An attitudinal study of English language learners towards English as a global language in a Japanese context

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Table of Contents

TABLE OF CONTENTS ... **2**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ... **5**

THESIS ABSTRACT ... **6**

1. INTRODUCTION ... **8**

1.1. Rationale for the study ... 9
1.2. Aim of the study ... 10
1.3. Overview of the dissertation ... 11

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE ... **13**

2.1. The spread of English and concepts addressing it ... 13
2.1.1. World Englishes ... 15
2.1.2. English as a lingua franca (ELF) ... 19
2.1.3. Global Englishes (GE) ... 21
2.2. Language norms ... 25
2.3. Language attitudes ... 28
2.3.1. The nature of attitudes ... 28
2.3.2. The importance of language attitudes ... 30
2.3.3. Attitudes towards English in L2/FL learning ... 32
2.3.4. Learners' attitudes towards varieties of English ... 37
2.3.5. Learners' attitudinal research related to varieties of English ... 39
2.4. Japanese society and English ... 71
2.4.1. Presence of English in Japanese society ... 72
2.4.2. English language education in Japan ... 80
2.5. Summary and the aims and rationale of the study ... 87

3. METHODOLOGY ... **89**

3.1. Research Questions ... 89
3.2. Study design ... 90
3.3. Population ... 92
3.4. Sample ... 95
3.5. Questionnaire development and quantitative data collection and analysis ... 105
3.5.1. Factual questions ... 106
3.5.2. Attitude measure ... 108
3.5.3. Procedure for the main study ... 127
3.5.4. Data analysis for the main study ... 128
3.6. Focus group question development and qualitative data collection and analysis 131
3.6.1. Focus group interviews ... 132
3.6.2. Focus group questions ... 133
3.6.3. Video conferencing service ... 134
3.6.4. Piloting with Japanese learners ... 135
3.6.5. Procedure for the main study ... 137
3.6.6. Data analysis for the main study ... 138
3.7. Methodological limitations ... 142
3.7.1. Sampling ... 142
3.7.2. Proficiency measure ... 143
3.7.3. Focus group ... 144
3.8. Ethical considerations ... 146

4. FINDINGS I ... **148**

4.1. Questionnaire (The Japanese version of the GEO-Q) ... 148
4.1.1. Data screening ... 148
4.1.2. Descriptive statistics (Attitude measure) ... 148
4.1.3. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (Attitude measure) ... 149
4.1.4. Summary ... 155
4.2. Focus groups ... 155

4.2.1. Focus group data related to Factor 1: English use with target communities *156*
4.2.2. Focus group data related to Factor 2: Awareness about varieties of English *160*
4.2.3. Focus group data related to Factor 3: Multilingualism *168*
4.2.4. Focus group data related to Factor 4: Language norms *172*
4.2.5. Focus group data related to Factor 5: Preference for native English *178*
4.3. SUMMARY 186

5. FINDINGS II **189**

5.1. QUESTIONNAIRE: EFA2 (ATTITUDE MEASURE) 190
5.1.1. Evaluation of assumptions *190*
5.1.2. EFA2 .... *193*
5.1.3. Summary of EFA2 .... *198*
5.2. QUESTIONNAIRE: CONFIRMATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS (CFA) (ATTITUDE MEASURE) 198
5.2.1. Model specification for CFA *198*
5.2.2. Evaluation of assumptions *202*
5.2.3. Confirmatory factor analysis *205*
5.3. QUESTIONNAIRE: STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODELLING (SEM) 215
5.3.1. Model specification for SEM *215*
5.3.2. Description of independent variables *218*
5.3.3. Evaluation of assumptions *220*
5.3.4. Structural equation modelling *226*
5.3.5. Summary *237*
5.4. FOCUS GROUPS 237
5.4.1. Exposure to native varieties of English *238*
5.4.2. Exposure to Japanese varieties of English *241*
5.4.3. Exposure to other varieties of English *243*
5.4.4. Proficiency *248*
5.4.5. Language norms *248*
5.4.6. Other variables affecting attitudes *250*
5.5. SUMMARY 250

6. DISCUSSION **253**

6.1. RQ1. WHAT ARE THE FACTORS THAT UNDERPIN JAPANESE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ENGLISH AS A GLOBAL LANGUAGE? 253
6.1.1. English use with target communities *254*
6.1.2. Awareness about varieties of English *257*
6.1.3. Multilingualism *261*
6.1.4. Language norms *262*
6.1.5. Preference for native English *264*
6.1.6. Summary *266*
6.2. RQ2. WHAT IS THE RELATIONSHIP, IF ANY, BETWEEN THE FACTORS UNDERPINNING JAPANESE ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS ENGLISH AS A GLOBAL LANGUAGE AND THEIR ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY AND EXPOSURE TO VARIETIES OF ENGLISH? 268
6.2.1. Summary *273*

7. CONCLUSION **275**

7.1. SUMMARY OF THE AIMS AND MAIN RESULTS OF THE STUDY 275
7.2. LIMITATIONS 278
7.3. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS 280
7.4. SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH 282
7.5. CONCLUSION 285

8. REFERENCES **287**

APPENDICES **316**

APPENDIX A: CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' UNIVERSITIES **316**

APPENDIX B: FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPANTS' ATTITUDINAL FACTORS **319**

APPENDIX C: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF FOCUS GROUP PARTICIPANTS **321**

APPENDIX D: THE GLOBAL ENGLISHES ORIENTATION QUESTIONNAIRE 323

APPENDIX E: PRE-PILOTING AND PILOTING WITH NON-JAPANESE LEARNERS 329

1. PRE-PILOTING AND PILOTING WITH NON-JAPANESE LEARNERS 329

1.1. PRE-PILOTING WITH NON-JAPANESE LEARNERS (APRIL 2017) 329
1.2. PILOTING WITH NON-JAPANESE LEARNERS (MAY 2017)..330
1.2.1. Procedure and participants...330
1.2.2. Data analysis..331
1.2.3. Findings..333

APPENDIX F: PILOTING WITH JAPANESE LEARNERS (DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS) 341

APPENDIX G: THE FINAL JAPANESE VERSION OF THE GLOBAL ENGLISHES ORIENTATION QUESTIONNAIRE (ENGLISH & JAPANESE)..343

APPENDIX H: FOCUS GROUP DISCUSSION GUIDE (ENGLISH & JAPANESE) 355

APPENDIX I: THE GROUPINGS OF THE DATA AND CREATING OF CONCEPTS (FOCUS GROUP DATA)...359

APPENDIX J: FOCUS GROUP CONSENT FORMS (ENGLISH & JAPANESE) 362

APPENDIX K: MAIN STUDY WITH JAPANESE LEARNERS (DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS) . 368

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Thesis Abstract

This study aims to investigate Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language, to explore the factors underpinning these attitudes, and to investigate the relationship between attitudes and other variables including (but not limited to) learners' English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English.

A growing number of studies continue to investigate learners' attitudes towards English as a global language. The learners' attitudes play an important role in initiating curriculum innovations for changes in English language teaching that reflect English use in the 21st century. There are complexities surrounding attitudes such as reports of learners' strongly preferring native varieties of English, while simultaneously showing openness towards English as a global language. Nevertheless, the extant quantitative measures of language attitudes, such as verbal and matched-guise techniques, are limited by their focus on static varieties of English, and thus cannot capture complex attitude formation in a dynamic global context. A new quantitative measure is necessary. Some mixed methods studies that employed interviews and focus group discussions have highlighted the dynamic nature of language attitudes and how they are formed, which includes factors affecting language attitudes, such as English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English. A detailed investigation of language attitudes with the use of both quantitative and qualitative measurements that are credible is necessary.

This study aims to capture learners' current attitudes formed in the complex sociolinguistic realities of the 21st century, which can inform a global approach to language teaching. It reports on a mixed methods study that involved the development of the Global Englishes Orientation Questionnaire (GEO-Q), which measures attitudes beyond static varieties and variables affecting them. These data were supplemented by follow-up focus group interviews to explore attitude formation further. The study is embedded in Global Englishes as a theoretical framework, within which, it quantitatively and qualitatively investigated the various facets of English language learners' attitudes and the variables affecting them.

The study took place over three stages. The target population included full-time students who were enrolled in a four-year university programme in Japan. The first stage involved the development of the GEO-Q. The questionnaire items were created through multiple steps, including drawing up items with an expert panel followed by several piloting phases with general and target populations. The validity and reliability of the instrument were examined repeatedly. The second stage involved quantitative data collection using the GEO-Q on 660 learners of English in Japanese universities. The data were used to explore the latent constructs underlying attitudes and relationships between these constructs and other variables, especially English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English by using exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses and structural equation modelling. The third stage involved nine focus groups in order to follow up on

the results of the statistical analyses that were conducted in the second stage. The qualitative data were analysed thematically through content analysis.

This study supports previous research, which found that learners' attitudes towards English as a global language were mixed. It identifies their complex attitudes in greater detail, capturing both global and traditional orientations, that is, students were simultaneously aware of and held positive attitudes towards the realities of English usage while also conforming to native-speaker norms in terms of desired target communities and varieties of English spoken in those communities. The study found a positive relationship between both orientations. This can be attributed to the lack of learners' linguistic self-confidence and an influence of non-linguistic factors like the positive image of native English-speaking countries, especially the United States, on society. Education and media appeared to play a crucial role in those learners' attitude formations.

My findings also revealed relationships between learners' attitudes and their English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English while controlling for potential confounding variables. Unlike previous studies that found a positive impact of English as a lingua franca (ELF) experiences on learners' global orientations, this study showed that ELF experiences could affect learners' global orientations both positively and negatively. The study highlighted the importance of learners' ELF experiences that have been sufficiently successful or meaningful in challenging the existing native-speaker norms that have permeated society.

This study makes significant theoretical, methodological, and practical contributions to the fields of Global Englishes and English language teaching. This is one of the first studies to build a structural equation model based on the Global Englishes Language Teaching framework. In this study, a rigorous measure was developed in order to capture complex English language learners' attitudes. The study addresses the nature of English language learners' attitudes in the 21st century, which informs curriculum change, revealing the persistence of native-speaker norms. The findings pertain to researchers and teachers who are interested in implementing Global Englishes-oriented pedagogic actions in English language classrooms and initiating curriculum innovation. Through collaborations between researchers and teachers, the GEO-Q may be used as an alternative research tool to examine the impact of such actions, leading to effective Global Englishes-informed innovations in English language teaching for the 21st century.

1. INTRODUCTION

The number of people who speak English as a second/foreign language (non-native speakers) has been in a period of rapid growth. Graddol (1997) predicted that only 500 million people will be defined as native speakers of English in 2050. This contrasts with Crystal's (2018) estimates that the total number of English speakers in the world had already reached 2.3 billion in 2017. Accompanying the global spread and diversification of English, the power and status of native speakers have been brought into question by the rapid expansion of English language education policies in parts of the world where English is spoken as a second/foreign language (Crystal, 2018; Graddol, 1997, 2006). Conformity to native-speaker norms of English has been under scrutiny especially in English language teaching (e.g. Cook, 1999; Davies, 2003; Firth & Wagner, 1997; Rampton, 1990).

There has been a boom in research on the implications of the spread of English as a global language for English language learners from different perspectives that have also included a focus on attitudes (Galloway, 2017), as attitude research can inform effective global approaches to language teaching. An investigation of attitude–defined as a psychological tendency that is voiced by evaluating an entity with some degree of favour or disfavour (Eagly & Chaiken, 1993)–towards language provides insights on community stereotypes, thoughts and beliefs, preferences, and desires relating to the language, which can contribute towards the successful implementation of language policies and practices (Baker, 1992; Garrett, 2010). Learners' attitudes towards English as a global language can provide insights on their stereotypes and beliefs about different varieties of English and English language learning and teaching (Galloway, 2017), which may help

practitioners develop approaches that reflect English usage in the 21st century global context (Galloway, 2017).

1.1. Rationale for the study

A literature review revealed a few gaps in research. First, previous empirical studies on learners' attitudes towards English as a global language have indicated that learners tend to show mixed attitudes towards English as a global language, conforming to native-speaker norms while holding positive attitudes towards diverse varieties of English and speakers of those varieties (e.g. Ahn & Kang, 2017; Ren, Chen & Lin, 2016; Sasayama, 2013). However, although very recent research using mixed methods has highlighted learners' attitudes in depth, a more detailed investigation with a new credible quantitative measure is needed because many attitude studies that have employed popular research techniques like the verbal-guise technique have failed to capture the dynamic, diverse, and fluid use of English and the extant questionnaires that were used in such research lacked validity and reliability.

Second, some studies have also identified the factors affecting learners' attitudes, such as learners' interactions with speakers of diverse English varieties (e.g. Galloway, 2013, 2017; Wang & Jenkins, 2016), indicating that English as a lingua franca (ELF) experiences have a positive impact on learners' attitudes. Nonetheless, to identify the dynamic relationship between ELF experiences and attitudes more accurately, a large-scale study with more advanced statistical techniques that can take the complexity into account is necessary. A few studies have pointed out that English language proficiency may play an important role in the formation of attitudes (e.g. Baker, 1992; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b). A detailed investigation of whether and how proficiency contributes to attitudes towards English as a global language is necessary. The factors affecting learners'

attitudes have not yet been sufficiently captured in most research since previous studies have neglected to include the full spectrum of potential confounding variables like gender and overseas experiences.

Japan appears to be ideal for conducting such an attitudinal study as Japanese learners tend to show a strong preference for native English (e.g. Matsuda, 2003; Galloway, 2011). Further, Japan also has distinctive language education policies and media portrayals that have been heavily influenced by the United States. The Japanese government has been investing efforts into the globalisation of higher education in recent times (Rose & McKinley, 2018). Thus, it may be possible to see some attitude changes among Japanese English language learners, especially university students.

1.2. Aim of the study

This study was designed to examine factors underpinning the current English language learners' attitudes towards English and to explore the relationships between their attitudes and factors affecting them (English language proficiency and exposure to different varieties of English), taking confounding variables into account. The GEO-Q was developed and used in this study. This questionnaire was based on the framework of Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT) (e.g. Galloway & Rose, 2015), a guide to incorporating Global Englishes perspectives, which provides insights on initiating change at a practical level, such as curriculum innovations, in order to push for a shift in ELT from conforming to native-speaker norms towards embracing the dynamic, diverse, and fluid use of English.

Factor analysis and structural equation modelling were employed to model learners' attitudes and determine factors affecting them, including proficiency and exposure to

different varieties of English. Focus group discussions were also conducted to examine learners' attitudes and the process of attitude formation in depth. This study addresses two main research questions:

1. What are the factors that underpin Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language?
    a. What factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes are related to the traditional and global orientations based on the GELT framework?
2. What is the relationship, if any, between the factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language and their English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English?

1.3. Overview of the dissertation

To ensure clarity of the English language learners' attitudes towards English in Japan, the literature review (Chapter 2) introduces relevant studies in the field. Based on the literature review, the rationale for this study was formed. The methodology (Chapter 3) outlines the study design to answer the above-mentioned research questions. It explains the stages involved in this study: (I) the development and piloting of a questionnaire; (II) quantitative data collection and analysis through the questionnaire; and (III) the development and piloting of focus group questions and qualitative data collection and analysis through focus groups. The target population (full-time Japanese undergraduate students currently enrolled in four-year programmes at Japanese universities) and study samples are also described in detail.

The main study findings pertaining to Research Question 1 are presented in Chapter 4, focusing on Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language. The results of exploratory factor analysis and reliability analysis on the quantitative (questionnaire) data are presented, followed by the results that emerged from the qualitative (focus group) data. Additional analyses are presented to answer the second question in Chapter 5, exploring the relationship between the constructs of Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language that emerged during the exploratory factor analysis and their English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English while controlling for the effects of other observed variables (overseas experience, gender, university type, university location, study major, year of study, and university characteristics). It presents the results of another round of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses on the attitudinal data to obtain an attitudinal factor structure and examine the fit of the structure to the data. The results of the structural equation modelling that investigated the structural relationships among all variables are also presented. The analysis of the focus group data follows the questionnaire data analysis.

Chapter 6 discusses the findings from the study by referring to the theoretical frameworks and findings of previous research. It also includes the implications of these findings in relation to the overall aim of the study. Chapter 7 concludes the thesis by presenting the aims and key findings, including the main results and contributions of this study to the field. This chapter also discusses pedagogical implications, outlines the limitations of the study, and makes recommendations for future research.

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter reviews the extant literature in which key theories in the field, especially in relation to English language learners, are presented, such as the spread of English and concepts addressing it, as well as language norms and attitudes. A selection of empirical studies relevant to the key theories is described and critiqued. The current presence of English in Japan is also explained.

2.1. The spread of English and concepts addressing it

As mentioned in the introductory chapter, the number of people who speak English, especially as a second/foreign language (non-native speakers) has been growing. The global spread of English may be explained as a result of colonialism, economic power, and globalisation. British Colonialism, which emerged in the 16th century, played an important role in the spread of English (Crystal, 2018; Pennycook, 1998). The growth of the British Empire contributed towards establishing strong ties between the use of English and power. This historical perspective is linked to the continued prominence of British English for English language learning and teaching today (McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008).

Economic power contributed to the creation of the commercial supremacy of the United Kingdom, and the United States later in the 20th century (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Crystal, 2018). Owing to the leading economic position of those English-speaking countries, English became the language of international business.

In the era of globalisation, many people believed in the power of the English language (Kachru, 1986; McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008) and tended to assume that the knowledge of English may bring about economic, educational, and social advantages

(McKay, 2012). As a result, there has been a rapid increase in the number of non-native speakers of English the world over, which is most relevant to the context of my study. There are growing opportunities to use English in different fields such as education, international business, media, entertainment, and technology, which are briefly explained below as they are relevant to the context of my study.

Regarding education, the number of international students going to English-speaking countries has increased. Nowadays, more and more countries in Europe and Asia, where English is spoken as a second/foreign language, are offering courses taught through the medium of English (Galloway, Kriukow, & Numajiri, 2017; Graddol, 2006). Most scholarly journals included in prestigious journal indexes, such as the Web of Science Index (Web of Science, 2020), are published in English. Thus, a growing number of publications in science like biology, physics, medicine, mathematics, and chemistry, are written in English (Crystal, 2003). International scientific projects are often conducted using English as a shared language (McKay, 2012). There has been an increase in the number of interactions between non-native speakers in transnational corporations outside English-speaking countries (Graddol, 2006; Paradowski, 2008). The number of businesses outside English-speaking countries is also growing, and the opportunities of non-native speakers who use English to communicate with other non-native speakers are on the rise. English is predominantly used in media and entertainment such as satellite broadcasting, advertising, music, and films (Crystal, 2003, 2018; McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; Paradowski, 2008). Anglo-American cultures and values have been influencing many people the world over through the film industry (Hollywood), entertainment broadcasting, commercials, fashion, food and beverage, and popular music (Crystal, 2003). In the world of technology (Graddol, 1997; McKay & Bokhorst-Heng, 2008; Warschauer & De Florio-Hansen, 2003), over 80% of the world's electronic

information is available in English (Crystal, 2018; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Graddol, 2006; UNESCO, 2009).

To address the changes made to English as a result of postcolonialism and globalisation, scholars from different research communities, such as World Englishes, ELF, and Global Englishes (GE), have offered models that inform the conceptual framework of the current study. Each of these terms is defined and discussed below.

2.1.1. World Englishes

World Englishes were historically focused on emerging varieties of English that are linguistically identifiable and geographically definable with a particular focus on linguistic variations in former British colonies (Kachru, 1992, 1997). These concepts were informed by Braj J. Kachru and Larry E. Smith in the 1970s and 1980s. A series of scholarly works began addressing Englishes, such as Singapore (Foley, 1988; Platt & Weber, 1980; Platt, Weber, & Ho, 1984) and West African (Bamgbose, Banjo, & Thomas, 1997) Englishes.

World Englishes covers various types of English, and new forms are constantly emerging. Scholars have developed, applied, discussed, and refined different models of and approaches to World Englishes in order to capture the heterogeneity. Kachru (1985, 1992) recommended grouping English(es) into three concentric circles, which has come to be known as 'Kachru's Three Concentric Circles of World Englishes' (Figure 1) and has endured as the most influential and widely cited model of World Englishes (Schreier, Hundt, & Schneider, 2019). Each circle in the model is defined as follows:

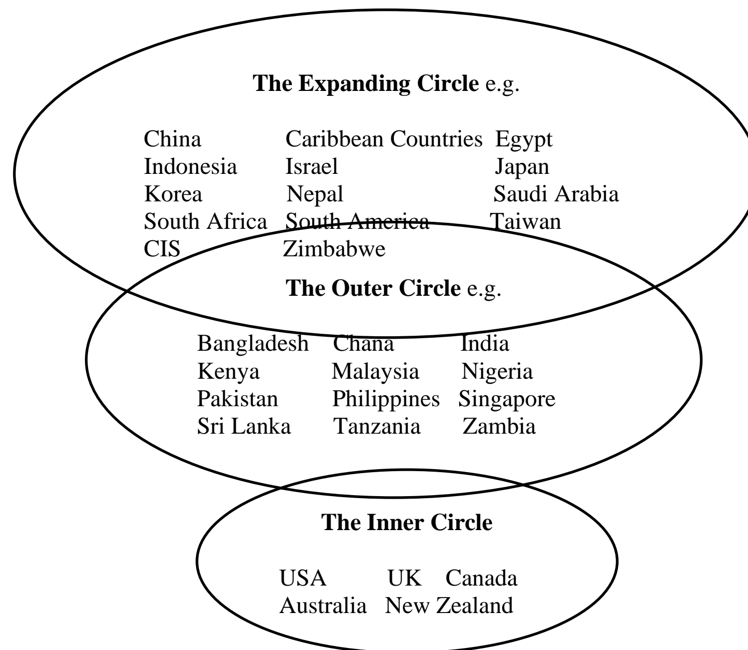
- The Inner Circle: Regions where English is the primary language (e.g. the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand).

- The Outer Circle: Regions that have gone through colonisation, essentially by the users of varieties of the inner circle (e.g. India, Kenya, and Singapore). In such regions, English is used as a second language alongside other national languages.

- The Expanding Circle: Regions that require recognition of the fact that English is an international language used in various situations and contexts and do not necessarily have a history of colonisation (e.g. China, Indonesia, Greece, Japan, and Saudi Arabia). English is spoken as a foreign language.

The model corresponds to the earlier tripartite distinction introduced by Strang (1970), which eventually contributed to the labelling of English as a native (ENL), second (ESL), and foreign (EFL) language (Buschfeld & Kautzsch, 2019). Kachru’s model has influenced academic descriptions of the global spread of the language because it is useful in that it recognises the pluralistic and diverse nature of English (Buschfeld & Kautzsch, 2019; Galloway & Rose, 2015). It also appreciates the emergent varieties of English and emphasises the legitimacy of English usage in different communities (Kirkpatrick, 2007) while questioning existing notions such as native-speaker superiority (Buschfeld & Kautzsch, 2019).

Figure 1
Kachru's Three Concentric Circles of Englishes [Adopted from Kachru (1992)]



Kachru's model has been criticised from different perspectives. Bruthiaux (2003), Modiano (1999), and Schneider (2007) indicated that the three-circle concept is a nation-based model that draws on colonial history and fails to accommodate current complex phenomena such as regional dialectical language variations within each of the varieties (e.g. American/British English), the Inner, Outer, and Expanding Circle varieties in one territory, or certain varieties undergoing a transition from one category to another. Galloway and Rose (2015) and Jenkins (2015) argued that the model no longer captures how English is used by a mobile, global community of speakers within and across national borders. Pennycook (2010) argued that World Englishes models like the one Kachru (1985, 1992) proposed, constrain the field to looking at Englishes as discrete objects rather than treating English 'as a language always in transition, as a language always under negotiation' (Pennycook, 2010, p.685). The model ignores other aspects like identity construction and language attitudes and use (Buschfeld & Kautzsch, 2019).

The three-circle model can be deemed socio-linguistically outdated and sociologically, geographically, and linguistically limiting.

Aside from Kachru's model (1985, 1992), others like McArthur (1987) and Görlach (1988) proposed other circle models to theorise the spread of English. Like Kachru's (1985, 1992) model, both attempt to capture varieties based on geographical locations and standardisation of varieties. Although those models have evoked discussions on issues pertaining to standardisation, they have tended to be less influential on the World Englishes paradigm because of the lack of significant conceptual contributions to the categorisation of diverse varieties of English (Buschfeld & Kautzsch, 2019).

Taking the limitations of previous models into account and their failure to embrace the dynamic nature of the language, Schneider (2007) proposed the Dynamic Model that describes 'the process leads from the transplanting of English to a new land through a period of vibrant changes, both social and linguistic, to a renewed stabilisation of a newly emerged variety' (Schneider, 2007, p. 30). His model comprises five major stages: (1) foundation, (2) exonormative stabilisation, (3) structural nativisation, (4) endonormative stabilisation, and (5) differentiation. Four parameters are observed at each stage: (a) extralinguistic factors that include the historical and political events in a country, which influence (b) characteristic identity constructions, which have an impact on (c) the sociolinguistic determinants of the contact setting (language contact conditions, and language attitudes and use), in turn resulting in (d) structural effects that include lexical, phonological, and grammatical features (Schneider, 2007). This model captures the complex development and characteristics of English varieties from its foundation to the current point of investigation. It is restricted to Englishes having emerged from (post-) colonial contexts; and some studies have questioned the applicability of the model to non-

postcolonial countries (Buschfeld & Kautzsch, 2017; Edwards, 2016; Schneider, 2014). In an attempt to capture the diverse varieties of English, both in postcolonial and non-postcolonial contexts, Buschfeld and Kautzsch (2017) introduced the Extra- and Intra-territorial Forces Model. The model adds five major subcategories both of extra-territorial (extra) and intra-territorial (intra) forces respectively, namely colonisation (extra)/attitudes towards colonisation (intra), language policies (both extra and intra), globalisation (extra)/'acceptance' of globalisation (intra), foreign policies (both extra and intra), and the sociodemographic background of a country (mostly extra-territorial but with clear intra-territorial dimensions) to Schneider's (2007) Dynamic Model. Those forces are the driving mechanisms of the development of Englishes in both postcolonial and non-postcolonial contexts at all times. As mentioned in Buschfeld and Kautzsch (2017), those extra- and intra-territorial forces are rather theoretical. The detailed application of the model to concrete cases, especially in non-postcolonial contexts remains to be seen.

