

35. Gender: Male □   Female □

36. Age: _____

37. Have you taken an English test in the last year?   Yes □   No □

38. If yes, please write your (approximate) score or grade:

TOEIC: _____   TOEFL: _____   Eiken: _____

39. Are you willing to participate in an interview about this questionnaire?   Yes □   No □

Thank you for your cooperation!

Appendix E: Main Questionnaire (Japanese)

学生番号: _____

1. どのようなソーシャルメディアサイト（ＳＮＳ）を使用していますか（少なくとも週一回はアクセスするもの）

ライン □　　　　　フェイスブック □　　　　　インスタグラム □　　　　ツイッター □

2. どのくらいの頻度でＳＮＳをチェックしますか？

１日一回以上 □　　一週間一回以上 □　　一週間一回以下 □　　滅多に □　　見ない □

3. どのくらいの頻度でＳＮＳに書き込みますか？

１日一回以上 □　　一週間一回以上 □　　一週間一回以下 □　　滅多に □　　しない □

4. どのくらいの頻度でＳＮＳの英語のコンテンツ（動画、記事等）をチェックしますか？

１日一回以上 □　　一週間一回以上 □　　一週間一回以下 □　　滅多に □　　見ない □

5. どのくらいの頻度でSNSに英語で書き込みますか？

１日一回以上 □　　一週間一回以上 □　　一週間一回以下 □　　滅多に □　　しない □

ソーシャルメディアの使用について考え、自分の感情と近いものを〇で囲んでください。
もしあなたが下記のような行動をする機会が4回あったとしたら何回行いますか？

6. ＳＮＳに英語で書きこむ。

0　　　　　1　　　　　2　　　　　3　　　　　4

7. インスタグラムに載せた写真への英語コメントに返信する。

0　　　　　1　　　　　2　　　　　3　　　　　4

8. フェイスブックグループの中で授業内容に関連した英語のトピックについて投稿する。

0　　　　　1　　　　　2　　　　　3　　　　　4

9. 授業内容に関連したツイートに対して英語で返信する。

0　　　　　1　　　　　2　　　　　3　　　　　4

10. ライングループの英語ディスカッションに参加する。

0　　　　　1　　　　　2　　　　　3　　　　　4

ＳＮＳで英語を使用することについて

11. 詰まらない	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	面白い
12. 不愉快	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	快適
13. 役に立たない	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	役に立つ

_____

下記に記したようにソーシャルメディアで英語を使うことができるということに対してどの程度確信があるか評価してください。
自信の度合いを示している下記の 0 から 10 の数字を〇で囲んでください。

0		5		10
できない		できるかもしれない		確実にできる

14. 英語で書かれたコメントを読んで理解できる。

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

15. 英語で書く時に正しい用語を使うことができる。

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

16. 恥ずかしいと感じることなく英語で書くことができる。

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

17. 英語で書くときに正しい文法を使うことができる。

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

18. 英文の理解に必要なスラングを知っている。

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

19. 正しい英語のスペルで書くことができる。

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

20. 英語で書くことに充分な自信がある。

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

21. 英語の投稿で自分をきちんと表現できる。

0   1   2   3   4   5   6   7   8   9   10

_____

該当すると思われる数字を〇で囲んでください。

22. 留学生など外国人と友達になりたい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

23. 外国で仕事をしてみたい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

24. 自分にとって大事な大半の人達は私がＳＮＳで英語を使ってみるべきだと思っている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

25. 外国に関するニュースをよく見たり、読んだりする。
全くしない　　　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　よくする

26. 外国の人と話すのを避けられれば避ける方だ。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

27. 外国の情勢や出来事について家族や友人とよく話し合うほうだ。
全くしない　　　　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　よくする

28. 私はＳＮＳで英語を使って欲しいと思われている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

29. 国連などの国際機関で働いてみたい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

30. もし機会があれば、留学生と話したい。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

31. 国際的な問題に強い関心をもっている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

32. 周囲の大半の人達はＳＮＳで私に英語を使って欲しいと思っている。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

33. 国際的な仕事に興味がある。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

34. 海外のニュースにはあまり興味がない。
全くそう思わない　1　　　　2　　　　3　　　　4　　　　5　　　　6　　　　7　　　非常にそう思う

次の項目の□にチェック（✔）を入れるか、空欄に回答を記入してお答えください。

35. 性別：　　　　男性 □　　　　　　女性 □

36. 年齢：　　　_____

37. 昨年何か英語の試験を受験しましたか？　　　　　　はい　□　　　いいえ　□

38. はいの場合、点数またはレベルを記入してください。

TOEIC:_____　　　　　TOEFL:_____　　　　　　Eiken:_____

39. 今後、更にインタビューに参加してもらえますか？　　はい　□　　　いいえ □

ご協力ありがとうございました！

Appendix F: Task Prompts

Instagram Task

1. Put the tag #gaikomi on a photo on Instagram. (any photo is ok)

2. Reply to a comment made by gaikomishaun about the photo in English.

Finished!   Easy!
（１週間以内に実施してください）

Twitter Task

Option 1

1. Search for @GaikomiShaun

2. Reply to any tweet by @GaikomiShaun in English.

Option 2

1. Retweet an English tweet. Put the tag #gaikomi on it.
(any English tweet is ok)

Easy!   **Finished!**   （１週間以内に実施してください）

Line Task

1. Plan a party with your friend, or friends on Line. (in English!)

> Let's plan a birthday party for Shaun.

2. Take screenshot(s) of the chat.

3. Send screenshot(s) to: shaun.hoggard@s.hokkyodai.ac.jp

Easy!   （１週間以内に実施してください）

Final Task

1. Add Shaun as a friend.
2. Send your <u>full name</u> to Shaun as a message.
3. Ask Shaun questions in the group. Any questions are ok!

> Do you know Shaun the sheep?

4. After <u>1 week</u> the group will end and your name will be removed from Shaun's friends list.

The End!

Appendix G: Preliminary Question List

1. How often do you use social media sites?
2. Which sites do you use?
3. What do use them for?
    a. Communicating with friends
    b. Getting news/information
    c. Sharing your news/thoughts
    d. Other, explain
4. On the questionnaire you indicated that you _____ look at English content, why is that?
5. On the questionnaire you indicated that you _____ write English content, why is that?
6. What would make you want to use English on SNSs more?
7. If your knowledge of English vocabulary/grammar/slang was better, would you use English on SNSs more? Why (not)?
8. Why did (didn't) you participate in the Instagram task?
9. Why did (didn't) you participate in either of the Twitter tasks?
10. Why did (didn't) you participate in either of the Line tasks?
11. If all your friends were using English on SNSs, would you want to use it more? Why (not)?
12. Some people think that using English on SNSs is useful for making friends from abroad, what do you think?
13. Some people think that using English on SNSs increases your chances for future employment, what do you think?
14. Do you think participation in SNS tasks as a compulsory part of the course would be useful for your learning? Why (not)?

Appendix H: Interview Transcript Example (English)

Interviewer(I): Shaun Hoggard

Participant(P): (Yuki)

Interview Location: Shaun Hoggard's office

I: How often do you use social media sites?

P: Everyday.

I: Which sites do you use?

P: I mainly use Line, Twitter and Instagram.

I: What do use them for? Communicating with friends? Getting news or information? Sharing your news or thoughts or something else?

P: Mainly for getting information from other people.

I: Using Twitter?

P: Yes. Twitter, and on Instagram I like posting my photos and looking at other people's photos. So I like sharing photos.

I: On the questionnaire you indicated that you rarely look at English content...

P: That's right. I don't really have the opportunity, and to be honest I don't really try to look. So I don't get to see any.

I: Why is that?

P: Well English is a little difficult. It's difficult so it's not easy for me to read. There have been times why I didn't understand the meaning, so I figure if that's the case I might as well read Japanese content that I can understand.

I: On the questionnaire you indicated that you don't write English content, why is that?