2.1.2. English as a lingua franca (ELF)

To overcome the shortcomings of World Englishes trying to build theoretical models to capture the spread of English, ELF focuses on the use of English as a contact language (Jenkins, 2009) or as the communicative medium of choice (Seidlhofer, 2011) among speakers who speak different L1s. ELF research emerged in the 2000s, primarily with Jenkins (2000), Seidlhofer (2004), and Mauranen (2003). Following the World Englishes approach, the early ELF work primarily focused on identifying and codifying ELF varieties, especially in terms of pronunciation and lexicogrammar, under the assumption that ELF varieties comprise linguistic features that are commonly used among speakers from many different L1 backgrounds along with other features related to each specific L1.

Jenkins (2000) proposed a 'Lingua Franca Core' (LFC), which is a set of pronunciation features based on the empirical data that can potentially cause intelligibility problems in intercultural communication. She categorised features such as most consonant sounds, full articulation of consonants in word-initial clusters, and vowel length distinctions, as core features that are important in maintaining mutual intelligibility and minimising breakdowns in communication. She also addressed non-core features that were found inconsequential in respect of mutual intelligibility, such as vowel quality, lexical stress, and intonation. The proposal was followed by the development of Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English (VOICE), launched by Seidlhofer (2001) that was focused on ELF lexicogrammar and the Corpus of English as a Lingua Franca in Academic settings (ELFA) by Mauranen (2003). Subsequently, Seidlhofer (2004) presented the list of preliminary lexicogrammatical features such as the omission of the third-person present tense 's' and insertion of 'redundant' prepositions that were put forth as a set of hypotheses. Scholars like Breiteneder (2005) and Cogo and Dewey (2006) investigated Seidlhofer's (2004) hypotheses and found a high level of variation in language characteristics such as the use of third-person verb forms. The focus in the area of lexicogrammar gradually shifted from simply describing the linguistic features that characterise ELF interactions towards examining the means by which such features emerge and investigating the functional properties of ELF lexicogrammar (Cogo & Dewey, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2009). ELF work has focused on highlighting the pragmatic strategies of speakers to engage in ELF communication (Cogo, 2009; Cogo & Dewey, 2006; Firth, 1996; Firth & Wagner, 1997; House, 1999, 2003; Mauranen, 2005; 2009; Meierkord, 2000). Overall, ELF research has been moving away from describing linguistic features and shifting its focus towards the underlying processes that motivate language use in interactions embracing the ever-changing fluidity and hybridity of ELF.

Recent work has focused on seeing ELF speakers as multilingual individuals in multilingual communities and how English is used with other languages in multilingual contexts (Jenkins, 2015). The concept has a lot in common with other critical work on multilingualism that includes translanguaging (e.g. García, 2009; García & Li, 2014), and translingual practice (e.g. Canagarajah, 2011, 2013), which continue to challenge conventional frames of reference underpinned by monolingualism in applied linguistics and teaching English to speakers of other languages (TESOL).

2.1.3. Global Englishes (GE)

The GE paradigm can be used as an umbrella term covering all the above-mentioned research areas and English as an international language (EIL) that focuses on the implications of the global spread of English in English language teaching (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Rose & Galloway, 2019). The GE paradigm saw the limitations of World Englishes and earlier ELF research and used a new term to cover a shared interest in research that explored the fluidity of language use in the 21st century as part of the globalisation infrastructure. GE encompasses World Englishes and ELF in capturing the growth of English as a global language and exploring its implications in English language teaching. Similar to the central purpose of current World Englishes and ELF research highlighting the dynamic nature of English use and users, the paradigm sees English as negotiable, taking different forms where it is used in various lingua franca encounters. Thus, GE does not focus on geographic linguistic boundaries, individual language varieties, or codification of these varieties but focus on the dynamic, complex, and multi-varied language use by speakers from various language backgrounds to 'foster understanding of "what is going on" in the interaction' (Jenkins, 2015, p.50) transcending conventional linguacultural boundaries. In this regard, similar to ELF research, concepts

in second language acquisition like translanguaging (e.g. García, 2009; García & Li, 2014), translingual practice (e.g. Canagarajah, 2011, 2013), and multilingual turn (May, 2014; Ortega, 2013), are also relevant and inform GE research (Rose & Galloway, 2019). Translanguaging and translingual practice investigate the processes of speakers utilising their entire linguistic resources to communicate, going beyond language boundaries, and focusing on linguistic hybridity. GE research has benefited from the description of flexible language use of global language users while communicating with speakers of diverse varieties of English. The multilingual turn largely overlaps with GE. The concept explores multilingualism, challenging the traditional notion of a monolingual bias that has permeated applied linguistics and TESOL. This has influenced relevant teaching practices. GE research has been informed by the investigation of multilingual users moving away from traditional, monolingual orientations. Overall, GE is defined as 'an inclusive paradigm looking at the linguistic, sociolinguistic, and sociocultural diversity and fluidity of English use and English users in a globalised world' (Galloway & Rose, 2015, p.4).

Similar to other fields included in the GE paradigm, GE research has acknowledged the implications of their findings in pedagogical practice. There have been calls for a paradigm shift in ELT (Galloway, 2011, 2017; Galloway & Rose, 2015; Kumaravadivelu, 2012) that reflects the new sociolinguistic landscape of the 21st century instead of fixating on prescriptive norms. In the GE paradigm, Galloway and Rose (2015) summarised the calls for change and put forward the Global Englishes Language Teaching (GELT) proposal, which was initially outlined by Galloway (2011). It comprises the following: (1) Increasing World Englishes and ELF exposure in language curricula; (2) Emphasising respect for multilingualism in ELT; (3) Raising awareness of GE in ELT; (4) Raising awareness of ELF strategies in language curricula; (5) Emphasising respect for diverse culture and identity in ELT; and (6) Changing English teacher-hiring practices in the ELT

industry. My study that examined Japanese students' attitudes towards GE is most relevant to the third GELT proposal. Galloway's (2011, 2013, 2017) studies, which informed the proposals, also investigated Japanese students' attitudes towards GE and implemented GELT innovations to raise awareness on GE in a traditional ELT context, which helped increase the number of global users of English. My study examined the attitudes in the same setting more accurately and broadly to further inform successful GELT innovations that can contribute towards fostering English language speakers in a global context.

Based on the GELT proposals, moving away from traditional ELT, a GELT approach was put forward in a reader-friendly format for research purposes and to inform practice through curriculum innovation, namely the GELT framework. The framework was originally proposed by Galloway (2011). Galloway and Rose (2015) developed the model further. Galloway and Rose (2018) and Rose and Galloway (2019) expanded on it thereafter. The GELT framework has been informed by similar comparisons in related research paradigms and concepts (i.e. World Englishes, ELF, EIL, translanguaging, and multilingual turn), all of which share a similar underlying ideology that moves away from native-speaker norms and focuses on the diversity and fluidity of English. The framework summarises the difference between traditional ELT and GELT along with various aspects that underpin pedagogical practice (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Rose & Galloway, 2017) as shown in Table 1. It is grounded in studies (e.g. Jenkins, 2006; Seidlhofer, 2011) that have identified the need to innovate current teaching practices to prepare students better in the use of English as a global language (Galloway & Rose, 2018). The framework has been continually updated to include new thinking in the field (e.g. Rose & Galloway, 2019). Since 2011, they have refined the framework by using more inclusive terms instead of divisive labels (native and non-native speakers) for GELT, as the purpose of

GELT is to move away from these labels. The latest framework is underpinned by a substantial amount of empirical research carried out by the creators of the framework (Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2019). The authors emphasise that the framework labels of 'traditional ELT' and 'GELT' are conceptualised as being at either end of a continuum recognising its complex nature. The framework draws attention to different aspects of curricula, including target interlocutors, owners, target culture, teachers, norms, role models, materials, first language, and own culture.

Table 1
The differences between traditional ELT and GELT [Adopted from Galloway and Rose (2015, 2018), and Rose and Galloway (2019)]

Categories	Traditional ELT	GELT
Target interlocutors	Native English speakers	All English users
'Owners' of English	Native English speakers	All English users
Target culture	Static Native English cultures	Fluid cultures
Teachers	Non- Native English-speaking teachers (same L1), Native English speaking teachers	Qualified, competent teachers (same and different L1s)
Norms	Standard English	Diverse, flexible, and multiple forms
Role-model	Native English speakers	Expert users
Source of materials	Native English and Native English speakers	Salient English-speaking communities and contexts
First language and own culture	Seen as a hindrance and source of interference	Seen as a resource

Since the GELT proposals and framework were first presented, there has been a growing number of studies on innovative GE-informed pedagogic actions (e.g. Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2017; Sung, 2015, 2018). However, learners continue to talk about conventional frames of reference such as the distinction between native and non-native speakers, and continue to think about languages and language varieties largely as separate and geographically-bounded entities. Japan is no exception (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Seargeant, 2011). Thus, GE research would benefit from a more detailed

investigation to untangle these current learners' complex language attitudes towards both conventional and GE norms. Although this GELT framework was proposed primarily for curriculum innovation and to help researchers and teachers put the GELT proposals into practice, my study employed the framework to create a research instrument (questionnaire) to examine learners' complex attitudes towards GE more precisely and broadly with advanced statistical techniques. This was done to ensure that the findings would promote effective curriculum innovations, which in turn, will contribute to a paradigm shift in ELT. Based on the GELT framework, in my study, learners' attitudes towards English as a global language were conceptualised as a continuum between native-speaker norms on the one hand and the fluid, dynamic, and complex English use in today's globalised world on the other. In the next section, the existing norms, such as native English and English speakers, and Standard English, in traditional ELT that have been challenged by the conceptualisation of GE are described.

2.2. Language norms

Historically, language standards and norms were dictated by those who held power, such as royalty, the court, and the upper classes (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Standardisation has been imposed on natural languages 'to stabilise the language in order to establish effective communicative conventions and a sense of common, often national, identity, and security. There is also a practical motivation in providing institutional norms against which individual linguistic behaviour can be measured; hence, the standard language is equated with standards of linguistic behaviour and educational achievement' (Seidlhofer, 2018, p.86). Since standardisation has been imposed deliberately, scholars like Milroy (1999, 2001), Milroy and Milroy (1999, 2012), and Lippi-Green (1997), described a standard language as an ideological construct, indicating that 'a particular set of beliefs

about language held by populations of economically developed nation states where processes of standardisation have operated over a considerable time to produce an abstract set of norms--lexical, grammatical and (in spoken language) phonological--popularly described as constituting a standard language' (p.174). These standards and norms of English (Standard English) are increasingly challenged by the global spread of the language, which has led to the emergence of a post-modern phenomenon in which people with diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds use the language to communicate in their own ways (Jenkins, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2011). It generates variations that are different from established and stabilised language norms and causes the destabilisation of those norms. The use of non-standard language is not necessarily seen as deficient, deviant, defective, or failing to conform to the standards of 'proper' linguistic behaviours promoted through education.

Seidlhofer (2018) noted that some aspects of Standard English among linguistics experts and laypersons are particularly problematic in terms of the conceptualisation of ELF, such as equating the whole of English with Standard English and equating Standard English with native-speaker English. This leads to their acceptance that the whole of English is the possession of native speakers (Widdowson, 1994). Additionally, the notion of 'native speaker' has been controversial, and there are several approaches to defining native speakers (e.g. Cook, 2008; Davies, 2003). Although there are many different groupings of native speakers, a person who learned English first in childhood is usually considered a native speaker (Cook, 2008). A non-native speaker is often associated with an individual who has learned the language as a second (L2) or foreign language (FL) (Singh, D'souza, Mohanan, & Prabhu, 1995). Especially in English language teaching, Standard English is equated with the whole of English, and the English used by speakers who learned the language first in childhood (native speakers) is often used as an ideal model (Cook, 2008).

There appears to be an assumption for learners and teachers that anything that does not conform to Standard English/native-speaker English is by definition ‘incorrect’, defective, and undesirable. However, taking into account the global spread of English and the current sociolinguistic reality, the use of native speakers as a model for English language learners, which leads to the marginalisation of non-native speakers, has been questioned (Brutt-Griffler, 2002; Brutt-Griffler & Samimy, 2001; Canagarajah, 1999; Cook, 1999, 2008, 2012, 2016; Davies, 1991, 1996, 2003, 2013; Medgyes, 1992; Paikeday, 1985; Rampton, 1990; Seidlhofer, 2001). For example, Davies (1991) noted that the binary division of native/non-native cannot accommodate the fact that an increased number of fluent English speakers are multilingual, raising a question on the validity of the categorisation. Similarly, in L2/FL attitude/motivation studies, automatically assuming native speakers as target interlocutors has also been questioned, as multiple studies have found that learners’ target interlocutors were not necessarily limited to native speakers (e.g. Dörnyei, Csizér, & Németh, 2006; Yashima, 2000, 2002). Thus, my study supports the idea that divisive labels, like ‘native’ and ‘non-native’, cannot be definable in reality, but are constructed and subject to change (Rose & Galloway, 2019). Although some changes in attitudes of English language learners have been identified, standard language ideology and relevant conventional norms still appear to be deeply ingrained in their mindsets, which is explained in the following sections. To showcase these existing learners’ traditional orientations, I used the constructed native/non-native categories in my study, and relied on the definitions provided by Cook (2008) and Singh *et al.* (1995) as well.

2.3. Language attitudes

2.3.1. The nature of attitudes

Although attitude, considered a critical concept in the field of sociolinguistics and L2/FL acquisition, is not easily defined (Edwards, 1982; Garrett, 2010), several scholars have nonetheless attempted to do so. Baker (1992), Banaji and Heiphetz (2010), Bohner and Dickel (2011), and Garrett (2010) provide some definitions of attitude widely cited by researchers, as summarised in Table 2.

Table 2
Examples of widely cited definitions of attitude

Source	Definition
Allport (1935)	A mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related (p. 810)
Allport (1954)	A learned disposition to think, feel and behave toward a person (or object) in a particular way (as cited in Garrett, 2010, p. 19)
McGuire (1968)	Responses that locate 'objects of thought' on 'dimensions of judgment' (p. 219)
Sarnoff (1970)	A disposition to react favourably or unfavourably to a class of objects (p. 279)
Eagly & Chaiken (1993)	A psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour (p. 1)
Crano & Prislin (2006)	The evaluative judgments that integrate and summarize these cognitive/affective reactions (p. 347)
Fazio (2007)	Object evaluation associations in memory (p. 1)
Petty, Brinol, & DeMarree (2007)	Objects linked in memory to global evaluative associations (p. 662)
Banaji & Heiphetz (2010)	The fundamental orientation to evaluate people, other living beings, things, events, and ideas along a good-bad dimension (p. 377)
Garrett (2010)	An evaluative orientation to a social object of some sort (p. 20)

Most experts have agreed that the core of attitude is the concept of evaluation (e.g. Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010; Crano & Prislin, 2006). The standard view of attitude assumes that an evaluative response is linked with and based on stable, underlying states of mind, a view which has been criticised by social constructionist scholars (e.g. Fazio, 2007; Potter & Wetherell, 1987; Schwarz, 2007). Schwarz (2007) defined attitude as an evaluation that is 'formed when needed, rather than enduring personal dispositions' (p. 639), emphasising

the context-dependent nature of attitude (Bohner & Dickel, 2011). Whereas abundant evidence for the context-sensitivity of evaluative judgments supports the constructionist view, there is also evidence for the high stability of many attitudes even in the face of changing situations (Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Schwarz 2007). Thus, this study sought to remain open to the idea of the flexibility of attitudes as well as accepting the existence of a certain stability of attitudes (Fazio, 2007; Garrett, 2010), employing Eagly and Chaiken's (1993) definition.

Additionally, as characterised in Allport (1935), Baker (1992), and Oppenheim (1982), attitude is a latent construct. Allport (1935) characterised attitudes as 'never directly observed, but, unless they are admitted, through inference, as real and substantial ingredients in human nature, it becomes impossible to account satisfactorily either for the consistency of any individual's behaviour, or for the stability in any society' (p. 839). Oppenheim (1982) further explained that attitude is 'a construct, an abstraction which cannot be apprehended directly. It is an inner component of mental life which expresses itself, directly or indirectly, through much more obvious processes as stereotypes, beliefs, verbal statements or reactions, ideas and opinions, selective recall, anger or satisfaction or some other emotion, and in various other aspects of behaviour' (p. 39). As seen in those two characterisations of attitude, it is suggested that attitude is a construct which cannot be observed directly, consisting of three aspects: cognition (beliefs that one holds about an object), affect (feelings that one holds towards an object) and behavioural (actions and responses to the attitude object). This tripartite theory has long guided attitudinal research (Banaji & Heiphetz, 2010; Fabrigar, MacDonald, & Wegener, 2005). This approach takes attitude as an intervening latent variable of the relationship between stimulus events and the individual's responses. In my study, the stimulus events (i.e. English used in the current sociolinguistic reality) can give rise to learner's cognitive, affective, and/or

behavioural processes, which can in turn produce an attitude towards an object (i.e. English usage), and this attitude is a latent construct.

The relationships between those three components and attitude are far from straightforward. Attitude does not consist of these elements separately but is instead a general evaluative summary of the information derived from them (Crites, Fabrigar, & Petty, 1994; Zanna & Rempel, 1988). Thus, in my study, attitude was measured as a general evaluative summary of information based on cognitive, affective, and/or behavioural reactions to English usage using research instruments.

2.3.2. The importance of language attitudes

Baker (1992) indicated that language attitudes cover varieties of attitudes such as those towards language variation, dialect, and speech style, learning a new language, a specific minority language, language groups, communities and minorities, language lessons, the uses of a specific language, language learning, and language preference. Language attitudes are consequential since people make a judgement about others based on how they speak. Based on their linguistic cues (e.g. accents), people tend to infer speakers' social groups, based on which they make attributions of speakers' stereotypic characteristics (Dragojevic, 2017). The study of language attitudes aims to document such people's judgements, describe the underlying cognitive and affective processes, and understand the consequences of language attitudes (Baker, 1992; Cargile, Giles, Ryan, & Bradac, 1994; Garrett, 2010). In terms of GE research, 'an investigation of students' attitudes towards English can provide insights into their stereotypes about "native" English and also how they believe the language should be taught and learned' (Galloway, 2017, p. 24). If learners tend to perceive native English as 'correct' and non-native English as 'incorrect', they are more likely to encounter problems with social interactions

in a global context and oppose GE-informed curriculum innovations that include diverse varieties of English. Thus, a detailed investigation of such stereotypes is necessary to ensure successful GELT innovations in a global context. By gaining insight into students' awareness of English as a global language, stereotypes, prejudice, and social interactions, researchers and teachers will be able to improve current classroom teaching more effectively.

Language attitudes also affect policies regarding whether the language has institutional support (Cargile *et al.*, 1994). For example, in Japan, the internationalisation of the country has been closely associated with an increase in the importance of English (Rose & McKinley, 2018). As the government promotes and supports internationalisation, emphasis has been placed on improving Japanese students' abilities of English at all levels of school and higher education. Most recently, the government has provided financial support to universities to develop programmes carried out entirely in English (MEXT, 2014). Thus, in order to promote change in English language teaching for the 21st century in practice as well as policy, surveys of attitudes towards English as a global language are necessary.

The important role of attitude has been shown consistently in L2/FL learning (e.g. Dörnyei 2005; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Gardner, 1985a, 2010; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972). More concretely, positive attitudes towards the language, its speakers, and the L2 community are seen to be linked with learners' successful L2 development. My study focused on attitudes towards a specific language, English as a global language, and learning the language, as explained in the following sections.

2.3.3. Attitudes towards English in L2/FL learning

In the context of L2/FL learning, language attitudes have been examined mainly in successful language learning (Baker, 1992) and as one of the aspects related to motivation (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015; Gardner, 1985a, 2010; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003, Ryan, 2009; Yashima, 2000, 2002) that contributes to learners' success in acquiring the L2/FL.

Some overlaps exist between motivation and attitude studies in the GE paradigm, since attitudes that contribute to successful language learning can inform an effective GELT approach. The socio-educational model of L2 acquisition proposed by Gardner (1985a), which investigates the role of a number of various individual characteristics of learners in L2 acquisition, addresses the importance of attitude. This popular model includes two important attitudinal variables: *integrativeness* (openness to other cultural groups in general and a willingness or ability to adopt features of the other language groups) and *attitudes toward the learning situation* (evaluative reactions towards the learning environment). These two variables are considered to be correlated and as contributing to a learner's motivation (an effort to, desire to, and attitude towards learning L2). Initially, Gardner and his associates constructed the Attitude/Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) comprising 130 items, which was designed to measure the variables identified by the socio-educational model (Gardner, 1985a, 1985b), and was originally used for English-speaking Canadians learning French in elementary and secondary schools.

The attitudinal variable of *integrativeness* was assessed by three measurements: (1) *attitudes toward the target language group*, (2) *integrative orientation*, and (3) *interest in foreign languages*. The other attitudinal variable, *attitudes toward the learning situation*, refers to evaluative reactions towards the teachers and the course. The AMTB

questionnaire, following psychometric principles, has been evaluated for internal consistency and validity (e.g. Gardner & Lambert, 1972; Gardner & Smythe, 1975, 1981) and is used widely as a scientific assessment tool of motivation (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

This model, which focuses on *integrativeness* as a central element, has been modified to examine English language learners (Gardner, 1985a, 1985b)—a move that has been questioned due to its empirical basis in a Canadian context (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Clément & Kruidenier, 1983; Dörnyei, 1990; Dörnyei *et al.,* 2006; Yashima, 2000, 2002). It may not be applicable to the Expanding Circle contexts (Kachru, 1985, 1992) where learners have little direct contact with a target community, but instead may be more motivated for pragmatic reasons associated with learning the L2. Moreover, *integrativeness* implies the existence of a recognisable target community, which has been criticised because the portrayal of a specific target English-speaking community, such as Anglo-American, is no longer relevant to many of the people learning English as a global language. Many studies have failed to find evidence of Gardner's concept of *integrativeness* (e.g. Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006; Lamb, 2004; McClelland, 2000; Yashima, 2000, 2002).

Thus, alternative constructs to Gardner's *integrativeness* have been proposed (e.g. Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Yashima, 2000, 2002; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004). Studies particularly relevant to the present study are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Yashima (2000) administered to 372 Japanese first-year university students (269 male, 101 female, and 2 unknown) majoring in informatics and who had spent less than three months in English-speaking countries a language learning orientation questionnaire comprising 37 items related to reasons that students decided to study English, all scored

on a 7-point Likert scale. Principal component analysis of those orientation items yielded multiple factors.

Among the factors, the study indicated that *intercultural friendship* (interest in different cultures and willingness to interact with people in foreign countries) showed the students' interest in different cultures and willingness to interact with people who are not associated necessarily with British/Americans, reflecting the role of English as a global language. The endorsement of each item showed that *instrumental* (future career and exams) and *intercultural friendship orientation* items received high ratings as the most important reason for study, while *interest in Anglo-American culture* (interest in the clearly identified target culture and a positive attitude towards its population) items received relatively low ratings. The results showed that the learners seemed to be willing to understand different cultures and interact with people, not only from the United States and the United Kingdom but also from different cultural backgrounds. These were further examined by Yashima (2002) creating a scale of *international posture* that reflects 'interest in foreign or international affairs, willingness to go overseas to stay or work, readiness to interact with intercultural partners, and, one hopes, openness or a non-ethnocentric attitude towards different cultures, among others' (p. 57). Yashima (2002) administered a questionnaire containing measures related to *international posture* to 389 Japanese university students majoring in information science. The results of structural equation modelling showed that *international posture* captured students' attitudes towards international communication and activities well. Also, *international posture* influenced learners' motivation, which predicted L2 proficiency. Additionally, a significant path was found from *international posture* to willingness to communicate in English (McCroskey, 1992), which showed that the students' attitudes towards intercultural communication or international interest positively influenced their

willingness to communicate. Overall, the concepts of Gardner's *integrativeness* and Yashima's (2002) *international posture* appear to overlap with aspects of target interlocutor and target culture in the GELT framework. However, as indicated in Yashima's (2000, 2002) studies, the results were not definitive, since the study examined students only in informatics and did not include qualitative methods, such as interviews, which may have yielded more nuanced data. Furthermore, Rose and Galloway (2019) pointed out that since some descriptions of *international posture* are focused heavily on international settings, the concept may not be able to capture increasing ELF use in domestic settings.