P: That's right, I don't. Sometimes I put a simple English word in a Japanese sentence, for example "I'm (happy) today". [laughs]

Sometimes I like to use words that I've learnt. But I never really think about writing a whole sentence in English.

I: What would make you want to use English on SNSs more?

P: Use more... on SNSs?

I: Yes, on Line and Instagram for example, what would make you want to write more in English?

P: I see. I'd like to be able to post more in English on Instagram.

I: If your knowledge of English vocabulary were better, would you use English on SNSs more?

P: Yes, I think so. There're not many people in the world who know Japanese, are there? But with English I think there are people all over the world you can get in contact with and see their information. If my English were better I'd like to write in English.

I: If your knowledge of English grammar were better, would you use English on SNSs more?

P: Yes.

I: If your knowledge of English slang were better, would you use English on SNSs more?

P: Yes.

I: Out of those three: vocabulary, grammar and slang, which do you think would be the most beneficial.

P: I think vocabulary would be.

I: What would make it easier for you to use English to communicate on SNSs, for example skills etc?

P: What skills... Hmm, I don't have the ability to translate what I want to say in English from Japanese. Because it's different, you can't just write the

exact same in English as it's often wrong. Switching from Japanese to English is difficult and it's hard to get your meaning across. So I think it would be useful if I could do that.

I: Why did you decide to participate in the Instagram task?

P: Well, I thought it'd be great to write something in English. Also to put an English tag on. My English isn't that great, but I like English and want to be able to do it so I thought it'd be fun to tag a photo in English and write a comment. Even though it might not have been a suitable photo, even though it wasn't a great photo I wanted to try it.

I: Did you erase it right after?

P: Well, after I made that public so anyone could see it I got lots of requests from strange users, so I put a lock on it. I didn't erase it. I still have it.

I: Why didn't you participate in either of the Twitter tasks?

P: I have the Twitter app, but I don't really use it. So that's why I didn't do that task.

I: Why didn't you participate in either of the Line tasks?

P: Well Line, how can I put this? I enjoyed doing the Instagram task, for me I like Instagram the best. I didn't really see the point of using Line. I haven't really ever used English on Line so...

I: So you could see the point of putting an English tag on an Instagram post, but not for using English on Line.

P: I also wasn't very confident using Line.

I: So you thought the Line task seemed more difficult?

P: That's right.

I: Do you feel embarrassed using English on SNSs?

P: Yeah. I don't have much ability so I get embarrassed. I worry if I'm making a mistake.

I: If all your friends were using English on SNSs, would you want to use it more?

P: Yes, I'd want to use it more.

I: Why is that?

P: I the people around me were good at English, I wouldn't want to be left behind so I'd try to use it too. I think it's cool to be able to use English, so if other people were using it I'd try my best to keep up with them.

I: Some people think that using English on SNSs is useful for making friends from abroad, what do you think?

P: Yes. I've never used it so I can't really say, but I always wondered whether you could connect with foreign people by using SNS. I wonder if you could make foreign friends and share information with them if you use English. I think perhaps not.

I: Would you like to make friends from abroad?

P: Yes, I would [laughs].

I: Some people think that using English on SNSs increases your chances for future employment, what do you think?

P: Yes, I think so.

I: Why is that?

P: Recently it seems like candidates who can use English are favoured. It seems like they have an advantage. I've really noticed that recently, being able to use English and not being able to are really different.

I: What are the advantages of using English on SNSs?

P: Like I said before, you can communicate with a much wider range of people. Not just with Japanese.

I: Do you think it has any effect on your English ability?

P: Yes. I think as you write and read English your skills will increase. The more you use it the better it will get, I think.

I: What are the disadvantages of using English on SNSs?

P: I can't think of anything off the top of my head. The only things I can think of are positive.

I: So there are no negatives?

P: Just on Twitter, you occasionally get strange users from abroad. Just that. [laughs]

I: Do you think participation in SNS tasks as a compulsory part of the course would be useful for your learning?

P: Yes, I do. For people like me who aren't very good at English, giving them the chance to use English, by making a plan for them to use English I think they probably will be able to. Then through being able to do the tasks they'll think about trying to use English more. So I think it would be useful to make it compulsory.

I: Can you think of any potential negatives, for example privacy issues?

P: Yes, that might be a problem. But I think if you set up the follower/follow users with only connected people, like teachers, I think you could do it with no issues.

Appendix I: Interview Transcript Example (English)

インタービュア（I）：Shaun Hoggard

参加者（P）：（ユキ）

場所： 研究室

I: どのくらいの頻度でソーシャルメディアサイト（ＳＮＳ）を使用します
か？

P: そうですね。毎日は取り合いず 使ってますね。

I: どのようなＳＮＳを使用していますか?

P: Line, Twitter, Instagram ですね、主に使ってるのわ。

I: どのような目的で使用していますか？例えば：

      a. 友達とのコミュニケーション
      b. 情報収集
      c. 自分のニュースや考えの共有
      d. その他、説明してください。

P: 他人から情報得るために主に使ってますかね。

I: それは Twitter で？

P: そうですね。Twitter と Instagram とかは自分の写真とかも皆に見せたい
し相手の写真とか見て、まあシェアしたいなみたいなというあれからですか
ね。

I: はい、分かりました。

I: アンケートで英語の記事とかを滅多に見てないと書いたんですけ
ど。。。？

P: そうですね、あまり見る機会がないですね。あまり自分からも見ようとし
てないというのもあるんですけど、あまり見る機会がないですね。

I: それは何故ですか？

P:　やっぱり英語がちょっと難しいですね。難しいのであまりちょっと読み辛いなというのもあって、意味が分からないときもあって、それなら日本語の分かるぶんを読みたいなという気持ちですね。

I: アンケートで英語の記事を書いていないと書いたんですが。。。

P: そうですね、しないですね。簡単な単語を日本語の文の中に入れたりはするんですけど、なんか'今日は Happy だった'とか[laughs]　そんな感じ、ちょっと覚えた単語を使ってみたいなという時もあるんですけど。その英語だけの文を書こうとはあまり思わないですね。

I: SNS でより英語を使いたくさせるものは何ですか？

P: 使いたくさせるもの。。。SNS ですか？

I:　はい。Line とか Insta でもっと今より書こうと。。。

P:　そうですね。Instagram とかちょっと英語の文とかで投稿できたらと思いますね。

I: もし英語の語彙に関する知識がより豊富だったら、SNS で英語をもっと使うと思いますか？

P: それは思いますね。英語の方、やっぱり日本語と何というんですかね。日本語してる人というのは世界で見てもそんなにいないじゃないですね。でも英語だと知ってる人知ってる人世界中の色な人と繋がれてその人の情報とか見られると思うので、もし自分が英語万能だったら英語で書きたいなと思いますね。

I: もし英語の文法に関する知識がより豊富だったら、SNS で英語をもっと使うと思いますか？

P:　そうですね。

I: もし英語のスラングに関する知識がより豊富だったら、SNS で英語をもっと使うと思いますか？又、それはなぜですか？

P: そうですね。

I: その中からどっちがもっと知識あったらいいなと思いますか？
P: そうですね。語彙ですかね。やっぱり。、

I: あなたにとってどのような要素（スキル等）が SNS 上の英語でのコミュニケーションを簡単にしますか？
P: どんなスキルが。。。なんでしょうか。日本語から英語にできる力がやっぱり足りないですね。ちょっと違うので日本語でこう言いようとしても英語でそのまま書いたら違うということもたくさんあるので、やっぱりその日本語から英語の変換が難しくてあまり伝われないことも多いですね。この変換ができたらなと思ってます。

I: 何故インスタグラムのタスクに参加しましたか？
P: うんと、その英語で書くと言うのが、なんかすごい。しかも英語のタグを付けると言うのも。。。自分は英語がそんなすごいできる方ではないですけど、英語できたいと思ってるし英語が好きなので、その英語でタグ付けて文を書くというの楽しそうだなと思って。まぁ、写真は適切だったか、あまりいい写真なかったんですけど投稿してみたいと思ってしてみました。