Dörnyei *et al*. (2006) also conducted a large-scale longitudinal study with a total of 13,391 13–14-year-old year-8 pupils in Hungary using a motivation questionnaire. The results of structural equation modelling showed the importance of *integrativeness*; nevertheless, *integrativeness* did not match the concept proposed by Gardner (1985a, 2001), similar to Yashima's (2000) study findings. In order to overcome the conceptual problem of Gardner's (1985a, 2001) *integrativeness*, Dörnyei (2005) proposed the *L2 Motivational Self System*, replacing Gardner's concept of *integrativeness* with *ideal L2 self*. *L2 Motivational Self System*, focusing on a learner in the system of language learning motivation, where learners depict their future selves (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). *Ideal L2 self* concerns a desirable self-image of the L2 user that one hopes to be in the future (Dörnyei, 2015). Dörnyei *et al*. (2006) explained:

> A key tenet in the self-based conception of L2 motivation is that the fully-fledged ideal L2 self is a vivid and real image: one can see, hear and feel one's ideal self…….our ideal L2 self can be seen as a member of an imagined L2 community whose mental construction is partly based on our real-life experiences of members

> of the community/communities using the L2 in question and partly on our imagination. (p. 92)

This is important, since raising learners' awareness of the use of English as a global language would lead to an increase in their confidence as legitimate speakers instead of evaluating against native-speaker norms. Increasing this *ideal L2 self* is considered a vital objective for GELT (Rose & Galloway, 2019) which leads to boosting *linguistic self-confidence*, defined as 'self-perceptions of communicative competence and concomitant low levels of anxiety in using the second language' (Noels, Pon, & Clément, 1996, p. 248). *Linguistic self-confidence* has been linked to higher self-perception and actual language competence directly and indirectly (Clément, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1994; Clément & Kruidenier, 1985; Sampasivam & Clément, 2014).

Research by Taguchi, Magid, and Papi (2009) has provided empirical evidence for the validity of replacing *integrativeness* with *ideal L2 self* by distributing a questionnaire to nearly 5000 English language learners in Japan, China, and Iran. *Ideal L2 self* was positively correlated with *integrativeness* in all three groups with an average correlation coefficient over .5, showing that those two concepts cover the similar construct. The findings also showed that the learners' intended efforts towards learning English were explained more by *ideal L2 self* than by *integrativeness*. The results of structural equation modelling showed that increasing positive attitudes towards second language culture and community predicted an increase in *ideal L2 self*, while an increase in *ideal L2 self* predicted increasingly positive attitudes towards learning English, which had a positive influence on the increase in the learners' efforts towards learning English. Although the study supported that attitudes towards the second language culture and community were associated with *ideal L2 self*, questionnaire items related to the attitudes towards second

language culture and community used ‘English-speaking countries’ without explanation, and learners might have associated ‘English-speaking countries’ only with native English-speaking countries. Thus, closer specification of the items might have been needed to measure attitudes towards target culture and community, reflecting today’s English use.

Overall, by replacing *integrativeness* with *international posture* or *ideal L2 self*, shifting the focus to international communities or an ideal language self-image accommodated the imagined L2 community not based on native speakers but based on non-native speakers who use the L2 as a global language, revealing a sense of belonging to a worldwide culture developed through the media and Internet (Arnett, 2002). Thus, my study took these relevant concepts into account and further explored global orientations in order to provide powerful evidence to initiate change in ELT practice. In the next section, learners’ attitudes focusing on varieties of English are discussed in detail.

2.3.4. Learners’ attitudes towards varieties of English

Since the early 1960s, language attitude research has increased dramatically making use of such investigative techniques as societal treatment, matched and verbal-guise techniques, and a direct approach (Cargile & Bradac, 2001; Garrett, 2010).

Societal treatments are seen as a tool to examine the positioning of languages (or language varieties) in the public domain (Cargile & Bradac, 2001; Garrett, 2010). Techniques here include observational and ethnographic studies, analyses of government and educational language policies, literature and business documents, and media output (Garrett, 2005, 2007; Giles, Hewstone, Ryan, & Johnson, 1987). This approach tends to receive the least attention among the three in recent language attitude research. The societal treatment approach cannot address all types of language attitudes, since people

develop culturally and contextually specific attitudes considering variability according to several language features, such as one's accent, vocal qualities (Cargile *et al.,* 1994), and personal past exposure to the language. Yet, this approach can be a significant first step in understanding language attitudes (Galloway & Rose, 2015) and may be employed usefully as a preliminary study for more rigorously designed surveys (Garrett, 2010). It plays an important role in providing informative sources for the associated values and stereotypical connotations in relation to language varieties within society. These empirical studies are explained in Section 2.4.1.

A matched-guise technique relies on indirect measures that require participants to evaluate audiotaped speakers without social group labels attached. The different speech samples are obtained from one speaker who can switch between the language varieties to eliminate potential confounding variables, such as vocal qualities. The evaluations can cover various items. For example, listeners may be asked to indicate whether they think the speaker is friendly or intelligent. Because the potential confounding variables are supposedly controlled, speaker evaluations are assumed to reflect the listeners' underlying attitudes towards the target language variety. However, a matched-guise technique has been criticised, since there are problems with the authenticity of the language varieties that are produced by one speaker and with the lack of contextualisation for each presented variety (Coupland & Williams, 2003; Garrett, 2010; Giles & Coupland, 1991). Due to the limitation of authenticity, a modified version has been developed: a verbal-guise technique. A verbal-guise technique involves using speech samples that are produced by authentic speakers of each variety, paying more attention to contextualisation. Overall, this technique has dominated the social scientific approach to the study of language attitudes (Cargile *et al.*, 1994; Cargile & Bradac, 2001; Jenkins, 2007).

A third approach involves asking people directly what their attitudes are concerning various language behaviours through the use of interviews and questionnaires, the advantage of which is that information about specific attitudes can be obtained. Arguably, this approach could also be considered one of the popular approaches used in language attitude research (Garrett, 2010). Since this method directly asks about language attitudes, it is subject to reflection and social desirability biases (Cargile *et al.,* 1994). Nevertheless, questioning people allows researchers to explore attitudes more flexibly than the other two methods described above (Cargile *et al.,* 1994). Moreover, a qualitative approach, such as interviews, which enables the detailed articulation of language attitudes that includes how they are formed, can compensate for the disadvantages. Thus, this method has been popular, especially in attitude studies (Galloway, 2017).

Attitudes of English language learners in the context of GE are complex due to the dynamic nature of the language and involve the investigation of English varieties with which learners may be unfamiliar (Galloway & Rose, 2015). Previous studies have used a single approach or a combination of those approaches, as the following sections demonstrate.

2.3.5. Learners' attitudinal research related to varieties of English

In the following sections, empirical studies on learners' attitudes towards varieties of English are presented. Among these studies, many have measured attitudes mainly quantitatively, using a verbal-guise technique and a questionnaire. These quantitative studies are presented first, followed by studies with a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. Each section covers studies conducted in the relevant Expanding Circle contexts (Kachru, 1985, 1992), such as Japan, Korea, China, and European countries (Austria and Denmark).

2.3.5.1. *Studies of learners' attitudes towards English varieties using mainly quantitative methods*

2.3.5.1.a. Japan

In Japan, Matsuura, Chiba, and Yamamoto (1994) conducted a study using a verbal-guise technique in order to examine the attitudes of 131 Japanese university students majoring in English ($N = 92$) and international business ($N = 39$). Among these students, 17 had lived overseas for more than one year. The speakers were male international students: Malay, Chinese Malay, Bangladeshi, Hong Kongese, and Sri Lankan, in addition to an American instructor. They were asked to read a passage from an English as a second language (ESL) textbook. The participants listened to the tape and indicated their impression of each speaker among 10 sets of adjectives arrayed in bipolar rating scales. In addition, the participants were asked to complete a questionnaire on their ideas about foreign languages and language learning. A standardised English language test was also administered to explore the relationship between their English proficiency and attitudes towards non-native varieties of English. The results showed that the American English speaker was rated significantly more favourably than the non-native English speakers, possibly due to the participants' familiarity. Regarding familiarity in Japan, the instruction model in schools is mostly American English; and Japanese students had more contact with the American variety directly or indirectly through textbooks and other materials than the other varieties. The participants' attitudes did not correlate with their English proficiency. Additionally, with regard to the questionnaire, principal component analysis was conducted, and six factors were yielded. The relationships between the factors and the participants' ratings were examined via Pearson correlation coefficient. Nonetheless, all the bivariate relationships were weak ($r < .30$), according to Cohen's

interpretation (1988). As a follow-up study, Chiba, Matsuura, and Yamamoto (1995) conducted a similar study using a verbal-guise technique and a questionnaire with 169 Japanese university students majoring in English (N = 97) and international business (N = 72) to investigate their attitudes towards English varieties: British, American, Japanese, Hong Kongese, Malaysian, and Sri Lankan (all male speakers). The participants perceived two native varieties, American and British, more positively than the non-native varieties that included Japanese, Hong Kongese, Malaysian, and Sri Lankan. The participants tended to recognise native varieties more readily than non-native varieties, although they had difficulty identifying whether the native varieties were American or British. The study concluded that their preference towards native varieties seemed to be due to familiarity, although their familiarity with their own variety did not contribute to their approval of English spoken by the Japanese speakers. The study speculated that American or British English was usually used as a model in classrooms. Thus, the Japanese students gained the impression that American or British English was the ideal. Furthermore, they lacked exposure to other varieties of English. Additionally, factor analysis was conducted on the questionnaire, yielding seven factors. Pearson correlation analysis between the factors and the participants' ratings revealed a moderate correlation ($r > .30$; Cohen, 1988), showing that the students who had a strong interest in American or British people, culture, and language showed more negative attitudes towards the non-native varieties.

It appears that the findings from those two studies ought to be interpreted with caution, especially because detailed information on the speakers was not provided; thus, there might have been potential confounding variables such as personal and linguistic characteristics affecting the students' evaluations. Additionally, the factor analyses did not yield clear factor structures, and internal consistencies of the questionnaire were not

reported. With regard to participants, the study used university students whose majors were English or international business only. Thus, they might not be typical of Japanese university students.

More recently, McKenzie (2008a, 2008b) examined attitudes of 558 Japanese university students from 11 different universities (513 undergraduates and 45 graduates; 112 had spent three or more month abroad in an English-speaking environment) towards six varieties within the categories of British English, American English, and Japanese English. The studies included Glasgow vernacular English, Glasgow Standard English, Southern American English, Midwest American English, moderately-accented Japanese English, and heavily-accented Japanese English. In terms of methodology, a verbal-guise technique was used, and the speakers were asked to give directions using a map for more spontaneous and authentic speech (all female speakers). In the data analysis, the researcher conducted principal component analysis on data obtained from the verbal-guise technique and addressed two underlying latent constructs: status and social attractiveness. Regarding the status dimension, one-way repeated-measures analysis of variances and pairwise comparisons showed that the participants were the most favourable towards the native varieties, particularly the American English speakers followed by the British English speakers, as opposed to the Japanese speakers of English, who received the lowest ratings. Similar results were found in studies by Matsuura *et al.* (1994) and Chiba *et al.* (1995). On the other hand, the students rated the speaker of heavily-accented Japanese English the most positively on the social attractiveness dimension, while the Midwest American English speaker received the lowest ratings, possibly because the participants perceived the speaker of heavily-accented Japanese English as an in-group member. The non-standard varieties of native English speakers were also rated positively on the social attractive dimension. Generally, the participants

were able to classify the six speakers correctly as either native or non-native. Multivariate analysis of variance revealed that they rated the native varieties of speakers significantly higher on the status dimension when they identified the origin of speakers correctly. This might indicate that familiarity with the native varieties contributed to the participants' positive attitudes towards the status aspects of the varieties, lending support for the existence of standard language ideology. Additionally, it demonstrated that the distinction between native and non-native was vital for the participants in the process of identification. The detailed identification of the origin of speakers appeared to be more complex. The recognition rates of both speakers of the American English varieties were relatively high, possibly due to the prevalence of American culture through media and education. Contrariwise, the participants had difficulty identifying the speakers of the British English varieties, perhaps because of a lack of exposure in Japan. The speaker of heavily-accented Japanese English was highly identifiable, demonstrating a high degree of familiarity, as opposed to the speaker of moderately-accented Japanese English who was less identifiable. Further multivariate analysis of variance showed that the female participants, the high self-perceived proficiency group, and the participants with more experience travelling to English-speaking countries were inclined to show significantly more positive attitudes towards the native varieties in relation to prestige than the male participants, the low self-perceived proficiency group, and the participants with less travel experience. Hence, the gender, exposure level to language varieties, and expertise level may be factors affecting learners' attitudes towards English varieties, particularly regarding status.

Although the studies addressed several potential variables that account for the participants' attitudes, as indicated in the studies, the identification of speakers might need more investigation because of the difficulty in interpreting the participants' responses.

Additionally, the participants' proficiency involved only self-evaluation; therefore, caution should be exercised regarding the credibility in reporting language proficiency.

In the same vein, a study conducted by Cargile, Takai, and Rodriguez (2006) examined 113 Japanese university students' attitudes (90 female and 22 male, from two universities) towards two American English varieties: Standard American English and African-American vernacular English, using a verbal-guise technique. Additionally, participants evaluated their knowledge of English through assessments of the extent to which they felt competent using English in 12 different situations. Two male and two female speakers were chosen from each variety, and they were asked to read a short passage from a children's story about a fisherperson. The results showed that the majority of the participants did not know African-American vernacular English. However, one-way analysis of variance indicated that the African-American vernacular English speakers were rated significantly less positively on the status level than the speakers of Standard American English. In addition, the evaluations of the African-American vernacular English female speakers were rated as attractive as the Standard American English female speakers were, and they were rated more positively than the Standard American English male speakers. In contrast, the male speakers of African-American vernacular English were rated significantly less favourably than their Standard American English counterparts. Since salient gender differences were found, speakers' gender appeared to have influenced their attitudes towards varieties of English. Most of the participants did not know or were not familiar with African-American vernacular. Thus, although this study attributed the attitudes to the influence of imported racial beliefs from the United States in Japan based on the findings, it would be difficult to determine whether this was the case.

Sasayama (2013) also investigated 44 Japanese university students (31 male and 13 female; 15 English majors and 29 marine science majors) who participated in the current study through a verbal-guise test and a questionnaire. Of these students, 11 participants (4 male and 7 female) had lived in foreign countries (mainly English-speaking countries) for more than a month. Regarding the verbal-guise technique experiments, four Japanese and four Americans (female graduate students) were carefully selected. They were asked to read a short passage which was also controlled in terms of linguistic complexity and content familiarity in English. The verbal-guise test contained items to capture various aspects of two basic constructs: solidarity and power. In addition to the verbal-guise test, a questionnaire was developed for examining attitudes towards Japanese and American English in terms of personal preference and international acceptability. The participants seemed to evaluate the Japanese English speakers more highly than the American English speakers regarding solidarity but lower than the American English speakers regarding power, which was also found in McKenzie's (2008a, 2008b) studies. The results of the questionnaire revealed Japanese participants' mixed attitudes towards Japanese and American English. They expressed their desire to sound like an American English speaker, and they wanted Japanese English to be accepted internationally as a legitimate way of speaking English as long as it was intelligible to other people. The study further argued that current Japanese people wanted Japanese English to be accepted, reflecting the solidarity aspects. They preferred to attain native-like pronunciation due to the power aspects, indicating the Japanese people's current overall attitudes towards language varieties. The study concluded that Japanese people started seeing varieties of English as tools of communication. As mentioned in the study, there was an influence by the speakers even of the same language on respondents' rating; thus, the results might not be reflecting the participants' attitudes accurately. Also, there was a possibility of

misinterpreting the questionnaire due to social desirability bias. The validity of the questionnaire was not checked, and only reliability checks were conducted. Thus, the results should be interpreted with caution.

2.3.5.1.b. Korea

In Korea, Yook and Lindemann (2013) investigated 60 female Korean university students' attitudes towards five varieties of English (African-American vernacular English, European-American English, British English, Australian English, and Korean-accented English) using a verbal-guise technique analysed by one-way repeated-measures analysis of variance and asking questions about beliefs and preference regarding learning English. The participants were all liberal arts majors from one university, and 53 had never been to English-speaking countries. Regarding the verbal-guise tasks, one group was given information about the speakers' nationality and ethnicity; the other group was asked to guess the speaker's nationality and ethnicity. All the speakers in the verbal-guise tasks were female. The results revealed the students' strong preference towards American English for various reasons, such as being the language of the most powerful country in the world, Standard English, and the variety of English that Koreans learn and use currently. Nevertheless, the British English speaker was rated more highly if the students were not told the speaker's nationality and ethnicity; whereas when they were informed of where the speakers were from, they tended to evaluate the American English speaker more positively and the British English speaker more negatively. Similar to McKenzie (2008a, 2008b) and Sasayama (2013), the students' own variety (Korean) was consistently evaluated the lowest on status/competence regardless of whether the students were informed of the speakers' nationality. Also, the social attractiveness ratings of the students' own variety were positive. This was especially true when the students were told

that the speaker was Korean. In terms of African-American vernacular English, the uninformed group guessed incorrectly that the speakers were not from an Inner Circle country, but they rated them highly on status/competence, which was different from Cargile *et al.*'s (2006) study. Nevertheless, the informed group tended to evaluate the African-American vernacular English speaker more negatively. Close to 90% identified American and British English as Inner Circle varieties, which was similar to McKenzie's (2008a, 2008b) Japanese students. Australian English and African-American vernacular English were not recognised by the majority of the students. Korean English was identified as Asian. The study revealed the weak relationship between evaluations of speakers of a variety and evaluations of a variety due to the lack of students' familiarity with the variety in question. Thus, the listeners' categorisation of a speaker did not necessarily match the stereotypes associated with the speakers' specific social group. Due to the small sample size and inclusion of only female participants majoring in liberal arts from one university, the results were not generalisable.

More recently, Ahn and Kang (2017) examined 101 Korean university students from a key university. They were first-year students, and 60% of them were female majoring in social science or foreign language (non-English majors). Among them, 30 students had been abroad for less than three years. The participants completed a variety of tasks: country rating, perceptions of different English varieties (American, Indian, Italian, and Korean-accented speakers), attitudes towards learning English and varieties of English, self-assessment of English language learning, and English achievement assessed by teachers. The results from the country-rating task revealed that American speakers were rated the highest on the friendly, pleasant, 'correct', and familiar ratings, and Korean speakers were rated the second highest in familiarity but below those from the other native-speaking countries in other categories, which was similar to Yook and

Lindemann's (2013) study. The Korean students in this study indicated their preference towards Korean-accented English speech over Indian, Italian, or even American English. On the other hand, the findings also revealed the importance of interacting with native speakers and even living in English-speaking countries to gain English language proficiency. They also demonstrated awareness of different English varieties, indicating a strong desire to communicate with speakers having different accents. This showed that the speakers of a variety of English with whom they would like to communicate and the speakers of a variety of English from whom they believed that they needed to learn could be different. Regarding the relationships between the learners' attitudes towards learning English and its varieties and English language learning, different sets of attitudinal variables extracted from principal component analysis contributed to the prediction of the teacher-assessed and self-assessed English language learning, suggesting that learners' attitudes towards learning different English varieties and their speakers could explain individual variance in English language learning. The study showed limited exposure to different varieties of English other than American English, reflecting characteristics of the Korean education system and society. On the other hand, the students were aware of different English varieties and even the learning of those different varieties in other countries, possibly under the influence of non-linguistic, such as global and local socio-political, factors. Although principal component analysis was used, multiple components were yielded within a scale, indicating issues with the validity of the instrument. This might also have been due to the small sample size. Some foreign language majors might have had a preference towards specific varieties, as indicated in the study. The speech samples used were spoken by middle-aged male professors. The speakers' characteristics might have affected the results, as also indicated in the limitations of the studies using a verbal-guise technique (e.g. Cargile *et al.*, 2006; Sasayama, 2013).

2.3.5.1.c. China

In China, Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) used a questionnaire in order to examine Chinese university students' attitudes towards standards and varieties of English. At a key Chinese university in Beijing, 171 students took part in the study, including both English ($N = 88$) and non-English majors ($N = 83$). Among these students, 64 were women and 107 were men. The results showed that a majority of the students felt that non-native speakers could speak Standard English, acknowledging there were many standards of English. Similar to McKenzie (2008a, 2008b) and Yook and Lindemann (2013), more students preferred learning American to British English, but some were undecided. Unlike Ahn and Kang (2017), most students, especially female students, disapproved of a Chinese variety of English and did not want to be identified as Chinese when they spoke English. This was compatible with the female participants' strong preference for the native varieties found in McKenzie (2008a, 2008b). The study speculated that a Chinese variety of English was not socially acceptable even though they accepted the idea of the existence of multiple varieties of English. As mentioned in the study, those results should be interpreted with caution because the sample size was small and the students were from one university in Beijing. Additionally, only descriptive statistics were used to present the questionnaire results. Thus, it was difficult to know the extent to which the students showed negative attitudes towards a Chinese variety of English and the generalisability of the results.

2.3.5.1.d. European countries

In Europe, similarly, Dalton-Puffer, Kaltenboeck, and Smit (1997) found that English language learners presented negative attitudes towards their own non-native accent by investigating 132 English-major university students' attitudes (17 male, 114 female, and 1

unknown) towards native and non-native varieties of English in Austria using a verbal-guise technique. The participants' first language was German, and a majority of them were studying to become English language teachers. Approximately half of the respondents had stayed in English-speaking countries for more than one month. The participants were asked to evaluate five female speakers with Standard American, Standard British, and Austrian accents reading a short text about bilingualism. For the sake of authenticity, the participants were told that they were helping find speakers for the publication of an audiobook on child language development. A list of 12 features describing the speaker was provided to assess. The study examined the participants' evaluation of accents from more detailed perspectives that included status and social attractiveness. A majority of the participants were able to identify the varieties correctly. The results also revealed that the participants favoured native varieties more than non-native varieties as a model. Although not all the data were tested as statistically significant using independent-samples *t*-tests, the study concluded that the Standard British speaker was more likely to be perceived as the most prestigious than those with Austrian accents, who were rated the most negatively. This stereotyped view might be attributable to the fact that Standard British English, which was traditionally preferred and still popular, was the most familiar to the participants. This was similar to the preference of Japanese and Korean participants for American English (Ahn & Kang, 2017, Chiba *et al.*, 1995; Matsuura *et al.*, 1994; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b; Yook & Lindemann, 2013). The study also found that personal contacts with the target language altered the participants' attitudes towards native varieties in terms of status and solidarity. The participants who had more exposure to American English rated the Standard American speaker positively on both status and solidarity levels and rated the Standard British speaker positively on the status level and more negatively on the solidarity level. With

regard to the participants who had had a longer stay in the United Kingdom, the general American speaker received a higher rating on the solidarity level and a lower rating on the status level, and the Standard British English speaker received a higher rating on both levels. The study investigated only students who were mostly female and intended to become English language teachers. Thus, the students' gender and study major might have influenced the results.

More recently, Ladegaard and Sachdev (2006) examined attitudes of 73 Danish high-school and 23 university students studying British and American social studies and general linguistics, including sociolinguistics (72 female and 24 male), towards five English accents: Standard American, General Australian, Standard British, Scottish Standard, and Cockney (all male speakers). More than half of the participants had been to Anglophone countries. The verbal-guise experiment was carefully controlled in terms of speakers and content. A questionnaire also was used to measure the participants' attitudes towards American and British language and culture. Multivariate analysis of variance indicated that the participants perceived the Standard British speaker as favourable in terms of status and was the most appealing role model of pronunciation, similar to Dalton-Puffer *et al.*'s (1997) study, despite their strong preference towards American culture. The study speculated that this might have been due to exposure to Standard British English as a model for pronunciation in Danish English classrooms. The results may be tentative because the low ratings on the measures might be attributable to the fact that the young females who made up the majority of participants were rating older male foreign speakers, as indicated in the study. In other words, both the participants' and speakers' gender and age might have been confounding variables as also found in previous studies (e.g. Ahn & Kang, 2017; Cargile *et al.*, 2006; Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 1997).

2.3.5.1.e. Mixed contexts

Tokumoto and Shibata (2011) investigated attitudes of Japanese, Korean, and Malaysian learners towards the pronunciation of their own English and non-native varieties of English. Taking part in the study were 128 English-major university students from Japan (50 students from a university in Japan in their first year), South Korea (46 students from a university in Korea in various study years), and Malaysia (32 students from a university in Malaysia in various study years), who were asked to complete a questionnaire. They were also asked to indicate what they believed to be of more importance in speaking English, native-like pronunciation or message conveyance, which they were asked to justify by providing their reasoning. One-way analysis of variance was used to compare accent perception among the three groups. Statistically significant results were obtained with reasonable effect sizes. The Japanese participants evaluated their non-nativeness in English pronunciation and the lack of confidence in intelligibility and acceptability higher than the other participant groups, as also partly found in previous studies (Chiba *et al.*, 1995; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b). The Malaysian students' higher degree of confidence in their own English variety indicated less hesitation in showing their Malaysian accent and a desire to maintain their own accent than the other two groups. Additionally, a majority of the Malaysian students thought that comprehension was more important than having a native pronunciation in English. In contrast, both the Japanese and Korean groups demonstrated their prejudices against their own accents, as found in McKenzie (2008a, 2008b) and Yook and Lindemann (2013), with the same degree of ambition to attain a native-speaker model as shown in those studies. A majority of the Japanese students agreed with the intelligibility, 'correctness', and legitimacy of native English. This might have been due to their English language education, limited exposure to English varieties, and insufficient experiences to understand the functional value of their own English

varieties. As indicated in the study, due to the small sample size comprising students who were English majors from one university in each country, the results might not be generalisable. Other factors, such as study major and institutional effects, might have affected the results.