I: その後すぐ消したんですか？
P: うんと、なんかその非公開アカウントみたいなに外してそれだれでも見れるようにしちゃったらなんか変なユーザーから色々なフォロがきたのでちょっと鍵をかけたんですけど。

I: ツイッターのタスクに参加しなかった理由は何ですか？
P: そうですね。Twitter は一応アプリ自体は入れているんですけど、そんなに使う頻度、そんなに使ってないという感じなので、Twitter はやらなかったですね。

I: ラインのタスクに参加しなかった理由は何ですか？

P: Line はうんと、何でしょうかね。なんかインスタを最初にやって楽しかった、自分的にインスタは一番好きなので。Line はあまり、なんというですかね、あまり興味が分からなかったですね。Line で英語と言うのはちょっとあまり使ったことがなかったので。

I: じゃあ、Instagram でタグとか意味があると思ったが、Line で使うんだったら。。。

P: ちょっと Line は自信がなかったというのもありますね。

I: Line の方が難しかったですか？

P: そうですね。

I: SNS で英語を使うことをためらいますか？それは何故ですか？

P: そうですね。自分はあまり能力ないので結構ためらいますよね。間違ってるじゃないかと思っちゃうので。

I: もしあなたの全ての友人が SNS で英語を使用したら、あなたももっと使いたくなりますか？それは何故ですか？

P: 使いたくなりますね。周りの人周りの人すごい英語万能なら自分も負けず頑張ってなんか、まぁ英語使えるってすごくかっこいいなと思うので、周りの人を使ってた自分も負けずに頑張りたいと思いますね。

I: SNS で英語を使うことは外国人の友人を作るために役立つと考えている人も居ますが、あなたはどう思いますか？

P: そうですね。使ったことがないので何とも言えないですけど、その使ったから外国人の方と繋がれるのかなというちょっと、何と言うですかね、疑問見たいのは自分でありますね。使ったからなんか外国人の友達とかできたり共有したりできるのかなと思いますね。あまりできないじゃないかなと思ってる方です。

I: 外国人の友達作りたいと思いますか？

P: 作りたいと思いますね。

I: SNS で英語を使うことは将来の就職のチャンスを増やすと考える人もいますが、あなたはどう思いますか？

P: あ、増やすと思いますね。やっぱり最近は英語が使える人の方がなんか採用もなんか、ちょっと、あのう優先的に見られるというか。そういうことも多いので、やっぱり英語使えるのと使えないので全然違うなと最近はすごい感じますね。

I: SNS で英語を使うことの利点は何だと思いますか？

P: やっぱりさっきも言ったように、その日本以外の人にも伝わる幅も広がるということだと思いますね。

I: 自分の英語の能力にも関係あると思いますか？

P: そうですね。書いてるうちになんかこういう。。。自分も英語を書いてその英語を読むことによってそのスキルも上がってくると思いますね。使えば使う程と思いますね。

I: SNS で英語を使うことの不利益な点は何だと思いますか？

P: パッと思いつかないですね。やっぱりいいことばっかりと思いつく感じですね。

I: 悪い面は特にないですか？

P: Twitter ユーザーとかだったらやっぱり外国の変なユーザーから。。。そういう感じですよね。

I: 授業の一部として必修で SNS タスクに参加することは
あなたの勉強に役立つと思いますか？ それは何故ですか？

P: 役立つと思いますね。その、自分から私みたいにあまり英語使えない人でもそういう機会与えてもらうことによって、その英語使うきっかけとかが、多分できると思うので、そのきっかけを通じてなんかそれから英語使って行

こうって考えることもできると思うので、必修にしても役立つなとは思います。

I: 必須にしたらなんかマイナス面とかないですか？プライバシーとか？

P: そうですね。プライバシーの問題あるんですけど、どうなんでしょうね。そこはフローとかフロワーをなんかちょっと先生とかそういう関係の人とやればまあうまくいくことも、うまくできるようになると思いますね。