Similar to Tokumoto and Shibata (2011), contextual differences were found in Ren, Chen, and Lin (2016), who investigated 400 university non-English major students in China (128 male and 72 female from two universities) and in Taiwan (118 male and 82 female from two universities). Their proficiency levels ranged from intermediate to advanced. A majority of them did not have any study-abroad experience. Of the students, 262 reported that they rarely or never communicated in English; and 125 students reported that they sometimes had opportunities to use English in communication. The interlocutors with whom these students interacted tended to be non-native speakers of English. A questionnaire was used as a research instrument, exploring their perceptions of ELF phonology and lexicogrammar. Both Chinese and Taiwanese students indicated that they could not speak English like native speakers. The study attributed this to the lack of opportunities for talking with native speakers. They strongly preferred to achieve native-speaker accents, reporting the benefits of speaking native-speaker English. The Chinese students reported significantly greater agreement than the Taiwanese students with the statement whether they spoke English with a Chinese accent and their desire to speak with a native-speaker accent, which was also partly revealed by the Chinese students in Kirkpatrick and Xu's (2002) study. This suggested that English language learning and teaching in China were more native-speaker-norm-oriented. The study also showed an awareness of a few of the Chinese and the Taiwanese students of the role of ELF for intercultural communication, recognising the advantages of ELF in keeping their local characteristics. Regarding ELF lexicogrammar, ELF lexicogrammar features recognised

as ‘incorrect’ did not affect intelligibility for the students in either group. The Chinese students considered the ELF lexicogrammar features less ‘correct’ and less acceptable than did the Taiwanese students, indicating that students in China tended to conform more strictly to native-speaker norms, similar to their perceptions of ELF phonology. The participants were selected from only two universities in each country, and the descriptions of those universities were not given. As found in McKenzie’s (2008a, 2008b) studies, the participants’ varying proficiency and exposure to different varieties might have affected their attitudes. Thus, the study should be interpreted with caution.

Focusing on attitudes towards EIL, Lee and Hsieh (2018) investigated 105 students (42 male and 63 female) from one Taiwanese university and 141 students (68 male and 73 female) from two Korean universities with low-intermediate proficiency using a questionnaire. The respondents were either first-year or second-year students majoring in various subjects other than English. The questionnaire included an EIL perception scale consisting of four aspects of EIL: Current status of English, Varieties of English, Strategies for multilingual/multicultural communication, and English speakers’ identity. Principal component analysis and independent-samples *t*-tests were performed for the analysis. This study yielded three major findings. First, both Taiwanese and Korean students gave, on average, positive ratings for all four dimensions of EIL, suggesting that these current Taiwanese and Korean students who did not major in English positively endorsed general concepts of EIL as partly identified by the Korean students in Ahn and Kang’s (2017) study. Second, Taiwanese and Korean students shared a common perception of English speaker identity, suggesting that both groups had a similar degree of ownership over their own local varieties of English. Third, Taiwanese students scored higher in the other three aspects than Korean students possibly due to context-specific educational factors, such as education systems and teacher-related influences. English

listening materials containing non-native speaker accents and interactions between non-native speakers seemed to be accepted less by Korean than Taiwanese students, possibly under the influence of the standardised university entrance examination in Korea, which uses American English. As reported in the study, in the Taiwanese case, in-class pedagogy, which was EIL-informed, might have affected the participants' EIL perceptions. Finally, other potential confounding variables, especially institutional effects, should have been taken into account since the participants were selected from one university in Taiwan and two universities in Korea.

2.3.5.1.f. Summary

The results of quantitative studies mainly used a verbal-guise technique showed that the distinction between native and non-native appears to be vital for the learners in the process of identification as found in McKenzie (2008a, 2008b) and Yook and Lindemann (2013). American or British English is more likely to be rated high on status and low on solidarity, while their own variety of English is more likely to be rated high on solidarity and low on status (Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 1994; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b, Sasayama, 2013; Yook & Lindemann, 2013). Other quantitative studies that used a questionnaire (Ahn & Kang, 2017; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Ren *et al.,* 2016; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011) revealed that the learners preferred native varieties of English and showed negative attitudes towards their varieties of English. These studies have also captured learners' different levels of awareness of diverse varieties of English. These attitudes appear to be influenced by exposure to varieties of English in and outside the classroom. For example, East Asian learners tend to be more familiar with certain native varieties (American English) and their own variety than other non-native varieties, especially due to their exposure to those varieties in the classroom. The exposure can occur outside the

classroom, including personal experiences, such as travel/study-abroad experiences in English-speaking countries and media. The studies also found that learners' variables such as age, gender, institutional effects, proficiency, and study major may play an important role in the formation of attitudes.

Caution should be exercised regarding the interpretations of the results. These findings obtained using verbal-guise techniques are very narrow in scope, as only phonological features tend to be researched and analysed in the studies, thus ignoring other dimensions of variation. Verbal-guise techniques can tell us whether learners prefer one narrowly defined dialect over another narrowly defined dialect but are unable to measure attitudes beyond these dialectal boundaries, failing to investigate learners' attitudes in detail. As found in Yook and Lindermann (2013), the listeners' categorisation of a speaker does not necessarily match the stereotypes associated with the speakers' specific social group. This is due to a lack of familiarity with the varieties in question or possibly due to a lack of English language proficiency (Dragojevic, 2017), failing to recognise linguistic cues. Learners' inability to categorise speakers may result in inaccurate reflections of their attitudes. In addition to listeners' ability to categorise speakers, verbal-guise techniques tend to contain some confounding variables. For example, Cargile *et al*. (2006), Ladegaard and Sachdev (2006), and Sasayama (2013) found that confounding variables such as speakers' gender and age may affect participants' attitudes. The questionnaire results may not be credible since most of the questionnaires were not checked for their validity and reliability. The confounding variables were not sufficiently controlled.

All the quantitative studies except for Tokumoto and Shibata (2011) did not report effect sizes (Cohen, 1994). Thus, the statistical significance (p-value) used in the studies could be simply due to the size of the sample instead of the size of the mean difference. Those

studies also failed to capture learners' complex attitudes in depth, particularly in terms of how the attitudes are formed.

Overall, a verbal-guise technique is out of touch with the current sociolinguistic reality of how English is used in the 21st century (Rose & Galloway, 2019). Pennycook (2010) argues that the nationalist core of the World Englishes framework, with its identification of distinct varieties of English based on geographic boundaries, is severely outdated in its lack of ability to capture fluid uses of English. Likewise, a verbal-guise technique, with its narrow focus on specific and constrained versions of English, does little to represent attitudes related to the fluid ways in which English is used in global contexts. Pennycook (2010) further argues that linguists need to move beyond state-bound representations and explore globalised linguascapes, in order to 'avoid the national circles and boxes that have constrained World Englishes and, indeed, linguists more generally' (p. 685). Thus, although a verbal-guise technique captures traditional aspects of English use, seeing English as a discrete entity that appears to exist in the learners' attitudes, there is an increasing necessity to investigate global aspects of learners' attitudes reflecting the dynamic, diverse, and fluid nature of English use. Also, a verbal-guise technique is unable to eliminate potential confounding variables linked to the nature of the task, such as respondents' inability to identify varieties in question or speakers' gender. Similarly, a majority of the questionnaires used in the studies tended to rely heavily on problematic labels, such as 'native speaker' and 'Japanese English', which does not reflect the dynamic nature of global use of English with its complex practices, experiences, and histories.

Furthermore, neither a verbal-guise technique nor a questionnaire in those studies could tap into dynamic learners' attitude formation in depth. This is crucial since, in order to

initiate GELT curriculum innovations, it is necessary to capture not only learners' current attitudes but also how those attitudes are formed, which informs practices of how those attitudes can be changed (Galloway, 2017). More holistic and contextually grounded approaches to understanding such complex attitudes of Global Englishes users are needed. Not only quantitative methods but also qualitative methods should be employed. Among the empirical studies of learners' attitudes towards English as a global language, some studies that employed both quantitative and qualitative methods are described in the next section.

2.3.5.2. *Studies of learners' attitudes towards English varieties mainly using quantitative and qualitative methods*

2.3.5.2.a. Japan

In Japan, Matsuda (2003) conducted a study to investigate Japanese private high school students' attitudes towards English varieties using a questionnaire administered to 34 students (20 male and 14 female), conducting interviews with 10 students, and observing English classes for 36 hours. All data were combined and analysed using thematic analysis. The findings revealed that the students perceived English as a symbol of internationalisation and an important tool for international communication and showed an interest in international understanding and communication. Nevertheless, they viewed English speakers as those from the United States and the United Kingdom and used these English varieties as a yardstick; and a lack of awareness about other English varieties was evident.

The results of the study should be interpreted carefully due to the small sample size. The participants may not be considered typical Japanese high-school students, since most had

prior experience travelling and studying abroad. Furthermore, the validity and reliability of each questionnaire item were not statistically examined.

Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) also investigated attitudes towards English and English language teaching of 116 Japanese university students majoring in English using a questionnaire, interviews, and focus groups. Most of the participants were in their third year, had studied abroad, and had spoken English with native speakers and non-native speakers outside of their university. A majority of them were female. Among these, 20 participants who completed the questionnaire were interviewed, followed by four focus groups ($N = 24$). In this study, the participants believed that the ownership of English belonged to native speakers of English. Native speakers were thought to be the participants' target interlocutors. Native English was used as a yardstick with a particular preference for American English, aiming to achieve native-speaker pronunciation, as found in Matsuda (2003). An awareness of and positive attitudes towards Global Englishes and future ELF use and experiences using English with non-native speakers were also found. They were open to the inclusion of Global Englishes in English language teaching. Nevertheless, the notion of Standard English, which was associated with native English, appeared to be popular, and their attitudes towards non-native varieties were largely negative, including their own variety of English, especially in relation to pronunciation. Based on independent-samples *t*-tests on the closed-ended questionnaire items followed by the analysis of open-ended questionnaire items, interviews, and focus groups, the students' attitudes were influenced by many factors that included familiarity, motivation, pedagogical beliefs, learning experiences, stereotypes, perceived future use, ELF experiences, and shared non-nativeness. The study also implemented the GELT course, which successfully raised the participants' awareness of Global Englishes and positively changed their attitudes towards Global Englishes. At the

same time, it revealed the participants' strong attachment to native-speaker norms. The study focused on English majors who might be more aware of English varieties. Also, as mentioned in the study, the influence of the researcher on students might have been very strong due to her large involvement in the participants' courses, resulting in participants' answering questions in favour of the researcher. Moreover, advanced statistical techniques were not used, failing to fully examine the complex relationships between attitudes and factors affecting attitudes quantitatively.

Similarly, Ishikawa (2017) examined 106 Japanese students who participated from diverse disciplines at 5 national and 11 private Japanese universities regarding their attitudes towards Japanese English and the associated factors. Their years of university study ranged from one to five. An open-ended questionnaire ($N = 95$) and face-to-face conversational interviews ($N = 18$) were conducted. As also revealed in Tokumoto and Shibata's (2011) and Galloway's (2011, 2013, 2017) studies, the study showed that participants had negative attitudes towards Japanese English due to a perceived poor communication ability using 'incorrect' English and a deficit view of Japanese English use. The factors affecting those attitudes included a focus on 'correctness' regardless of communication purposes, mainly in relation to grammar, and a desire for conforming to North American English. The study argued that this reflected that English language education in Japan was contributing to the assimilation of native-speaker norms, particularly emphasising the English spoken in North America. A majority also agreed with ELF perspectives. A few Japanese students mentioned their positive attitudes towards Japanese English, indicating its effectiveness in international encounters. Based on the fact that the interviews contributed to the development of the participants' positive attitudes towards ELF, the study argued that it was possible to raise ELF awareness of Japanese students by giving them an opportunity to question the existing norms. Some

confounding factors, such as institutional effects and overseas experiences, might have affected the students' views. The transferability of the results of interviews conducted in a casual manner without any prepared questions is unclear. The study also failed to take potential researchers' influence on each participant into consideration. As mentioned in the study, it would be difficult to conclude that the participants had developed positive attitudes towards ELF due to the interviews since they might have said what the researcher expected to hear.

More recently, McKenzie and Gilmore (2017) examined 158 Japanese university students' attitudes (at six national and private universities) towards seven English varieties: Southern American, Standard Mid-West American, Scottish Standard, Japanese, Thai, Chinese, and Indian, using a verbal-guise technique and an open-ended question directly asking the participants to describe speakers of non-native English and non-native English and their speech. All the speakers in the verbal-guise studies were female. Prototypical speech samples were chosen. The results of principal component analysis and multivariate analysis of variance showed that, similar to quantitative studies that used a verbal-guise technique (e.g. Chiba *et al.*, 1995; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b), the participants rated American English varieties higher than Asian English varieties, with a particular preference for Standard and non-Standard American English regarding prestige and 'correctness' of English speech. Japanese English was rated higher than other English varieties spoken in South and East Asia. Regarding the dimension of solidarity, the Japanese speaker was rated the most favourably. The participants' evaluations of Indian English and Chinese English were found to be considerably more negative than the other varieties on both the status and social attractiveness dimensions. These attitudes were also confirmed by the qualitative study: half of the participants indicated that non-native English speech was 'incorrect' and lacked intelligibility, possibly due to a lack of

exposure to non-native varieties except Japanese English. Some participants found non-native English speech more simplified than native-English speech; thus, they found non-native English speech more intelligible and accepted it as a legitimate form of the language. Some participants perceived non-native varieties as a reflection of group identity, promoting cultural understanding. The study revealed the lack of familiarity with non-native varieties as also found in Matsuda's (2003) study and attributed the results to greater levels of exposure among Japanese students solely to American English at all levels of the Japanese education system. With regard to the qualitative evaluation, a follow-up interview was not conducted, failing to examine the reasons for their attitudes in more detail, such as the influence of the speakers. There might have been various factors affecting what they thought of speakers of non-native English and non-native English and their speeches.

2.3.5.2.b. Korea

Lee and Lee (2019) used a questionnaire in order to investigate 378 Korean university students (232 female and 146 male, 206 English majors and 172 non-English majors) from among three separate regions, and their study year ranged from first to fourth. A questionnaire included the EIL perception scale, also used in Lee and Hsieh's (2018) study, examining perceptions of varieties of English and strategies for multilingual/multi-cultural communication. Principal component analysis extracted two factors as expected. Composite reliability, convergent validity, and discriminant validity of the EIL perception scale were checked. Follow up interviews were conducted with 20 English majors and 20 non-English majors. The results showed that the Korean students overall had positive perceptions of EIL-related ideas (both varieties of English and strategies for multilingual/multicultural communication), similar to Ahn and Kang's (2017) and Lee

and Hsieh's (2018) studies. English majors were more positive towards both factors than non-English majors. The qualitative results showed that a teacher-structured EIL pedagogy positively impacted their EIL perceptions as English majors, as found in Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017). Additionally, non-English majors generally presented negative views of the Outer and Expanding Circle varieties of English and preferred standardised varieties of English such as American English as also found in McKenzie and Gilmore's (2017) study. In terms of a student-driven EIL experience, most English majors mentioned that various types of informal digital learning English environment activities positively influenced their EIL perceptions. This indicated that adequate exposure to different kinds of English forms and users through such informal digital learning activities might contribute to an increase in positive perceptions of EIL. Non-English-major students also engaged in these activities; the types of activities were qualitatively different from those in which the English majors participated. As mentioned in the study, non-English-major students tended to respond positively to the EIL questionnaire, although they held negative opinions about the Outer and Expanding Circle varieties of English. The questionnaire did not capture traditional orientations such as Standard English and native-speaker norms. The EIL-informed teaching in English major courses might have impacted the students' attitudes towards EIL and their engagement with informal digital learning of English environment activities. In addition to these two factors (EIL-informed teaching and informal digital learning of English environment activities), multiple factors suggested in Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) could have contributed to the students' attitude formation. Although the study considered study major, gender, study year, and university location, there were other factors potentially confounding the attitudes, such as overseas experience.

2.3.5.2.c. China

He and Li (2009) and He and Zhang (2010) conducted a study similar to Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002) to examine Chinese university students' and teachers' attitudes towards 'China English' (distinct Chinese varieties of English) using a questionnaire that consisted of items about students' perception of 'China English' and two items tapping into native-speaker norms regarding pronunciation and grammar, a matched-guise technique (one in typical 'China English' and the other in a more or less native-like accent), and group interviews (3 to 9 in each group). The latter two methods were used to check if the findings of the questionnaire survey were consistent with the findings of the other two methods. In total, there were 984 completed questionnaires and matched-guise experiments (820 students and 210 teachers initially took part in the study). Of these study participants, 103 were interviewed. Regarding the selection of the questionnaire participants, the study took into account age, gender, study major, and year of study to make the participants maximally representative of their respective groups. Among the 820 participants, 795 students completed the questionnaire and matched-guise technique (aged from 17 to 25; 411 were male and 384 were female, non-English majors; 344 were first-year students, 251 were second-year students, 77 were third-year students, and 123 were fourth-year students), and 82 students attended the group interviews. They were from four different universities located in different regions with different academic status. The results for all the respondents were presented, which proved to be similar to those of Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002). The respondents did not want to be identified as Chinese when they spoke English. A majority believed that non-native speakers could speak Standard English and accepted that there were many Standard Englishes. There was a slight increase in the number of participants who agreed on the need for Chinese to communicate mainly with non-native English speakers in English. A majority of the

participants in this study thought there would be a variety of English in China one day, while the opposite trend was found in Kirkpatrick and Xu's (2002) study. The participants showed a clear preference for a native-speaker model of English as a pedagogical model, while nearly half of them did not mind speaking English with Chinese accents. Some evidence supporting the existence of 'China English' was found in the matched-guise technique experiments and interviews. They concluded that there might be a shift towards supporting the legitimacy of 'China English', being increasingly aware, being tolerant, and even agreeing to incorporate 'China English' into the pedagogical model. Similar to Kirkpatrick and Xu's (2002) study, female students held fewer positive attitudes towards 'China English'. Unlike Ren *et al.*'s (2016) students, most students no longer set Standard Englishes as a target for their pronunciation, showing more acceptance of 'China English' than teachers, as long as they could communicate freely with others in English. In contrast, regarding grammar, both students and teachers showed a clear preference for native-speaker norms. The study results were more credible than Kirkpatrick and Xu's (2002) study through its use of mixed methods, large sample size, and careful selection of participants. However, the validity and reliability of the questionnaire were not checked. Moreover, the questionnaire results were presented with descriptive statistics summarising the responses. Thus, the stated trends were not necessarily generalisable.

Wang (2015a) distributed a questionnaire (consisting of language examples with audio files covering 'China English' features to elicit university English language teachers' and learners' attitudes) to 1589 university students (785 male, 802 female, and 2 unspecified) and 193 university English teachers (38 male, 154 female, and 1 unspecified) using QQ (instant messaging software) from 12 universities in different provinces. The students were from a wide range of disciplines. For each item, the participants rated each item regarding understandability and acceptability. To further investigate their attitudes, 31

students (15 male and 16 female) and 33 teachers (7 male and 26 female) were invited for an interview to provide reasons for their questionnaire responses. One-way repeated-measures analysis of variance (within subjects) and independent samples *t*-tests (between subjects) were used for the quantitative analysis. The findings revealed that 'China English' had not yet been widely accepted, similar to Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), He and Li (2009), and He and Zhang (2010), although it was understandable to most of them. The participants tended to be more open to 'China English' accents than most 'China English' features in syntactical and discourse pragmatic categories. Generally, students were found to be more resistant to 'China English' features than teachers, displaying a higher degree of uncertainties than He and Zhang's (2010) study, which found students to be more tolerant. The qualitative results showed that the participants attributed their negative attitudes towards 'China English' features to the notion of 'correctness', which was measured against native-speaker norms similar to Japanese students (e.g. Ishikawa, 2017). 'China English' was stigmatised and considered as a deviation from native English, showing poor English usage and needing improvement. Contrariwise, the reasons for positive attitudes towards 'China English' included that they valued the capability of 'China English' in terms of achieving successful communication and the role of 'China English' for maintaining identity as also mentioned by some Chinese and Taiwanese students in Ren *et al.* (2016). Overall, it appears that 'China English' users were aware of the capability and power of 'China English'. Nevertheless, at the same time, they perceived the possibility of negative evaluations associated with 'China English' in society as also found in Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002). These attitudes appeared to be formed through their English language learning experiences. Their choice of preferred English was influenced by the tension between speaking English with local characteristics and conforming to the socially recognised native-speaker norms, which corresponded to

Sasayama's (2013) findings. The study concluded that participants' negative attitudes towards 'China English' might not be due to a lack of awareness about the existence, legitimacy, and power of 'China English' for local expression, but might reflect a standard language ideology of conforming to native-speaker norms at work in a society that was too influential to use English more freely. The questionnaire items that directly examined the attitudes were not included, failing to support the qualitative evidence. Unlike He and Li's (2009) and He and Zhang's (2010) studies, potential confounding variables were not controlled. Thus, there might have been some variables, such as institutional effects, gender, study year, study major, and overseas experience, that affected the attitude data.

Similarly, Wang (2013, 2015b) and Wang and Jenkins (2016) distributed a questionnaire to respondents who were English users (502 Chinese university students including third-year and fourth-year English majors, second-year postgraduates majoring in different disciplines, and 267 professionals in China working for foreign trade companies, international marketing departments in Chinese enterprises, international liaison offices of some China-based organisations and institutions, and Chinese-foreign joint ventures). The questionnaire included acceptability evaluation tasks that contained sentences influenced by their first language (Chinese) that could be easily comprehensible. Recruited for an interview were 12 English majors and 12 non-English major students from a Chinese university, and 11 Chinese professionals. The questionnaire data showed that some professionals had used and expected to use English to communicate with non-native English speakers who did not share a first language, and a majority of the students thought that they expected to use English with native speakers. The interview data revealed that, although native-speaker norm-reference model assumptions were found, those who encountered ELF interactions tended to challenge this assumption and to think

that native-speaker norms were not necessary to communicate effectively. The quantitative results also showed the participants' positive attitudes towards ELF usage. However, the complexity of their attitudes was revealed. Similar to Ren *et al.* (2016) and Wang (2015a), while they showed positive attitudes towards non-conformity to native-speaker norms due to their needs and desires to communicate effectively and reflect their identity appropriately, they still revealed their preferences for native varieties. This was attributed to the fact that the participants had a belief in native-speaker norms as the core of English, the desire for fixed norms, and the social advantage of native varieties. The students' native-speaker norm-oriented attitudes were attributed mainly to language education in China. Testing and university requirements were driving forces for students to conform to native-speaker norms. The study concluded that the participants' ELF experiences played an important role in their attitudes towards native-speaker English, and they allowed the participants to be more open to different varieties of English, as also found in Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) and Lee and Lee (2019). Thus, the increase of ELF experience in language classrooms proved crucial to develop learners' understanding of ELF and foster positive attitudes towards diverse varieties of English. Since the participants were from one university without taking into account potential confounding variables such as institutional effects and only descriptive statistics were presented regarding the quantitative data, the results might not be applicable to a wider population.

2.3.5.2.d. Mixed contexts

In mixed contexts, Timmis (2002) conducted a questionnaire survey and 15 interviews in order to examine attitudes towards native-speaker norms of 400 students and 180 teachers from various countries. The study indicated that a majority of the students preferred conforming to native-speaker norms in terms of pronunciation and grammar usage. The

teachers tended to be more tolerant of non-native speaker norms, especially regarding pronunciation, as also found in Wang (2015a), whereas the opposite trend was found in He and Li (2009). One of the most apparent reasons for their attitudes, as mentioned in the interviews, was evaluating native-speaker pronunciation and grammar as benchmarks of achievement, as also indicated in Galloway (2013, 2017) and Matsuda (2003). However, the validity of the questionnaire was particularly questionable because each multiple-choice item was double-barrelled in measuring more than one aspect of native-speaker norms. Moreover, since attitudes towards written and spoken grammar may vary depending on the contexts, such as formal or informal, the questionnaire items lacked clarity. Since only descriptive statistics were conducted, the study's findings could not be generalised. The detailed sampling and demographic information of the participants were not reported.

2.3.5.2.e. Summary

To sum up, the findings of these studies are similar to those of studies that used quantitative methods, such as judging native varieties as favourable models while evaluating their own accented varieties negatively. The studies using both quantitative and qualitative methods have discovered how these attitudes are formed in more detail, especially through focus groups and in-depth individual interviews, such as evaluating native varieties positively due to seeing the varieties as benchmarks of achievement and intelligibility mainly through education (Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Ishikawa, 2017; Matsuda, 2003; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2017; Timmis, 2002; Wang, 2015a, 2015b; Wang & Jenkins, 2016). Furthermore, the studies have revealed that Chinese learners tend to be aware of the value of their own varieties (He & Li, 2009; He & Zhang, 2010; Wang, 2015a). In contrast, Japanese learners are less aware of this value partly due to a lack of

exposure to non-native varieties and ELF experiences (Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Ishikawa, 2017; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2017). Most studies have found that learners are aware of different varieties of English, and learners in some studies (He & Li, 2009; He & Zhang, 2010) are expected to communicate with speakers of those varieties, showing positive attitudes towards them, capturing attitudes that are not necessarily limited to geographic boundaries. Nonetheless, previous research also showed a strong preference for native varieties. Wang (2015a, 2015b), and Wang and Jenkins (2016) showed that the existence of ideology conforming to native-speaker norms and negative associations with learners' own variety in society has contributed to their preference towards native varieties. Factors that may influence their attitudes include familiarity, motivation, pedagogical beliefs and learning experiences, stereotypes, perceived future use, ELF experiences, shared non-nativeness, education systems, and society (Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Ishikawa, 2017; Lee & Lee, 2019; Wang 2015a, 2015b; Wang & Jenkins, 2016). Those appear to be associated with learners' exposure to varieties of English.

Although those studies have highlighted learners' current complex attitudes as well as how they are formed, the quantitative methods used in those studies could have been more rigorous through the use of more credible research instruments, and the influence of potential confounding variables, such as study years, institutional effects, and overseas experience, remains to be determined. Only a few studies checked the validity and reliability of the instrument (e.g. Lee & Lee, 2019) and accounted for respondents' age, gender, study major, and year of study (e.g. He & Li, 2009) and study major (e.g. Lee & Lee, 2019). Thus, a detailed investigation of learners' complex attitudes that can be aligned with the dynamic nature of the current sociolinguistic reality would be necessary to further promote change in ELT.

Thus, the present study involved the development of a valid and reliable questionnaire, referring to the GELT framework created for GE-informed curriculum innovations in ELT and the use of more advanced statistical techniques and focus groups, which would allow us to understand the process of attitude formation in depth as indicated in Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017). This exhaustive investigation of English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language was conducted in Japan, one of the Expanding Circle countries (Kachru, 1985, 1992), which has a unique social context. The next section explains the distinct aspects of society that could shape Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language.

2.4. Japanese society and English

In Japan, as empirical studies have shown, people and society appear to have positive attitudes towards English in general. Nevertheless, despite the visual and conceptual presence of the language within society, English has no official status, and the majority of the people can lead their everyday lives in Japan without having any particular fluency in the language (Seargeant, 2009). English usage by most Japanese people appears to be very limited (Mizuno, 2008; Seargeant, 2011; Terasawa, 2015; Yano, 2011). This may change with the continued influx of foreign visitors and residents into Japan, who increasingly use English as a lingua franca (ELF) for communication. For example, the Japanese tourism agency was established in 2008, reflecting the governments' emphasis on tourism. The Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, Transport, and Tourism (2002) has promoted the 'Visit Japan Campaign' since 2002, increasing the number of tourists from foreign countries. In 2018, 31 million foreign tourists visited Japan. According to the data in 2018, Chinese formed the largest group (26.9%) and the second, third, and fourth largest groups were from Korea (24.2%), Taiwan (15.3%), and Hong Kong (7.1%),

followed by the United States (4.9%; JNTO, 2018a). Moreover, in 2013 the Olympic Committee announced that Tokyo would be hosting the 32nd Summer Olympic Games in 2020. Japan has been expecting to bring more foreign visitors under the new campaign 'Your Japan 2020', aiming to increase the number of foreign visitors to 40 million in 2020 (JNTO, 2018b). In order to cope with the current situation, multilingualism has been promoted; furthermore, according to the Bureau of Tokyo 2020 Olympic and Paralympic Games Preparation (2014), the combination of Japanese and English is considered a standard platform for communication. This indicates that English has been playing a major role as a default working language in growing sectors in Japan.

There are many ways in which the spread of English influences Japanese society, reflected in Japanese English language learners' attitudes. This study focuses on the presence of English in Japanese society, which includes the media and English language education, as pointed out in previous attitude studies conducted in Japan (e.g. Chiba *et al.*, 1995; Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Ishikawa, 2017; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2017).

2.4.1. Presence of English in Japanese society

The spread of English has been observed in various parts of Japanese society, especially in linguistic visual displays (Backhaus 2019; Ben-Rafael, Shohamy, & Barni 2010; Honna, 2008; Seargeant, 2011) and in the media (Gluszek & Hansen, 2013), showing the visible interface between language and society. As mentioned in Section 2.3.4, these societal treatments are used in some studies to examine the positioning of English and varieties of English in society.

2.4.1.1. *Linguistic landscapes in Japan*

Backhaus (2006, 2015) examined linguistic landscapes in Japan to investigate developing multilingualism in the country. The linguistic landscape is characterised as 'The language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combined to form the linguistic landscape of a given territory, region, or urban agglomeration' (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p. 25). Backhaus (2006) investigated a total of 11,384 signs in the centre of Tokyo, of which 2321 were classified as multilingual signs, showing that more than 80% of the signs were monolingual Japanese. The study identified two types of multilingual signs: official and nonofficial signs. A majority of official signs contained English followed by Chinese and Korean, with Japanese playing the role of a language of power. A majority of those signs (96%) used Japanese as the main language. Nonofficial multilingual signs included 15 different languages, and 40% of all nonofficial signs displayed a language other than Japanese in the prominent position, reflecting desires to create an overseas atmosphere. The study indicated that the latter might be associated more with the solidarity dimension than the power dimension. The use of English on those nonofficial multilingual signs had a symbolic meaning that reflected Japanese signwriters' motivation to join the English language community. As mentioned in Garrett (2010), this study focused only on one central area of the most urban city in Japan, and the distinction between official and nonofficial signs was questionable in this study was insufficiently evidenced. Additionally, in terms of understanding official signs, multiple factors such as history, technology, and design-inputs were not considered.

More recently, Backhaus (2015) examined the use of ELF in the larger Tokyo metropolitan region by collecting 72 audio-recordings of train announcements and 70

bilingual Japanese-English public signs in and around train stations. The collected data appeared to be based predominantly on a North American model found on the levels of orthography ('center'), pronunciation (postvocalic /r/), and lexicon ('subway'). The British English expression ('pushchair') was also found in the lexicon accompanying an American English term, 'stroller', but no Japanese-made loanwords such as 'baby-car' were found. Regarding phonology, a more Japanese-like pronunciation, such as the occurrence of /ɾ/ in proper nouns, was observed; nevertheless, multiple cases of blocking a local pronunciation in Inner Circle English accentuation were shown. In grammar, some ELF usages were found, such as the non-marking of plural ('between station') and repeated uses of a noun replaceable by a pronoun ('Please do not rush into the train or force yourself into the train'). Neither case affected overall intelligibility. A direct comparison between English messages and equivalent Japanese texts showed that the English version tended to be shorter and less detailed, which could be interpreted as using a limited number of lexical items efficiently, showing ELF usage. There were some examples where only English was available in the landscape data. If the message was presented together with a pictogram, English-only became an option, including the Japanese population as readers of the sign. The soundscape data revealed that English was available only if there were pre-recordings. The study concluded that ELF usage in public transport facilities in the centre of Tokyo rarely appeared to be seen. Signwriters tended to avoid using English that departed from American or British English. Similar to Backhaus (2006), this study was conducted in an urban setting and in very limited areas (public transportation facilities). Thus, the results would not be applicable to other areas in Japan. Official documents published by transport companies which might provide the rationale behind their English usage were not consulted. Also, other factors, such as train managers' proficiency, might have been strongly affecting the use of English in Japan.

Other linguistic landscapes studies investigated areas other than Tokyo and also found the dominant use of the English language on public signs (e.g. Hirano, Oyabu, & Nambo, 2007; Saito, 2009; Shoji, 2006; Yoneoka, 2009). Saito (2009) collected 470 multilingual signs in Tokyo and Tochigi. Half of the samples were bilingual signs in Japanese and English, followed by Korean and Chinese in both areas. The unique usage of English was found in nonofficial signs, as also found in Backhaus (2006). In Tochigi, there were multilingual signs at ropeway stations. One of those signs informing the time of the last ropeway was written as ‘It will be today’s last of ropeway going down at 4:24’ in 2007. This had been changed to ‘Today’s last ropeway ride is at 4:00’ in 2009. An interview with the manager of the ropeway company revealed that his workers voluntarily started creating signs with suggestions from foreign tourists. The sign thus represented a collaborative effort between the workers and foreign tourists. This case might not be applicable to every situation since the workers might not know how to handle the situation and might not be even allowed to create signs, as mentioned in the study. Nevertheless, this could be a sign that Japanese people have started feeling freer to use ELF.

Those studies do not capture the Japanese society as a whole since a societal treatment approach can capture only a part of language attitudes in society, as in Section 2.3.4. However, the evidence appears to show that, although English is prevalent in Japanese society, English may be positioned as their first foreign language, which should conform to native-speaker norms. The Japanese language is securely positioned as the national language. Nevertheless, the ever-increasing and dominant use of English confirms that English is normally considered the default working international language. Also, ELF use has been emerging gradually, as found in Saito’s (2009) study.

2.4.1.2. *Media in Japan*

Repeated exposure to stereotypical media portrayals can contribute to the socialisation of language in society (Gluszek & Hansen, 2013). In Japanese contexts, Haarmann (1986) investigated the characteristics of stereotypes, focusing on the use of English in television advertising in Japan. Advertisements reflect stereotypical images and values with which a language and its language group are commonly associated in a particular society (Garrett, 2010). A total of 2,919 Japanese television commercials were examined using content analysis. The results revealed that English was used for positive features, such as high prestige, almost exclusively for commercial purposes, making the images of the advertised products more appealing to customers. The study concluded that the frequent use of English in mass media due to its prestige appeared to be linked to the attitudes of Japanese people towards foreign languages and cultures (e.g. English, French, and Spanish) in general. This showed that the stereotypical associations provide insight into language attitudes (Garrett, 2010). Nonetheless, a lack of rigour with regard to data analysis should be noted. For example, no detailed investigation of the meaning of speech in a specific context was conducted.

More recently, Hagiwara, Teshaun, Kamise, Kojyo, Li, and Shibuya (2011) and Shibuya, Teshaun, Li, Kamise, Hagiwara, and Kojyo (2011) investigated 1600 Japanese people's contact with people from different cultural backgrounds and their cultures as well as their contact with media (newspaper, television, and the Internet) using a questionnaire. The participants were from four different regions in Japan with a wide age range and roughly the same numbers of female and male respondents. The study showed that the participants had encountered (e.g. studied or worked together) people from Asian countries more than people from European and North American countries. They were more likely to show

negative attitudes towards encounters with the former and positive attitudes towards encounters with the latter. The participants in their 20s and 30s tended to have more encounters with foreigners than those in the other age ranges. Of the participants, 14% had foreign friends, who were more likely to be either Asian or European and North American. Of the participants, 63.3% had been overseas, especially the United States, Korea, Hong Kong, China, France, and Singapore, mostly for a short time. Regarding contact with different cultures through media, they had exposure to overseas information mainly through television and the Internet. They watched American films and dramas the most frequently. Of the participants, 89% agreed that the United States tended to be on the news the most often. Shibuya *et al.* (2011) further explored the image of the United States by exploring the predictive relationship between Japanese people's engagement with the media and people with different cultural backgrounds and their positive image of the United States using multiple regression analysis. The results showed that an advanced image of the United States was predicted positively by watching foreign-country-related variety shows on television and American films, and through encounters with people from foreign countries.

However, due to the use of non-probability sampling, these findings might not be generalisable beyond the sample. Nonetheless, the findings provided some insights into how current Japanese people are more likely to be exposed to ELF-related encounters and be affected by media in society. They tend to encounter more non-native speakers from Asian countries than native speakers from North America. Regarding their media exposure, the American influence through media leading to positive images of the country appeared to be strong.

Similarly, regarding Japanese university students' media exposure and their orientations, Hagiwara (2007) investigated 1774 students (892 male and 861 female) from 13 universities in Japan to examine their media exposure and the impact of media on students' perceptions about foreign countries using a questionnaire. The questionnaire asked about their media use, knowledge, image, and evaluation of foreign countries, contact with foreigners and foreign cultures, sources of overseas information, the credibility of the media, and perceptions about television contents and influence. The findings showed that the students had the most exposure to American films and dramas, which more than 80% of the students reported watching at least a few times a year. European and Asian films and dramas were seen less frequently than American films and dramas. They had not been exposed to media other than from those countries. About 30% of the students had had deeper interactions with foreigners, such as having meals together. The results of multiple regression analysis showed that the students' international orientations (interest in working overseas, making friends from different countries, living in countries besides Japan, learning more about different cultures, and contributing to poor countries) were predicted positively by their interactions with foreigners and their cultures and contact with media through films, dramas, and sports news. The students' knowledge of foreign countries was predicted positively by their contact with media through newspapers, Internet news, and sports news, and international orientations. They showed positive attitudes towards Japan, European countries, and the United States, expressing admiration of European countries and the United States in general. Nevertheless, the students indicated somewhat complex and ambivalent ideas about the United States, perhaps due to Japan's dependence on the country politically, economically, and militarily, being aware of the importance of the relationship between Japan and the United States. Their positive attitudes towards Japan were predicted

negatively by their international orientations and positively by their contact with media through sports news. Their positive attitudes towards the United States were predicted negatively by their knowledge about foreign countries and positively by their international orientations, their contact with media through sports news, and their interactions with foreigners and foreign cultures. As with Hagiwara *et al.* (2011) and Shibuya *et al.* (2011), due to non-probability sampling, the results might not be applicable to a wider population. All the students in the study were from universities located in urban areas and might not be representative of all university students in Japan. Additionally, variables such as institutional effects, study major, and year of study might have affected their perceptions. Lastly, the study lacked qualitative data. Nonetheless, the study results mostly supported the strong influence of media on Japanese university students' attitudes towards foreign countries.

Overall, the media appeared to play an important role in forming attitudes towards foreign countries of Japanese people in addition to their encounters with foreign people, including Japanese university students. In particular, more recent studies (Hagiwara, 2007; Hagiwara *et al.,* 2011; Shibuya *et al.,* 2011) showed that Japanese people's positive attitudes towards the United States were partly attributable to the influence of their contact with media, mainly through news, films, and dramas. Nevertheless, besides those study limitations mentioned above, such as non-probability sampling and a lack of qualitative data, it is important to note that the variances explained by most of the multiple regression models in those studies were relatively small ($R^2 < .10$), suggesting the existence of other influential variables, such as education, that affect Japanese people's attitudes, as emphasised in previous attitude studies (e.g. Chiba *et al.*, 1995; Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Ishikawa, 2017; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2017).

2.4.2. English language education in Japan

Since the Japanese education system is highly centralised, the Japanese government has a great influence on the way that the English language is viewed in Japanese society, especially at the elementary and secondary levels (Seargeant, 2009). This section provides an overview of English language education in Japan. It begins by describing English language education in elementary and secondary schools before proceeding to the tertiary level, the focus of my study.

2.4.2.1. *English language education in Japan at the elementary and secondary levels*

During the pre-war period, the main purpose of English language education in Japan was to catch up with and learn from the advanced civilisation of the Western world and to modernise the nation, focusing on the development of English reading and writing skills (Koike & Tanaka, 1995). After the Second World War, the American occupation restructured the education system in Japan (Erikawa, 2018). It became a 6-3-3-4 system, and the length of compulsory education is 9 years, from elementary through junior high school. High school is not compulsory, but the enrolment rate has been growing and in 2020, the rate of enrolment was 98.8 % (MEXT, 2020a). The rate in universities and junior colleges was 55.8 % (MEXT, 2020a).

Subsequently, the Course of Study was created and initiated in 1947 (Koike & Tanaka, 1995), providing guidelines for foreign language teachers, as well as for other main subject teachers in elementary, junior high, and senior high schools, relating to overall goals and appropriate curricula. English language teaching was included in the guidelines for junior and senior high school, stipulating instruction in the language for one to four hours a week (Koike & Tanaka, 1995).

In that period, Japan was not as developed economically as it is nowadays. During the 1970s, however, Japan's role in the world changed drastically. It transitioned into a leading country with one of the world's strongest economic powers. There was an increasing demand, mainly from the business sector, to cultivate human resources able to actively participate in international business communities, a necessity that was reflected in English language education policy (Erikawa, 2018). For instance, the Course of Study implemented in 1989 clearly stated that the central purpose of English language teaching was to foster students' positive attitudes towards actively participating in communication in foreign languages, mainly English (Ministry of Education, Science and Culture, 1989). In 1987, likely in an effort to achieve that objective, the government initiated the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) programme, intended to hire foreign nationals as language instructors for elementary, junior high, and senior high schools. It was thought that such a policy, one of the measures to resolve the trade dispute between Japan and the United States, could promote foreign language acquisition and increase international opportunities in Japan. From 1987 to 2018, 68,570 foreigners from 73 different countries came to Japan under the programme (JET, 2018). Of these, a majority of them were from English-speaking countries, and approximately 50% of them were from the United States. The programme has allowed for opportunities to speak with native English speakers and contributed to boosting students' motivation (Erikawa, 2018). However, it has been criticised because the foreign teachers, while fluent users of the language, appeared to lack the ability to teach the language (Wakabayashi, 2002).

Since the 1990s, Japan has experienced a period of economic stagnation and fallen behind other countries in the IT revolution, which further influenced English language education policies later on (Butler & Iino, 2004; Hashimoto, 2009). For example, in 2003, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) released the

‘Action Plan to Cultivate “Japanese with English Abilities”’ (MEXT, 2003). The plan aimed to develop students’ fundamental and practical communication skills (Tahira, 2012). In the plan, English was recognised as the primary international language; thus, it was thought essential for students to acquire communication skills in English in the 21st century (MEXT, 2003). MEXT implemented several sub-policies to support the plan, including (a) the incorporation of more communicative activities in English language classes; (b) the inclusion of a listening comprehension test in university entrance examinations (started in 2006); and (c) sponsoring 10,000 high school students to study abroad annually (MEXT, 2003). The plan details also included the promotion of Japanese language education. Despite governments efforts, however, students’ English language ability had been in decline ever since 1995, right after the implementation of the Course of Study focusing on communication (Erikawa, 2018; Saida, 2014). Therefore, the ‘Action Plan’ was later revised into what is called the ‘Five Proposals and Specific Measures for Developing Proficiency in English for International Communication’ (MEXT, 2011). In these proposals, MEXT (2011) indicated that the ‘Action Plan’ did not improve teachers’ and students’ English language proficiency. The exact details of the evaluation of the plan, however, were not shared, a point raised by Erikawa (2018).

In 2011, the revised Course of Study guidelines were implemented in stages. They included making foreign language (mainly English) communication activities mandatory for fifth and sixth-grade students, though the emphasis was also placed on the importance of a balance in the teaching of the four language skills. The guidelines also included conducting English language classes in English for senior high-school students and moving towards communicative approaches as much as possible (MEXT, 2011). Additionally, aspects of traditional Japanese culture were included in the guidelines, together with ‘moral’ values, such as patriotism. However, as Tahira (2012) reported,

'There remains a big gap between the stated policies and what is actually done in the classroom' (p. 3), as also pointed out in MEXT (2015). For example, only half of senior high-school English language classes were conducted in English, even though the policy promoted the use of English (MEXT, 2015). More recently, MEXT (2014) announced the 'English Education Reform Plan Corresponding to Globalisation', a plan that was to be fully implemented in 2020, the year of the Tokyo Olympics. In that plan, English became a compulsory subject in the fifth and sixth grades in elementary schools. The plan also promoted the preservation of Japanese identity by incorporating topics on Japanese traditional culture and history in language classrooms. The Course of Study guidelines (MEXT, 2017, 2018c) have also been revised and implemented from 2020, focusing on the promotion of active learning in hopes of encouraging students to actively engage in communication in English (McMurray, 2018).

It is now clear that the government has made efforts to improve the status of English language education. However, it has been argued that teachers and students were unable to cope with the policies introduced (Erikawa, 2018). Several impediments to achieving the government's plans have been identified (Butler & Iino, 2004; Erikawa, 2018; LoCastro, 1996; Seargeant, 2009). First, especially since the 1990s, the goal of English language education, as influenced by the business sector, appears to be the ability to use English as a tool for work in a global context; however, this does not reflect reality, since most students are less likely to use English for work than for other purposes (Erikawa, 2018). Second, teachers' and students' views were largely ignored in the policymaking process (Erikawa, 2018; LoCastro, 1996; Seargeant, 2009). This is especially important because the problem of the lack of teachers' and students' abilities to follow the policies has been raised repeatedly (Erikawa, 2018). Third, emphasis on promoting communicative approaches is not compatible with the current university entrance

examination system, which focuses on grammatical knowledge and reading comprehension skills (Butler & Iino, 2004; Erikawa, 2018; LoCastro, 1996; Seargeant, 2009). There has been a change with standardised test scores, such as TOEIC (https://www.ets.org/toeic) and TOFEL (https://www.ets.org/toefl), being accepted instead of the traditional university entrance examinations by the beginning of the 21st century (MEXT, 2003). Nevertheless, this move could be worse, since those tests do not reflect what students learn at school and largely involve testing of grammatical knowledge (Butler & Iino, 2004). Lastly, notions such as ‘communication’, ‘English as a common international language’, ‘native speaker’, and ‘communicative teaching approaches’, while used heavily, were not defined explicitly, causing further confusion among practitioners and researchers (Erikawa, 2018).

2.4.2.2. *English language education at a tertiary level*

Most universities have an English language section as part of their entrance examinations; thus, all the students study English to pass the exams. English has been emphasised in most university curricula, and almost all students have to study the language as a compulsory subject during their first two years (Hosoki, 2011).

In the 1980s and 1990s, the Japanese government also sought to internationalise the higher education sector by partly privatising national universities and attracting more foreign students. The government set a target of 100,000 foreign students in 2008, a figure that increased to 300,000 in 2020. In 2020, 298,980 international students were studying in Japan (JASSO, 2020), of whom 84,857 students were registered in undergraduate programmes.

In 2009, a government-funded project, 'Global 30', was introduced with the aim of increasing the number of foreign students in Japanese higher education institutions. Thirteen universities were selected to accept competent international students, which subsequently led to the establishment of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) programmes. The project, while successful in some respects, has been criticised on the grounds that those EMI courses were somewhat isolated from the other courses delivered in Japanese (Rose & McKinley, 2018). This has been argued to reflect the government's view of the world (the Japanese and the Other) as well as its view of Japan as a monolingual state (Burgess, Gibson, Klaphake, & Selzer, 2010; Hashimoto 2013).

In addition to the Global 30 project, a series of funding projects have been implemented. For example, more recently, the government has provided financial support to 37 universities through the Top Global University Project, announced in 2014 (MEXT, 2014), which was intended to increase the number of not only foreign students but also domestic students enrolled in classes and degree programmes delivered in English (Rose & McKinley, 2018).

With regard to Japan's educational reforms at all education levels, including those of foreign language education, several discourses were present. One of these is the discourse of *kokusaika* (internationalisation). This discourse was a response to foreign pressures criticising the country's economic self-centredness and cultural narrow-mindedness (Burgess *et al.,* 2010). This discourse, while continuing to reinforce Japan's distinct cultural heritage, accepts Japan as a partner of the West (Kubota, 1998; Yoshino, 1992). Since the decrease in national confidence in the 1990s, a discourse of *globaruka* (globalisation) instead of *kokusaika* has been popular. *Globaruka* particularly focuses on a few aspects of globalisation, such as growing interconnectedness and its status as

something unprecedented in its intensity that is beyond Japan's control (Burgess *et al.*, 2010). Additionally, according to Iwabuchi (2005), 'Japanese discourses of globalisation have most notably revolved around the necessity for Japan to readjust itself to the new US-led global economic order' (p. 105). Thus, the role of English, especially American English among foreign languages, has been increased in Japan's foreign language education. The instrumentality of English language learning instead of personal growth was also emphasised (Erikawa, 2018). At the same time, the discourse on *nihonjinron* (uniqueness of the Japanese), which attempts to define and preserve a distinct Japanese culture and linguistic identity vis-à-vis Western culture and language, particularly English (Gottlieb, 2005; Kawai, 2007; Kubota, 1998), was present, as repeatedly emphasised in the revised guidelines and plans. This discourse perceives Western culture and English as a threat to Japanese identity. As shown in these discourses, it seems that teaching and learning English in Japan will continue to favour the Inner Circle varieties, especially American English, to support Westernisation in some parts of distinct Japanese life and fail to draw on global sociolinguistic perspectives (Kubota, 1998).

To sum up, this dynamic context of the traditional and global coming head-to-head in addition to the strong American influence on Japanese people's perceptions in society as observed through linguistic landscapes, media, and education, makes Japan an ideal country within which to conduct an attitudinal study. Thus, the present study identifies current Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language, reflecting community thoughts, beliefs, preferences, and desires concerning English varieties and speakers of these varieties. This also may give insight into how the attitudes are associated with society and offer a more nuanced approach to the implementation of Japanese education policies and practices, which currently appear to be

unsuccessful, especially in relation to improving Japanese learners' English language proficiency (MEXT, 2015).

2.5. Summary and the aims and rationale of the study

Overall, the review of previous research shows that current English language learners appear to express attitudes towards variation in English that are relatively incompatible with the current sociolinguistic reality of how English is used globally. This is despite the fact that their imagined English-speaking communities may be based on non-native speakers who use English as a global language. A majority of quantitative studies measured attitudes in a narrow way or failed to capture attitudes in detail. Although studies that used both quantitative and qualitative methods were able to identify dynamic attitudes, a more rigorous investigation, especially a quantitative one involving the development of a more credible research instrument and the use of advanced statistical analysis taking confounding variables into account, is now required.

In order to untangle complex attitudes and attitude formation and further promote a GE-informed pedagogy, attitudes need to be explored first with reference to the GELT framework since the framework was created for GE-informed curriculum innovations in ELT. Second, a detailed investigation of the impact of exposure to varieties of English, which was previously highlighted by some studies that employed both quantitative and qualitative methods (Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Wang, 2013, 2015b; Wang & Jenkins, 2016), should be conducted. Additionally, English language proficiency was examined as a potential variable affecting attitudes because previous studies repeatedly indicated that proficiency might have affected attitudes (Dragojevic, 2017; Jenkins, 2007; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b; Ren *et al.*, 2016; Yook & Lindemann, 2013), and a higher language proficiency has been linked to more favourable attitudes towards English (Baker, 1992).

The present study was conducted in Japan, where opportunities to use English are relatively limited, and a strong American influence in society through media and English language education is clearly identified. Due to the recent government efforts towards internationalisation and globalisation in Japan, especially in tertiary institutions, some changes might be seen in Japanese English language learners' attitudes since previous studies, such as Matsuda (2003) and Galloway (2013), were conducted.

A novel questionnaire based on the GELT framework was constructed in a rigorous manner with a series of pilot studies to evaluate the reliability and validity of the instrument. The questionnaire aimed to measure dynamic attitudes towards the variation in English that reflects the current sociolinguistic reality and how they are formed, taking into account various variables affecting attitudes. This is another attempt to go beyond traditional norms confined to geographic boundaries and move towards GE norms embracing diverse varieties of English, which has been an underpinning ideology of all relevant fields, pushing for a paradigm shift in ELT (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Pennycook, 2010; Rose & Galloway, 2019). The questionnaire was distributed to a wide range of Japanese university students learning English and analysed using advanced statistical techniques, which allowed us to capture all the variables related to attitudes and factors influencing attitudes in one statistical model. Focus group interviews were conducted to explore the learners' attitudes and the process of attitude formation in depth. In the next chapter, based on this literature review, the research questions for my study are addressed, and the overall research design, target population and sample, and the questionnaire development and data collection and analysis used in my study are explained.

3. METHODOLOGY

This chapter addresses the research questions based on the literature review and outlines the study design, the target population, and the sample in detail. The methods of quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis are also described separately. In addition, the chapter includes a discussion on the questionnaire development and the results of several pilot studies that evaluated the questionnaire for validity and reliability. Lastly, methodological limitations are discussed.

3.1. Research Questions

In light of the literature review, the present study aims to answer the overarching question of 'What are Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language?' based on multiple aspects of the GELT framework (Galloway & Rose, 2015, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2019). Thus, as mentioned in Section 2.1.3, learners' attitudes towards English as a global language in my study are hypothesised as lying on a continuum between traditional norms and GE norms, which have multiple factors. The question is divided into the following specific questions under the categories of attitudes towards English as a global language and variables that are associated with attitudes:

RQ1. What are the factors that underpin Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language?

a. What factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes are related to the traditional and global orientations based on the GELT framework?

RQ2. What is the relationship, if any, between the factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language and their English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English?

3.2. Study design

This study employed a cross-sectional, mixed-methods design that included quantitative methods, followed by qualitative methods. The use of both quantitative and qualitative methods in the design allowed for method triangulation (Denzin, 1978) and checking the consistency of the findings across methods. The design included three stages: (I) questionnaire development, (II) quantitative (questionnaire) data collection and analysis, and (III) focus group question development and qualitative (focus group) data collection and analysis. These stages are explained in more detail below.

(I) Questionnaire development

The questionnaire, aiming to provide a general understanding of Japanese university students' attitudes towards English as a global language, was self-developed through multiple steps.

(II) Quantitative (questionnaire) data collection and analysis

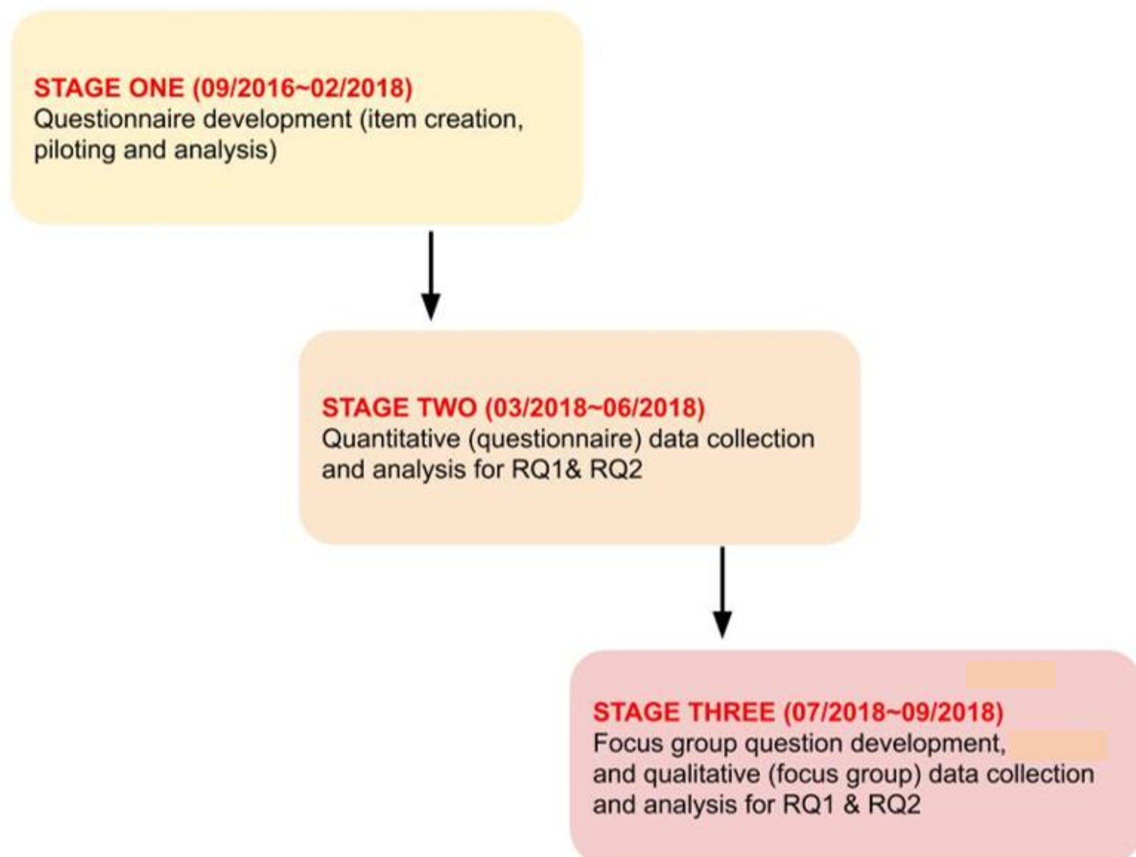
The questionnaire was distributed to a large sample and analysed. It also explored the relationship between their attitudes and English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English, along with affording the opportunity to explore further variables via data collected in a background questionnaire.

(III) Focus group question development and qualitative (focus group) data collection and analysis

The qualitative data aimed to confirm the questionnaire results and further explore the participants' views (Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998). The qualitative data collection was carried out and analysed after the quantitative data collection and analysis. The focus groups questions were developed based on Galloway's (2011) study.

Figure 2 provides an overview of the three-stage research design and timeline.

Figure 2
An overview of the three-stage research design



3.3. Population

The population is Japanese university students enrolled in full-time and four-year programmes, most likely over the age of 18, and speaking Japanese as their first language (MEXT, 2018a). They have been exposed to English in a Japanese context that includes formal English language instruction at schools in Japan as addressed in the Course of Study (MEXT, 2008a, 2008b, 2009, 2017, 2018c; see also Section 2.4.2). In Japan, most universities offer a four-year programme (full-time) and are divided into the following three types by their founding basis: (a) national universities, which were originally established by the Japanese government; (b) public universities, established by local public entities; or (c) private universities, established by educational corporations (MEXT, 2011). There is not much difference between national and public universities except that public universities attract local students by offering tuition discounts. Tuition fees for private universities tend to be higher than those for the other types of universities, and private universities offer flexible programmes that are more relevant to the needs of students. There are more private universities than other types of universities, and they are located equally in urban and rural areas, unlike the other types of universities, which are located more commonly in rural areas. Every study major is included, with both female and male students, although the ratio is different depending on the major. Regarding study year, almost equal numbers of students are enrolled each year across study majors. Overall, the available information for current students enrolled in Japanese universities are university type, university location, gender, study major, and year of study, as summarised in Figures 3–6 below (MEXT, 2018a).

Furthermore, regarding university characteristics, whether the university has been selected for the Top Global University Project may impact university students' attitudes

towards English, since these selected universities put greater effort into increasing opportunities to use English as a global language than do other universities (see Section 2.4.2); thus, this factor has been taken into consideration. Overseas experience has also been considered since it has been identified as one of the variables potentially affecting learners' attitudes (see Section 2.3.5). In 2020, approximately 5% of the target population had studied abroad (MEXT, 2020b). In 2019, MEXT published a report on the assessment of the quality of programmes offered by 776 universities in Japan. According to the report (MEXT, 2019), approximately 600 universities (80 %) have enhanced the quality of English language teaching in class; 309 universities (42 %) used English as a medium of instruction for some of their classes; and only 38 universities (5 %) used English as a medium of instruction for their entire programmes.

Figure 3

Student enrolment by university type and study major

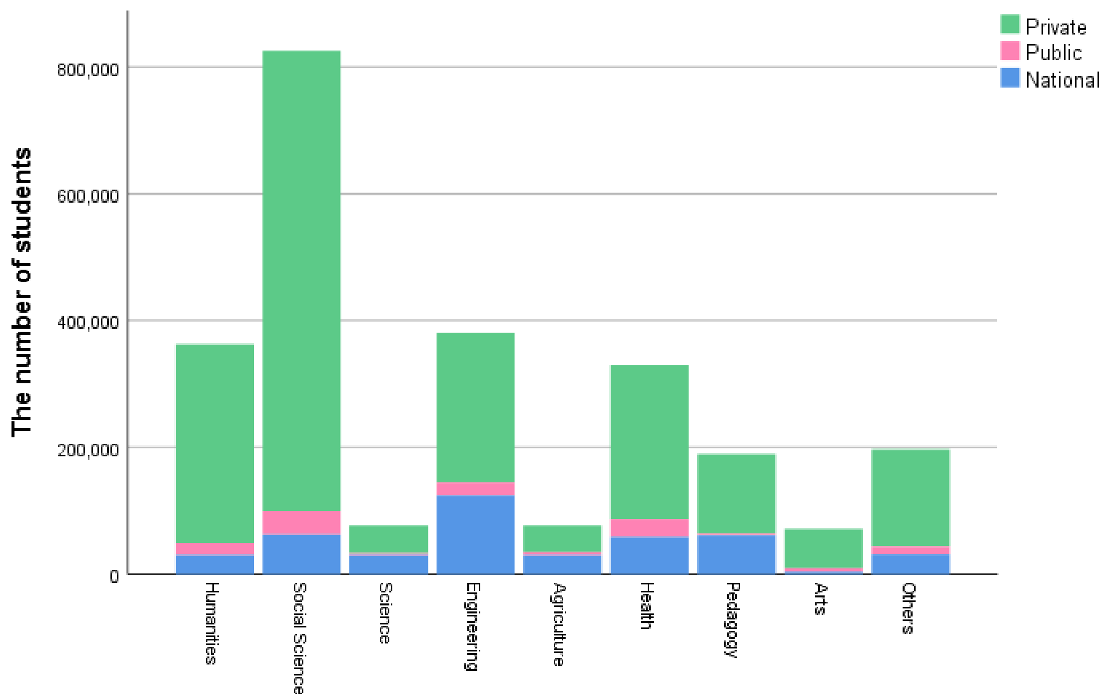


Figure 4
Student enrolment by university location and type

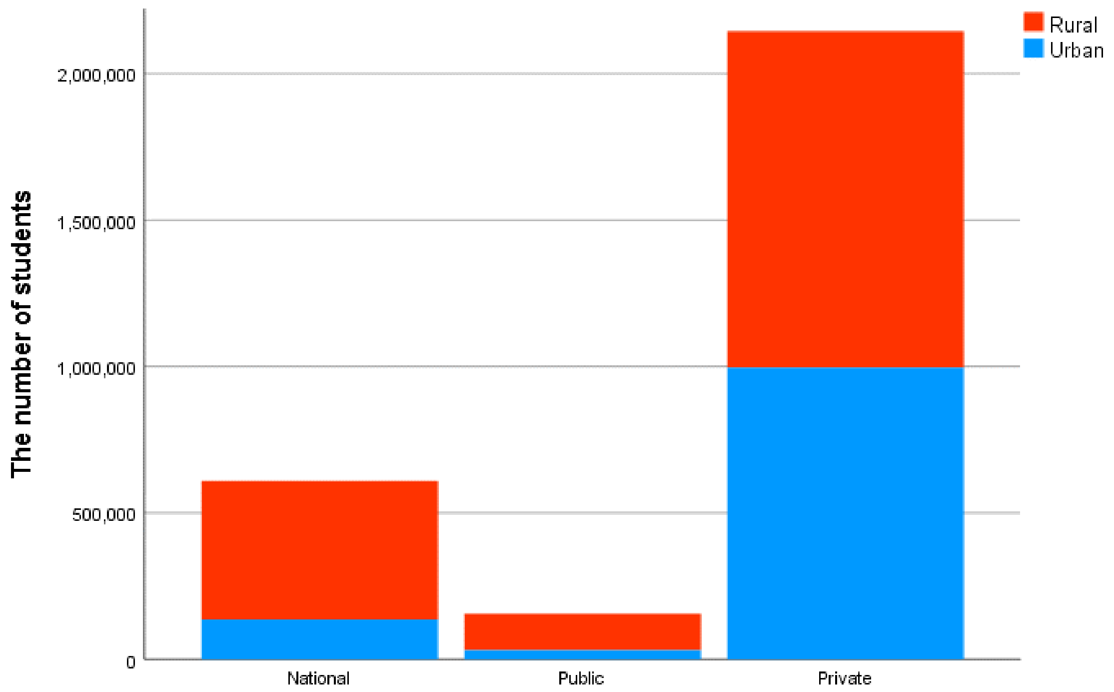


Figure 5
Student enrolment by gender and study major

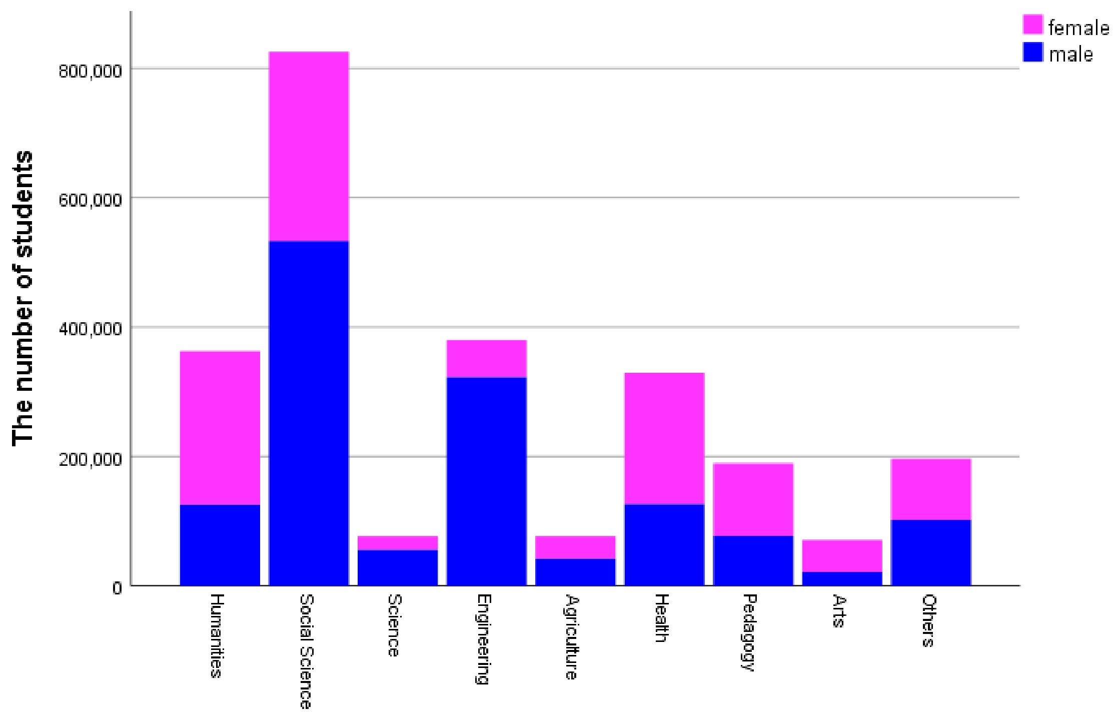
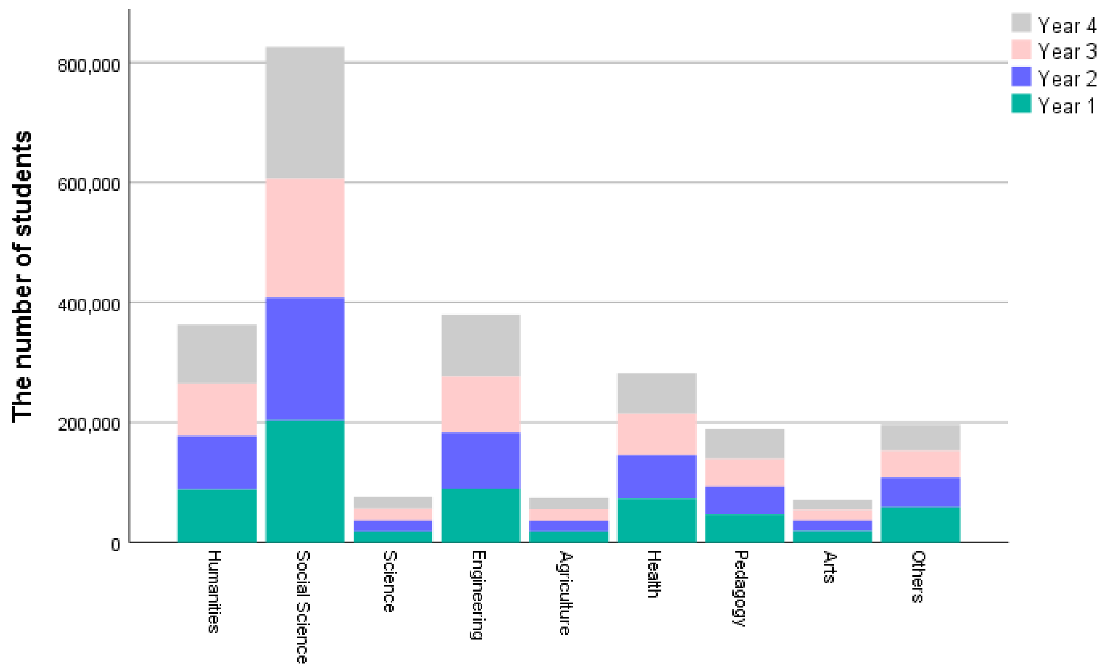


Figure 6
Student enrolment by year of study and study major



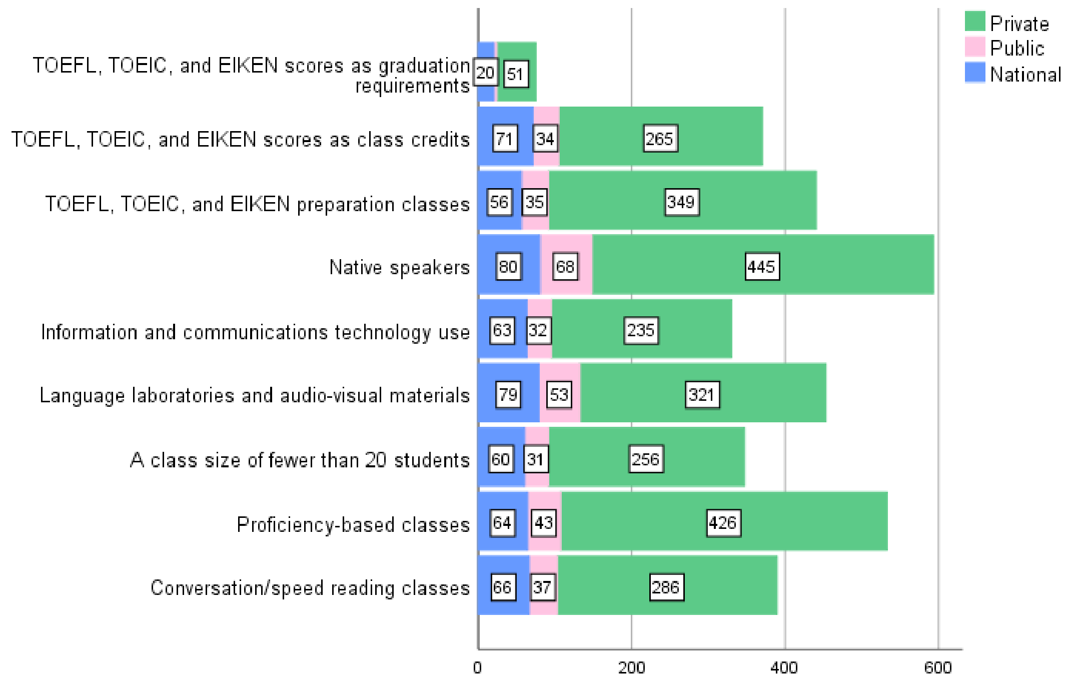
3.4. Sample

This study initially planned to conduct maximum variation sampling, in which the researcher used discretion in selecting which people to include, in order to obtain a broad spectrum of student profiles by reaching out to a large number of universities that offer full-time, four-year programmes. The researcher hoped to look at a participant from all possible angles based on the available information, such as university type, university location, gender, study major, year of study, university characteristics, and overseas experience, thereby achieving a greater understanding. This would also help the researcher determine the influence of two predictor variables (i.e. English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English) on their attitudes towards English as a global language by controlling for these variables (university type, university location, gender, study major, year of study, university characteristics, and overseas experience). Nonetheless, it was later found out that universities' regulations made it extremely

difficult to get permission to distribute the questionnaire unless the researcher had personal connections with professors or heads of departments at their universities. Thus, the researcher reached out to and obtained a response from professors or heads of departments in 37 universities with different characteristics across Japan with whom the researcher had built personal connections over a few years and who were willing to participate in the study (see Appendix A for characteristics of the participating universities). After the initial response, the researcher exchanged emails with them and confirmed that their current students displayed diverse student characteristics, and their university programmes were not considerably different from the characteristics described in MEXT (2019; see Figure 7) except for three universities. The students from those three universities (Universities 33, 34, and 35) were not included in this study because a majority of them did not match the characteristics of the target population (i.e. international students who do not speak any Japanese and have never formally received English language instruction at schools in Japan). These universities employed English as a medium of instruction for their entire programmes. The researcher also asked to visit all 37 universities and was allowed to visit 12 (Universities 7, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 18, 19, 20, 32, and 36) and some of their English language classes. These classes matched most of the characteristics described in Figure 7.

Figure 7

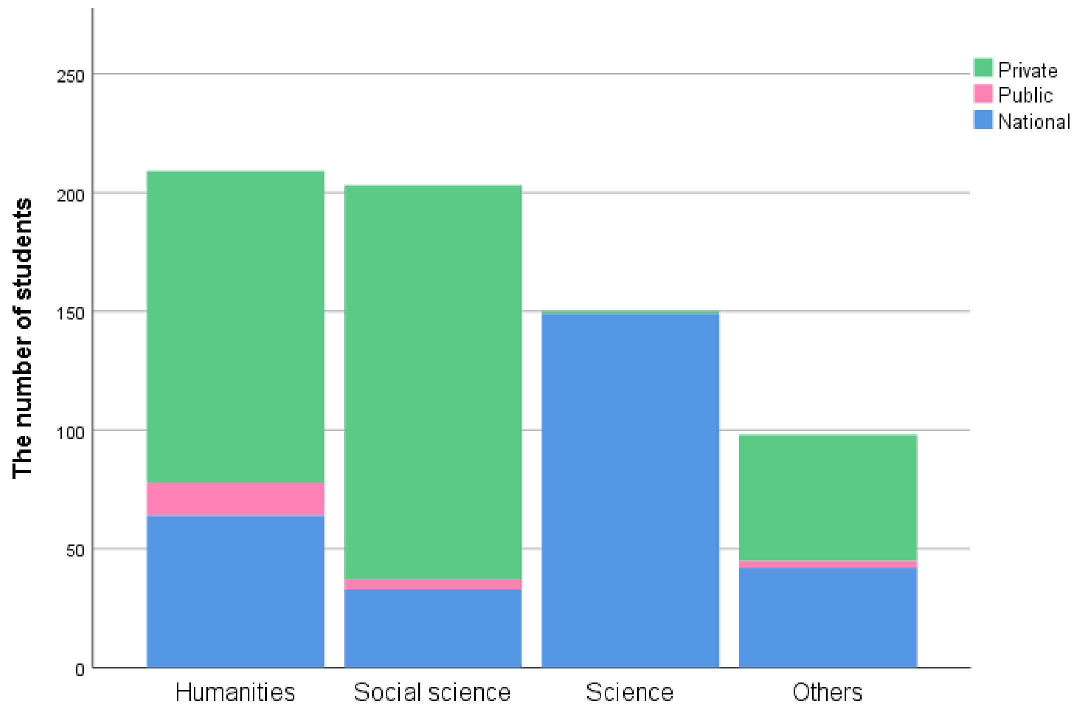
The characteristics of current Japanese university English language classes (MEXT, 2019)



Although the researcher initially tried to track down all the students who had received invitations to participate in the study, it was impossible because questionnaire distribution was handled entirely by the professors or heads of departments according to their university regulations. Therefore, it was not possible to compare those who accepted the invitations with those who declined. Nonetheless, based on informal reports from the professors who distributed the questionnaires, it was speculated that the higher response rate was more likely to be attributed to how the questionnaire was circulated than to other factors, such as the characteristics of their universities. If the teachers distributed the questionnaire in their classes and gave their students time to fill it out, the response rate tended to be high. If the questionnaire was distributed in other ways, such as emails, the response rate tended to be low. In total, 660 full-time students learning the language in Japan (all speaking Japanese as their first language, 331 female, 313 male, and 16 who did not respond with an average age of 19.1 years) from 24 universities completed the questionnaire. Private university students comprised 53.2 % of the sample, 43.6 % of the

students were from national universities, and 3.2 % of the students were from public universities, showing a higher proportion of students from national universities than in the general population. Of the students, 41.2 % were studying in urban areas, such as Tokyo, Osaka, and Kyoto, and a majority of them were from private universities, while 58.8 % were studying in rural areas, and a majority of them were from national universities. Compared to the population, there were fewer students from private universities located in rural areas. Humanities majors made up 31.7% of the sample, 30.8% of the students were social science majors, 22.7% of the students were science and engineering majors, and 14.8 % of the students were from other majors, with proportionately fewer social science majors than in the general university population. Regarding gender, all the majors included both female and male, and the ratio was roughly similar to that of the general university population. A majority of the students were either in their first year (51.2 %) or in their second year (34.4 %), with many missing third-year and fourth-year students. Of the students, 46.2 % were from the universities selected for the Top Global University Project. Of the students, 21.7 % had studied abroad, 6.2 % had resided abroad, and 65.1 % had been abroad previously. They all had had formal English language education at elementary and/or junior high and senior high schools in Japan, with an average English language learning experience of 8.52 years. Among the students, 45.2% thought that their English language learning had been most affected by English language classes in elementary, junior high, and senior high schools. Another 14.2 % thought that English language classes at universities most affected their English language learning, and 13.9% thought English language classes at cram schools had affected their learning the most. The sample information (university type, university location, gender, study major, and year of study) are summarised in Figures 8–11 on the next page (followed by the population information for comparison).

Figure 8
The main study questionnaire participants by university type and study major



(cf. Figure 3
***Student enrolment by university type and study major*)**

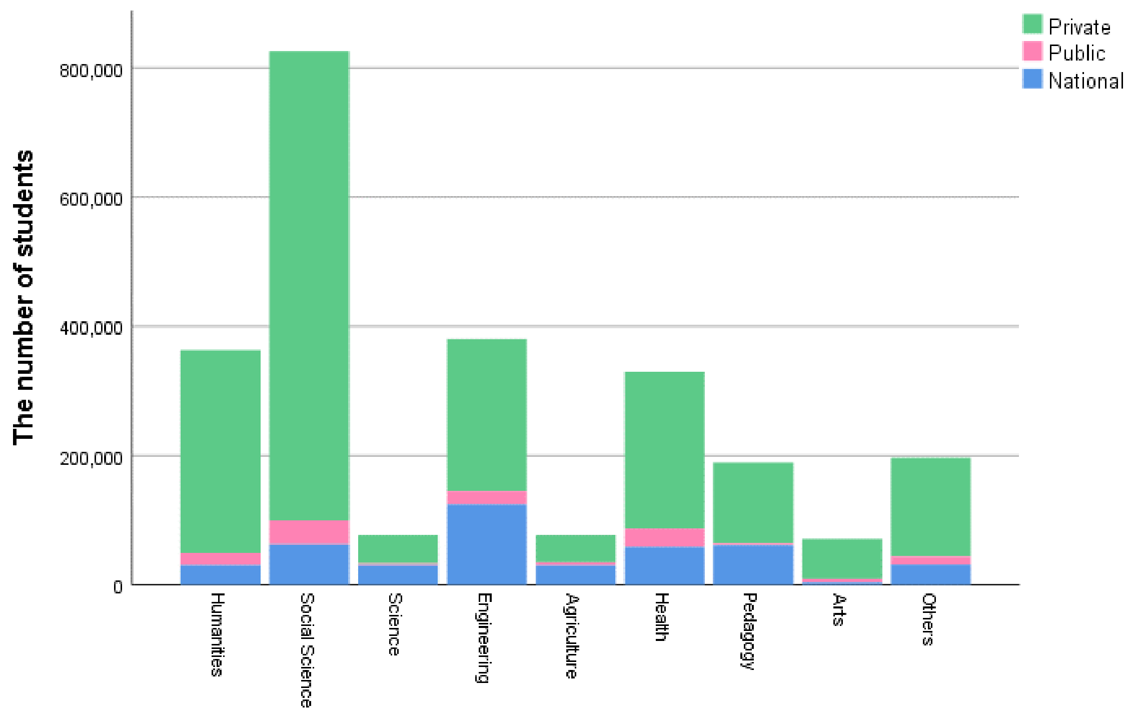
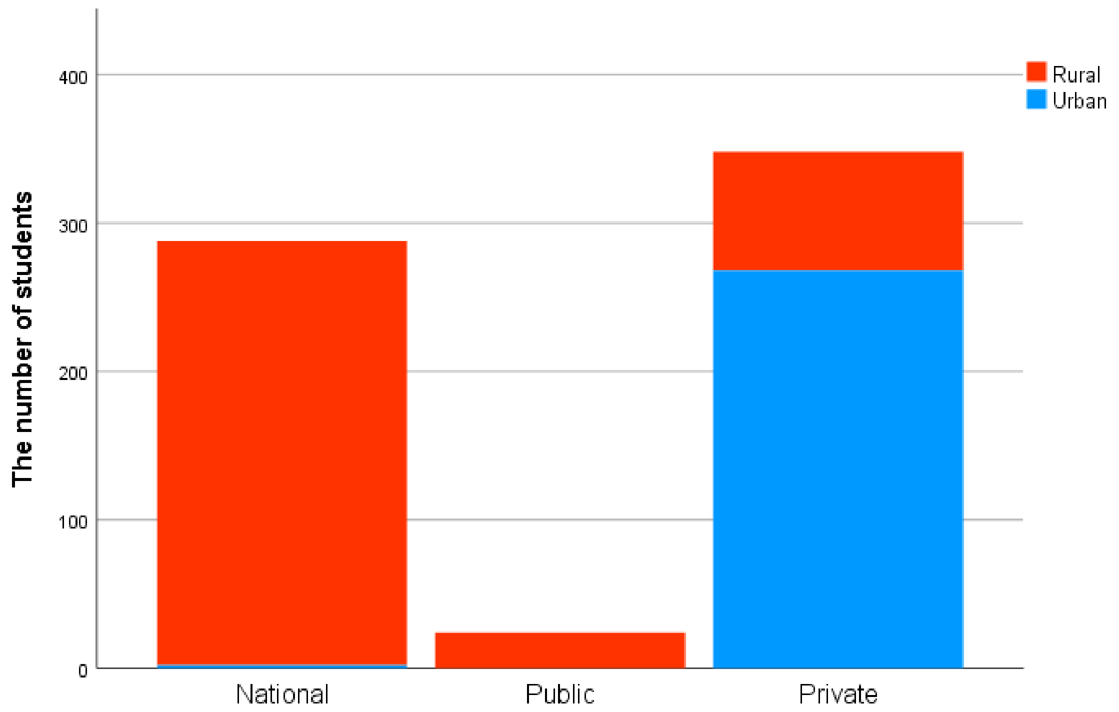


Figure 9
The main study questionnaire participants by university location and university type



(cf. Figure 4
***Student enrolment by university location and university type*)**

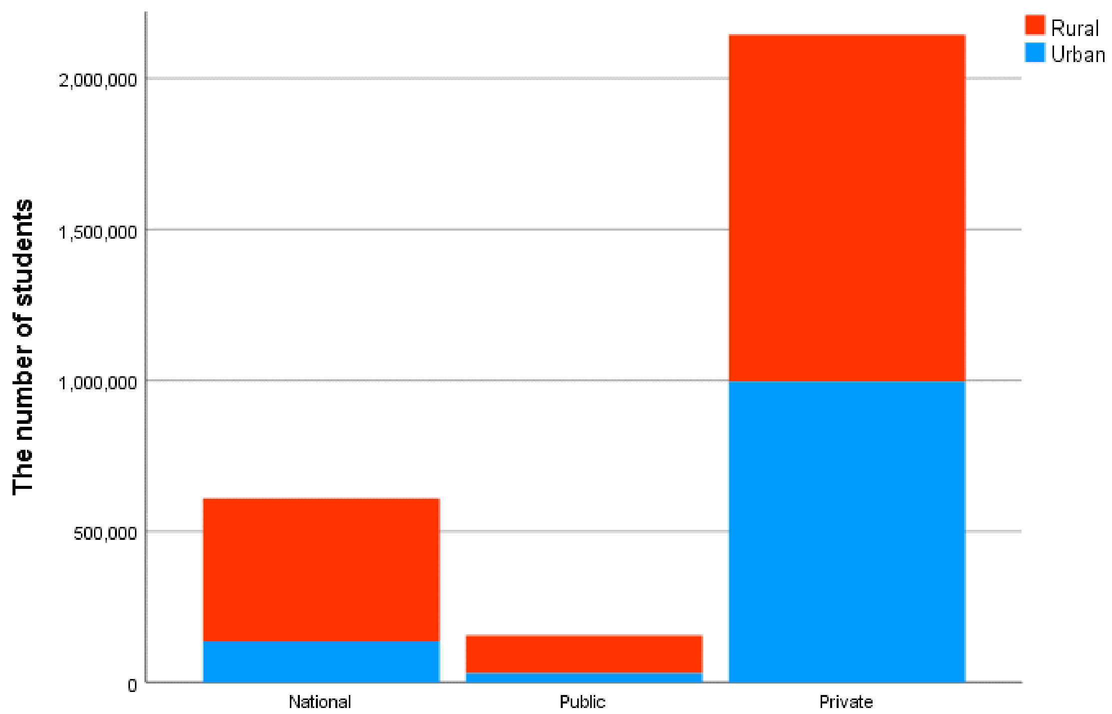
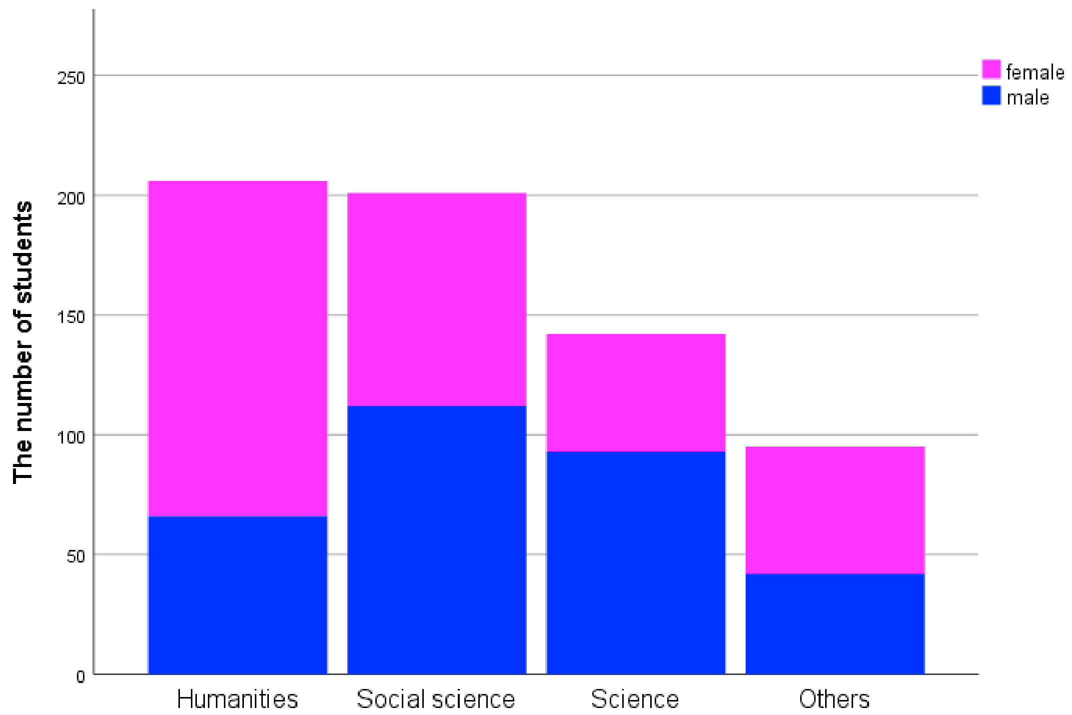


Figure 10
The main study questionnaire participants by gender and study major



(cf. Figure 5
***Student enrolment by gender and study major*)**

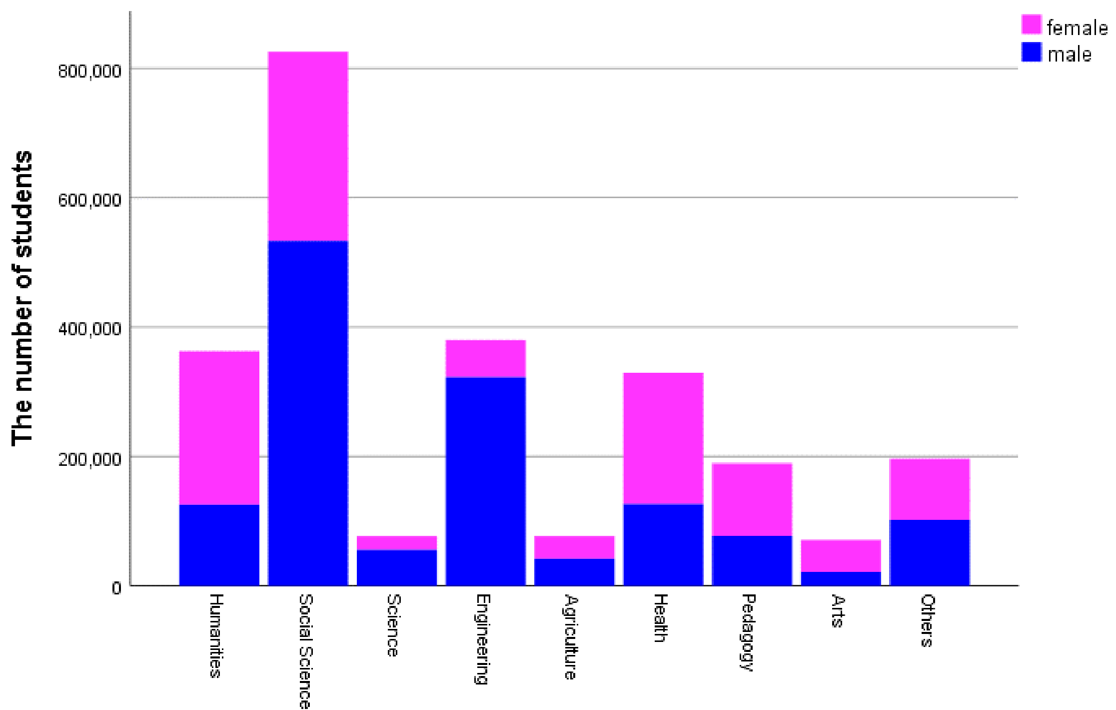
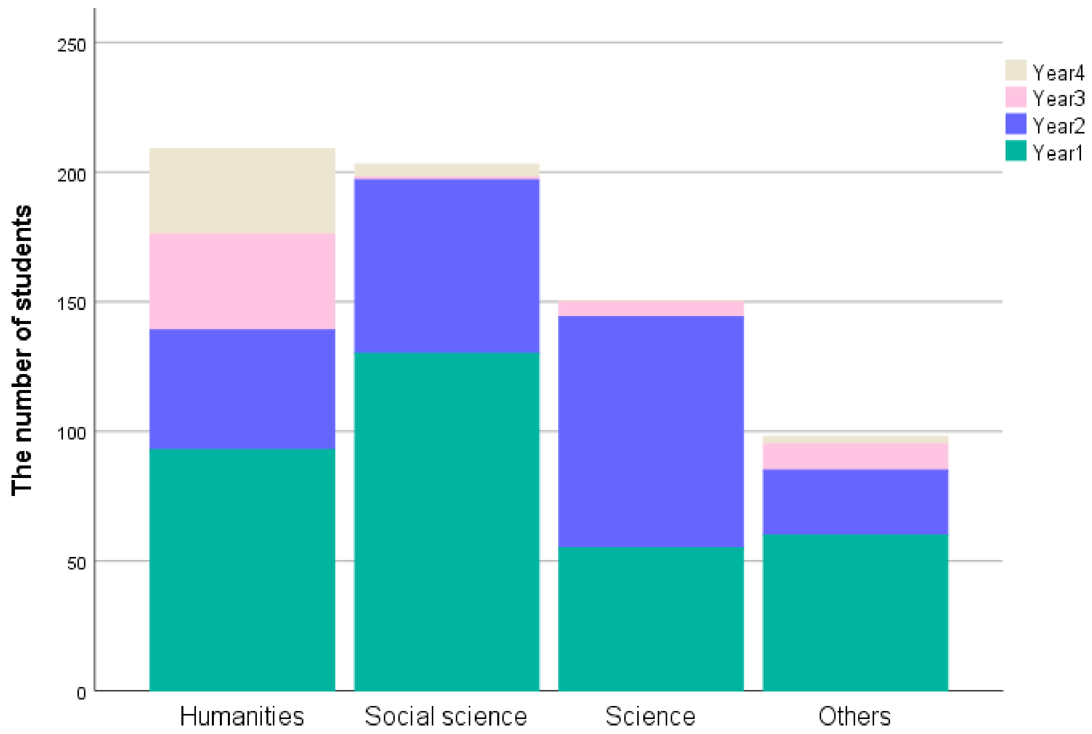
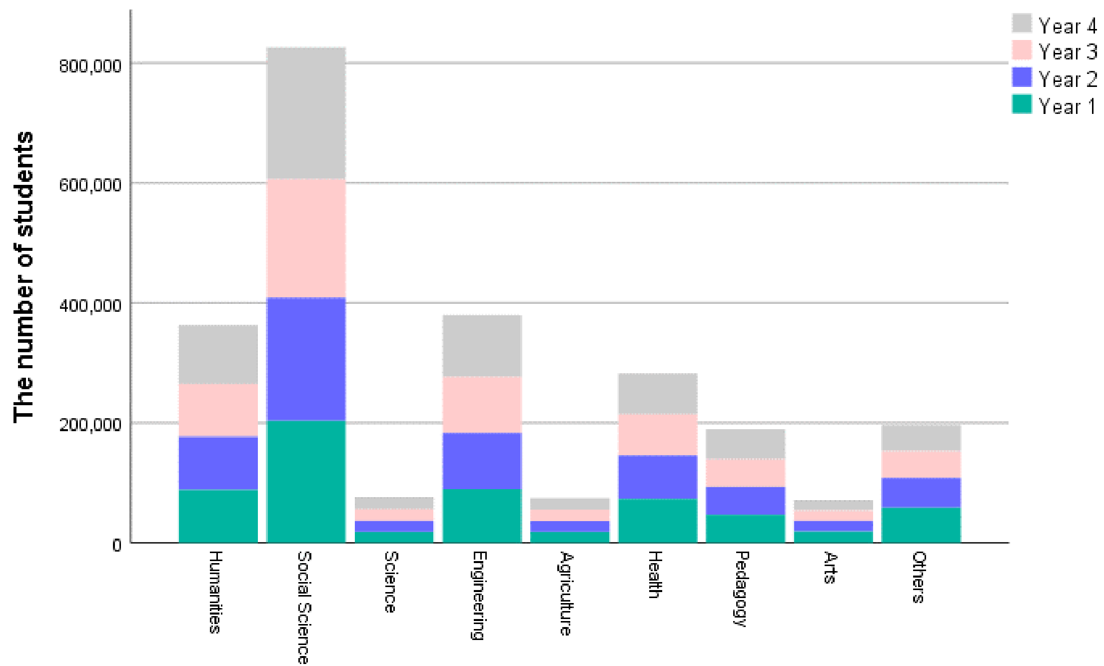


Figure 11
The main study questionnaire participants by study major and year of study



(cf. Figure 6
***Student enrolment by year of study and study major*)**



For the focus groups, 56 questionnaire respondents who initially agreed to take part in the focus groups were invited, and 30 participants accepted the invitation. The participants were between 18 and 21 years of age (average age, 19.13 years). All participants were Japanese. Among them were 14 male students (46.7%) and 16 female students (53.3%) from national (16 students), public (3 students), and private (11 students) universities. Among them, 9 students were studying in urban areas, 21 in rural areas. Eleven students (36.7%) were humanities majors, 11 students (36.7%) were social science majors, 4 students (13.3%) were health majors, 2 students (6.7 %) were engineering majors, and 2 students (6.7 %) were pedagogy majors. A majority of the students were either in their first year (N = 14, 46.7 %) or in their second year (N = 10, 33.3 %). Nine participants were from the universities selected for the Top Global University Project. One participant had lived in Australia for a year with her family when she was young, and she had grown up speaking Japanese and English. The remaining 29 participants spoke Japanese as their only first language. Among them, 17 students (56.7%) previously had studied abroad, and 5 students (16.7%) had never been overseas. All participants had had formal English language education at elementary and/or junior high and senior high schools in Japan, learning English for at least six years (M = 8.77).

The questionnaire respondents (N = 26) who were invited to the focus groups but did not respond to the invitation were between 18 and 21 years old (average age of 19.04 years). All participants were Japanese. Among them were 8 male students (30.7%) and 18 female students (69.2%) from national (17 students), public (3 students), and private (6 students) universities. Among them, 6 were studying in urban areas, 20 in rural areas. Eight students (30.8%) were humanities majors, 7 students (26.9%) were social science majors, 4 students (15.4%) were science majors, 3 students (11.5%) were health majors, 3 students (11.5%) were engineering majors, and 1 student (3.8%) was an art major. A

majority of the students were either in their first year (*N* = 15, 57.7%) or in their second year (*N* = 7, 26.9%). Ten participants were from the universities selected for the Top Global University Project. Two participants had lived overseas (the United States and Peru) for more than a year with their family when they were young, and they might have grown up speaking other languages in addition to Japanese. The rest of the respondents spoke Japanese as their only first language. Among them, 13 students (50%) previously had studied abroad, and 5 students (19.2%) had never been overseas. All participants had formal English language education at elementary and/or junior high and senior high schools in Japan, learning English for at least six years (*M* = 8.89). Overall, there appeared to be no particular difference between those who responded to the invitation and those who did not.

Based on the results of the GEO-Q, the participants who showed similar attitudes towards English as a global language were grouped together. Thus, the participants in each focus group were roughly homogeneous in terms of attitudes since homogeneous groups tend to be more willing to share their feelings (Galloway, 2019; Krueger & Casey, 2014). The participants were heterogeneous regarding other characteristics since the researcher hoped to find out whether any other characteristics affected their attitudes. By using such focus groups, the researcher hoped to achieve adequate breadth and depth of information about the participants' attitudes extracted by the GEO-Q.

The participants were grouped into nine focus groups. The results of the GEO-Q (the five factors of attitudes extracted during exploratory factor analysis) and university type, university location, gender, study major, year of study, university characteristics, and overseas experience were taken into account to create focus groups that were homogenous in attitude but diverse in other aspects. In other words, participants who had

responded similarly to the questionnaire items and loaded heavily on each factor were grouped together, as shown in the Figures in Appendix B. *Group A* had relatively positive attitudes towards Factors 1, 2, and 3, which included globally oriented items, and had relatively less positive attitudes towards Factors 4 and 5, which included traditionally oriented items. In contrast, *Group I* had relatively negative attitudes towards Factors 1, 2, and 3 and had relatively positive attitudes towards Factors 4 and 5. Also, each group included participants with different university type and location, gender, study major, year of study, university characteristics, and overseas experience as much as possible. The detailed information of each focus group and its participants are described in Appendix C.

3.5. Questionnaire development and quantitative data collection and analysis

This section describes the questionnaire development and quantitative data collection and analysis methods of this study. In response to the need for the development of a quantitative measurement reflecting sociolinguistic reality, the Global Englishes Orientation Questionnaire (GEO-Q) was developed to explore English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language in the 21st century. The questionnaire consists of two parts: factual questions, such as demographic and background information, and an attitude measure (see Appendix D for the GEO-Q). The attitude measure especially requires a movement away from the narrowly focused nature of indirect and direct approaches used in the previous research and failed to fully cover both attitudes towards existing norms and GE norms. Thus, in the pilot studies, exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and reliability analysis were conducted to ensure the validity and reliability of the attitude scales, which comprised multiple attitudinal questionnaire items. Moreover, in order to enhance the validity of the GEO-Q, it is important to provide a

meticulous description of the processes involved, which is presented in the following sections. The quantitative data collection procedure and data analysis for the main study are also presented.

3.5.1. Factual questions

For the factual part of the questionnaire, respondents' demographic information was necessary to confirm that the participants met the criteria and to explore potential confounding variables. It included the respondents' nationality, first/native language, age, gender, study major, year of study, university name (for university type, location, and characteristics), overseas experiences, and the lengths of their English language learning. The participants' English language learning experiences in Japan and foreign countries, instances staying longer than one month in foreign countries, and other overseas experiences were included to confirm whether they were exposed to English mainly in a Japanese context. For a similar reason, respondents were also asked to identify the English language learning experiences that had influenced their skills the most (e.g. English language classes at elementary schools, junior high schools, senior high schools, or universities).

Respondents were also asked to provide details of their exposure to varieties of English during their lives and their English language proficiency, which are explained in more detail below. These are the predictor variables in answering Research Question 2.

3.5.1.1. *Exposure to varieties of English measure*

The amount of respondents' exposure to different varieties of English was measured via their current and past contact with different varieties (e.g. 'I often have/had conversations in English with native English speakers in classes'). The items were based on a language

contact profile developed by Freed, Dewey, Segalowitz, and Halter (2004) for use with English language learners of Spanish. Briggs's (2015a, 2015b) studies adopted the instrument to capture study-abroad learners' second language (English) contact. Briggs's (2015a, 2015b) language contact profile used a five-point 'how true of me' rating scale that ranged from *This is very true of me* to *This is not at all true of me* to obtain data that could be considered cumulative (Dörnyei, 2003). Briggs's (2015a, 2015b) language contact profile showed a good reliability coefficient (α = .85) in her studies. Based on these studies, exposure to different varieties of English items was created. The researcher consulted with a creator of the language contact profile (Dr Jessica Briggs Baffoe-Djan) and PhD students in applied linguistics about the items in order to enhance validity. Reliability analysis was conducted in the pilot and main studies. The measure initially included 10 five-point 'how true of me' rating items.

3.5.1.2. *Proficiency measure*

Proficiency measures included items related to the study participants' English language proficiency by asking for standardised test scores, such as Jitsuyo Eigo Gino Kentei/the Test in Practical English Proficiency (EIKEN, https://www.eiken.or.jp/eiken/en/), the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC, https://www.ets.org/toeic), the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOFEL, https://www.ets.org/toefl), and the International English Language Testing System (IELTS, https://www.ielts.org/). In the main study data analysis, TOEIC, directly measuring the ability of English language learners in the global workplace, was used as a proficiency measure. The test has two sections, listening and reading, each consisting of 100 multiple-choice items. For each section, the raw scores range from 0 to 100, and the scale scores range from 5 to 495 by increments of 5. There were two reasons for choosing TOEIC scores as a proficiency

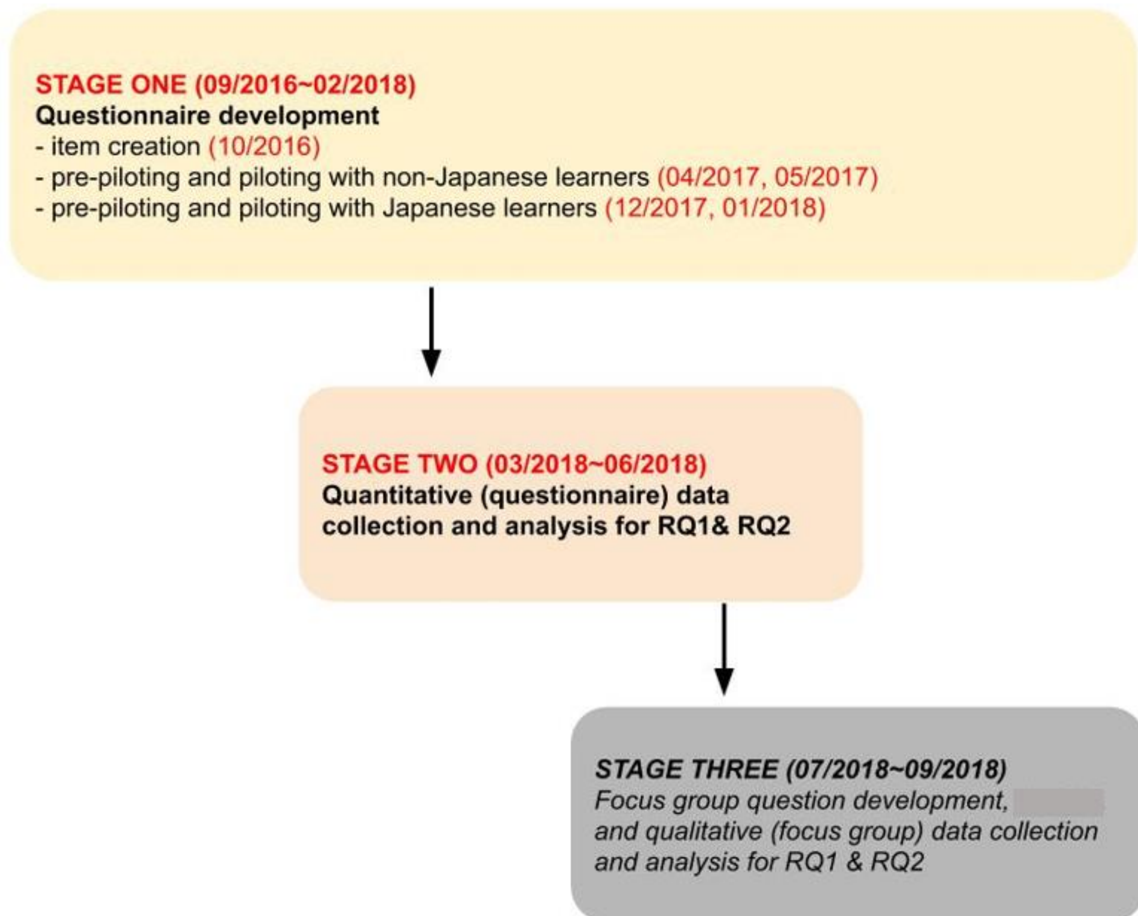
measure. First, only a few students (about 5%) reported other test scores, such as TOFEL and IELTS scores, in the pilot and main studies. Second, regarding EIKEN, although 241 pilot study and 471 main study respondents reported scores, most of the students took the test in junior high or senior high schools, and thus their scores did not represent their current proficiency. In terms of TOEIC, a total of 160 pilot study participants and 333 main study participants reported their scores, and they had taken the test after enrolling in their universities.

The factual questions, such as time spent in a foreign country, exposure to varieties of English, and proficiency measures, were piloted with Japanese and non-Japanese learners together with the attitude measure described in the following paragraphs.

3.5.2. Attitude measure

The attitudinal part comprises the newly developed attitudinal questionnaire, which consists of multiple-choice questions scored on Likert scales. This section describes the development of the original items in order that attitudes towards variation would be collected in a manner that matches the sociolinguistic reality of how English is used, moving away from state-based dialectal models and existing norms. The questionnaire development included multiple pre-pilot and pilot studies: (I) item creation, (II) pre-piloting with non-Japanese learners, (III) piloting with non-Japanese learners, (IV) pre-piloting with Japanese learners, and (V) piloting with Japanese learners. Figure 12 illustrates the timings of the pre-pilot and pilot studies. The development began in October 2016 and concluded in February 2018.

Figure 12
An overview of STAGE ONE and STAGE TWO and the timings of the pre-pilot and pilot studies



3.5.2.1. *Item creation (October 2016)*

Items for the study were created within a paradigm of Global Englishes, referring to the Global English Language (GELT) framework as explained in Section 2.1.3 in order that all key constructs associated with the spread of English would be considered.

Next, an expert panel was assembled to generate initial items for a preliminary version of the multiple-choice questionnaire. The factors of the GELT framework were used to provide categories for item generation. This expert panel included:

(a) Two Global Englishes researchers (Natsuno Funada, who is the current investigator, and Anuchaya Montikantiwong, who researches belief systems pertaining to Global Englishes)

(b) One content-area expert (GELT co-creator, Dr Heath Rose)

(c) One questionnaire expert (Language Contact Questionnaire creator, Dr Jessica Briggs Baffoe-Djan)

In this initial exercise, more than 100 items were generated. The panel met regularly over a period of three months to reduce the number of items, refine wording, and ensure that all salient constructs were included. The researcher led this process, producing multiple drafts of the questionnaire and emailing the panel updated versions based on decisions made during these meetings. This resulted in a preliminary version of the questionnaire, which included 57 five-point Likert-scale statements, and the object or concept was evaluated on a strongly agree to strongly disagree dimension. This particular Likert scale was used in this study since the labelling of the rating options and the number of choice-points were inclined to contribute towards the validity and reliability of the scale (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010). The questionnaire items were ordered randomly, considering the possibility of acquiescence bias (Burn, 2000). The wording of items was developed while referring to other external attitudinal questionnaires, such as in Chiba *et al.*'s (1995) and Yashima's (2000, 2002) studies. The draft version of the questionnaire at this stage remained in English because English was the lingua franca of the expert panel and because the panel wished to pilot an English version of the questionnaire for potential future use with English language learner participants in a range of global contexts.

The panel decided to collect the questionnaire data online since large amounts of data needed to be collected across the world efficiently within relatively short time frames and economically, as this would require low human resource efforts while collecting or managing data. The online survey approach was also convenient for the target population in the present study because they had access to digital devices, such as laptops or smartphones, with decent Internet connectivity. The participants could answer the questionnaire at a convenient time in multiple sessions and submit them easily. Compared to a postal survey, the online approach was easier for the researcher to see how many respondents were working on the questionnaire and how many respondents had already completed it. Thus, the researcher could send out follow-up emails in order to enhance the response rate.

There is substantial evidence that many large-scale studies have been completed using online questionnaire surveys through popular platforms (e.g. Survey Monkey: https://www.surveymonkey.co.uk/, Online Survey: https://www.onlinesurveys.ac.uk, Qualtrics: https://www.qualtrics.com/). Online Survey was chosen because it was the only platform designed for academic research and was supported by the researcher's university in 2016. The platform has sufficient survey functions, such as constructing multiple-choice questions. It also allows the researcher to deploy, analyse, and export surveys via the web securely without any advanced technical knowledge. Careful consideration was given to designing the online questionnaire survey. Not only the questionnaire items but also the layout of the questionnaire was discussed with the panel and the target population at every step of the study in order to maximise the quality of responses and the response rate.

3.5.2.2. *Pre-piloting and piloting with non-Japanese learners (April 2017–May 2017)*

In order to check that the items for piloting were clear to potential learners, the English version of the 57-item attitudinal questionnaire was pre-piloted with English language learners in Oxford. The researcher contacted heads of private English language institutions in Oxford. One of them agreed to allow recruiting their students for the pre-pilot study. The researcher visited the institution for pre-piloting, which involved the researcher explaining the aim of the study and sitting with a range of English language learners, who filled out the questionnaire using a laptop at the institution and were interviewed afterwards. These learners were asked to highlight any questions which were unclear or difficult to understand. Each session was conducted in English and lasted for 30 minutes, and 12 English language learners from various countries, with an average of 26.08 years (*SD* = 7.15), took part in the study. Although the participants' characteristics were different from the target population, especially in terms of their language learning experiences and age, this pilot study was conducted to take into account various English language learners' perspectives. Based on the results of the pre-pilot, the items were modified. Also, the pre-pilot study revealed that learners need at least a B1Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) level of English language proficiency to understand the questionnaire adequately.

A pilot exercise was undertaken online with a general population of non-Japanese language background students. A non-Japanese population was used in order not to reduce the potential population of participants for the main study and also to allow potential future use with English language learner participants in multiple contexts. The questionnaire was distributed through email, containing an embedded link to open the electronic consent via a secure, web-based survey platform. The first page of the

questionnaire included a brief written explanation of the purpose of the research in general and the questionnaire specifically. The emails were sent out to English language teachers all over the world by using the connections held by all the members of the expert panel. The distribution of the questionnaire was at the discretion of the teachers. Some forwarded the email to their students. Others devoted class time for the questionnaire in order to make sure that all of their students completed it. Since this was one of the pilot studies for the development of the questionnaire, the responses data were used for analysis, as the respondents met the following criteria, which was relatively close to the characteristics of the target population of my study: (a) age of 18 to 21 years, (b) identifying their gender as female or male, (c) belonging to the Expanding Circle contexts, and (d) having post B1-level proficiency. The questionnaire also included some factual questions, such as age, gender, nationality, primary country of residence, native languages, additional languages, time spent in a foreign country, exposure to varieties of English, and English language proficiency. As a result, responses completed by 204 English language learners who were based mainly in Thailand and South Korea (117 female, 75 male, and 12 who did not respond with an average age of 21 years) were used as the data for analysis.

Descriptive statistics, EFA, and reliability analysis were conducted for the attitude measure. Descriptive statistics showed that the items on which students agreed most strongly (items with a mean of 3.95 or higher) indicated global orientations in the GELT framework. The students had positive attitudes towards speaking their native language and English and encountering different varieties of English inside and outside the classroom. In contrast, the items the respondents agreed with the least (items which had a mean of 2.74 or lower) were related to traditional orientations addressed in the GELT framework. The students appeared to have negative attitudes towards American

ownership of English, 'correctness' in a language, and non-native English inferiority. EFA yielded two factors: global and traditional orientations. Although the results of statistical analysis corresponded with the GELT framework, they failed to investigate the attitudinal factors in detail, such as attitudes towards target interlocutor or language norms. This might have been attributed to the limitations of this pilot study. The sample size was not sufficient for multidimensional scales constructed out of the 57-questionnaire item pool. According to the rule of thumb, minimum sample sizes in absolute numbers (*N*) were that any $N > 200$ offered adequate statistical power for data analysis (Hoe, 2008; Singh, Junnarkar, & Kaur, 2016). The same *N* was also proposed by Comrey (1988) as generally adequate for a measure having up to 40 items. A minimum sample size of 300 respondents also was suggested (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Additionally, a statistically significant difference in global orientations between the Thai population and the Korean population was found. Therefore, the GEO-Q was piloted again with a sufficient number of Japanese learners. The detailed descriptions of the pre-piloting and piloting the GEO-Q with non-Japanese learners are included in Appendix E.

After piloting the GEO-Q with non-Japanese learners, some changes were made to the GEO-Q. First, regarding time spent in a foreign country, the participants needed to write each experience in detail, and many reported information that appeared inaccurate or left it blank. Thus, for the Japanese version of the GEO-Q, the open-response questionnaire items were replaced with multiple-choice items. Second, the exposure to varieties of English items were further modified to be more specific in order to avoid potential confusion. For example, 'I speak English with non-native English speakers, who can speak my native language' was changed to 'I speak English with Japanese speakers of English'. Each item was divided into two questions asking in-class exposure and out-of-class exposure, since this contextual difference was found in the pilot study and the

distinction was important in Japanese contexts where learners did not have much exposure to English outside the classroom (Mizuno, 2008; Seargeant 2011; Terasawa, 2015; Yano 2011). Third, some researchers suggested using even-numbered response options because some respondents might use the middle category (i.e. *neither agree nor disagree*, *not sure*, or *neutral*) too often (Dörnyei, 2003). Thus, the Japanese version of the GEO-Q used a six-point Likert scale.

3.5.2.3. *Pre-piloting with Japanese learners (December 2017)*

The GEO-Q then was translated from English into Japanese by the researcher. Back-translation (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) was used to verify whether the original translation was accurate or not. Three bilingual external reviewers who were highly proficient both in Japanese and in English were asked to interpret a document previously translated into Japanese back to English. The results were very close to the original English version of the questionnaire.

A pre-pilot for the entire Japanese version of the GEO-Q was conducted. The researcher contacted three professors in Japan through the connections held by the researcher. All of them agreed to allow their students to be recruited for the pre-pilot study. The researcher visited three different universities to ask the students to participate in the pilot study and complete the questionnaire online using the researcher's or student's laptop or mobile phone at the institution. The participants were interviewed afterwards. They were asked to highlight any questions which were unclear or difficult to understand. Each interview session was conducted in Japanese and lasted for 30 mins. Ten Japanese university English language learners in Japan took part in the study. The learners' characteristics (e.g. the length of their English language learning, their exposure to varieties of English, and English language proficiency) matched the target population and covered different

characteristics, such as university type, university location, gender, study, year of study, university characteristics, and overseas experience. This was intended to help develop the Japanese version of the GEO-Q, making necessary changes to the items for the Japanese context. Based on the pre-pilot study, the following conclusions and adaptations were drawn:

(a) The wording of 10 attitudinal items was adapted based on participants' feedback to enhance the comprehensibility of the constructs being tested.

(b) Five attitudinal items were modified due to poor comprehensibility, which was conceptually (rather than linguistically) problematic.

(c) Regarding the exposure to varieties of English measure, six items were modified due to poor comprehensibility.

3.5.2.4. *Piloting with Japanese learners (January 2018)*

The modified Japanese version of the GEO-Q was piloted.

3.5.2.4.a. Procedure and participants for the pilot study

The researcher contacted 14 universities in Japan through connections held by the researcher. The professors or heads of departments of all 14 universities responded positively to this initial contact (see Appendix A for detailed descriptions of their universities). The researcher either visited in person or sent another email in order to describe what participation would involve at the student level. If a professor or head of the department agreed to participate, the researcher sent them an email containing an embedded link to open the web-based questionnaire, as also explained in Section 3.5.2.2. The distribution of the questionnaire was up to the teachers at their institutions. A total of

345 students completed the questionnaire: 343 students speak Japanese as their first language, and 2 students speak Japanese as a second language (211 female, 123 male, and 11 who did not respond with an average age of 19.6 years). The respondents who speak Japanese as a second language were included in the data analysis since they had gone through formal English language education in Japan. Of the students, 47.5 % were from private universities, 51.9 % were from national universities, and 0.6 % were from public universities and 89.4% were in rural areas, and 10.6% were in urban areas. A majority of the students were either in their first year (62.6 %) or in their second year (24.1 %), and 63.8% of the students were humanities and social science majors, 23.2% of the students were science majors, and 13.0 % of the students had declared other majors. Of the students, 44.1 % were from the universities selected for the Top Global University Project, and 15.7 % had studied abroad, 5.2 % had resided abroad, and 62.0 % had been abroad before. They had an average English language learning experience totalling 11.5 years and had gone through formal English language education in Japan. All of the students thought that their English language learning had been most affected by their English language classes in elementary, junior high, and senior high schools.

3.5.2.4.b. Data analysis for the pilot study

Descriptive statistics were conducted to summarise the data. To explore the quality of the instrument that consisted of the 57 attitudinal items, construct validity and internal consistency (e.g. Kline, 1993) were checked by EFA and Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha. By exploring which items most strongly represented each factor in the current dataset, EFA reduced the number of items per construct.

The factual questions also were analysed through descriptive statistics to check if there were any issues in answering them. The internal consistency of the exposure to varieties of English measure was checked by Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha.

3.5.2.4.c. Findings

(a) Data Screening

The data were screened for univariate outliers. A total of 22 out-of-range values due to administrative errors were identified and recoded as missing data.

(b) Descriptive statistics (Attitude measure)

Since a Likert scale was used, a number was assigned to each label (*strongly disagree* = 1; *disagree* = 2; *somewhat disagree* = 3; *somewhat agree* = 4; *agree* = 5; *strongly agree* = 6). The descriptive statistics, such as means and standard deviations, for each questionnaire item were computed. Questionnaire items with means of 4.50 or higher and 2.60 or lower are shown in Tables 3 and 4 below, and all items are shown in Appendix F.

The nine items on which students agreed most strongly (items with a mean of 4.50 or higher) addressed global orientations: The students had positive attitudes towards speaking their native/first language and English, different English varieties, and their ownership of English. In contrast, the items the respondents agreed the least (items which had a mean of 2.60 or lower) were related to traditional orientations: These students appeared to have negative attitudes towards American and British ownerships of English, American or British English-speaking students who do not know different varieties of English, and 'correctness' in a language.

Table 3
Results of descriptive statistics: Attitudinal questionnaire items, mean of 4.50 or higher and standard deviation (N = 345)

Items	Mean	*SD*
Q50_It will be useful for me to have both my native/first language and English in the future.	4.94	1.15
Q26_Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.	4.74	1.11
Q34_Exposure to different English varieties in an English class is important to improve my English.	4.60	1.14
Q25_The true owners of English are everyone who uses English.	4.55	1.47

Table 4
Results of descriptive statistics: Attitudinal questionnaire items, mean of 2.60 or lower and standard deviation (N = 345)

Items	Mean	*SD*
Q38_There is little benefit for students who have mastered American or British English to learn more about (or be made aware of) other varieties of English.	2.60	1.22
Q11_The true owners of English are from England.	2.11	1.28
Q9_It is better to not say anything in the language until I can say it correctly.	2.08	1.13
Q4_The true owners of English are from America.	1.87	1.19

(c) Factor Analysis (Attitude measure)

EFA was conducted to explore the quality of the instrument and reduce the number of items per construct. EFA using the maximum likelihood method was conducted on the 57 items with oblique rotation (promax) since the data were relatively normally distributed (see Appendix F for the skewness and kurtosis statistics). The extraction method was chosen because Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan (1999) and Osborne (2014) argued that if data are relatively normally distributed, the maximum likelihood estimate is the most suitable choice. Oblique rotation was appropriate for the study since in the social sciences, some correlations among factors, regardless of the intentions of the researcher to produce uncorrelated scales, are expected (Osborne, 2014). Promax was selected based on the recommendation by Thompson (2004), which stated that promax is conducted as a series of rotations and the resulting coefficients tend to yield a simple structure. Variables that have a large number of low correlation coefficients ($r = \pm.30$) were checked by

referring to the correlation matrix, as they indicate a lack of patterned relationships. Similarly, variables that have correlations above $r = \pm.90$ were checked. As a follow-up, the determinant score was checked, and the value was .000289, above the rule of thumb (.00001; Field, 2009). The current data thus were deemed to have patterned relationships among the variables. Bartlett's test of sphericity [χ^2 (1596) = 7866.816, $p < .001$] also indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for EFA. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .87, and all KMO values for individual items were > .62, which was well above the acceptable limit of .5 (Field, 2009).

An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Fifteen factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 62.78 % of the variance. The scree plot showed inflexions (Cattell, 1966) that would justify retaining five factors. Given the convergence of the scree plot, five factors were retained in the analysis. The percentage of the non-redundant residuals was checked by referring to the reproduced correlation matrix to determine whether a model was a good fit (having less than 50 % of the non-redundant residuals with absolute values that are greater than .05; Yong & Pearce, 2013), which held true for the current data. The reproduced correlation matrix and the original correlation coefficients matrix were also compared to check whether the model was a good fit (having small residuals between the two matrices; Yong & Pearce, 2013), which also held true for the data. The items that loaded on the same factors with an absolute value greater than .32 were set for interpretation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), suggesting five factors (33 items). The EFA was rerun with the 33 items, and the analysis was repeated until a clear factor structure matrix that explained a high percentage of total item variance was obtained (Hinkin, 1998). In these analyses with the 33 items, due to the low item loadings with an absolute

value less than .32 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), Q17, 44, 9, 21, and 54 were deleted. Q13 and 19 were also deleted since the items failed to load on retained factors. Due to the low item communality, Q36 was deleted.

Overall, those deleted items were mainly related to the definition of native and fluent speakers and their accent (i.e. Q2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 14, 24, and 54), a sense of advantage of interacting either with monolingual or multilingual speakers (i.e. Q6, 13, 19, 16, 28, 39, and 49), teaching materials (i.e. Q23 and 48), teachers (i.e. Q18, 36, and 37), and a sense of 'correctness' (i.e. Q9, 21, 29, 45, and 46).

Thus, in the final analysis, four factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1, and in combination explained 54.18 % of the variance. The scree plot also showed inflexions (Cattell, 1966) that would justify retaining four factors. The items that loaded on the same factors (> .32) suggested that Factor 1 represented *Awareness about varieties of English* (10 items), Factor 2 represented *English use with target communities* (5 items), Factor 3 represented *Preference for native English* (5 items), and Factor 4 represented *Language norms* (5 items). The details of each factor are described below.

To check the internal consistency of the questionnaire items, reliability analyses were conducted. For each factor Cronbach's results were as follows: *Awareness about varieties of English*, $\alpha = .88$; *English use with target communities*, $\alpha = .82$; *Preference for native English*, $\alpha = .77$; and *Language norms*, $\alpha = .74$. According to Kline (1999), all the factors had acceptable reliability > .7 (see Table 5 for a list of these four factors, the items which loaded on each factor, and the reliability coefficient for each factor).

Factor 1: ***Awareness about varieties of English***

Factor 1 obtained appreciable loadings (greater than .32) from 10 items. The factor included items indicative of an interest in and awareness of the importance of different varieties of English and learning and being taught about them. It also included items that involved beliefs about the importance of being multilingual and a sense of ownership of English (i.e. The true owners of English are everyone who uses English).

Factor 2: ***English use with target communities***

Factor 2 was determined by appreciable loadings from five items. The items included in this factor reflected an interest in learning about various English-speaking communities and using English with native and non-native speakers of English. An item related to a sense of ownership of English was also loaded (i.e. English is one of my languages).

Factor 3: ***Preference for native English***

Factor 3 was determined by appreciable loadings from five items. The items included in this factor reflected positive views about American and British English acting as the teaching models in classrooms and being seen as the 'correct' varieties; learning about the cultures associated with these varieties of English; beliefs about the importance of learning these varieties; and a desire for native-like fluency and accent.

Factor 4: ***Language norms***

Factor 4 was determined by appreciable loadings from five items. The items included in this factor reflected beliefs about the importance of learning and being taught 'correct' grammar and Standard English. Items related to native-speaker superiority were also included.

Table 5

Results of exploratory factor and reliability analyses of the pilot study with Japanese learners for the attitude measure[a]

Items	factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1: Awareness about varieties of English (α = 88.)				
Q50_It will be useful for me to have both my native/first language and English in the future.	.738			
Q34_Exposure to different English varieties in an English class is important to improve my English.	.713			
Q52_It is important to speak other languages in addition to English.	.700			
Q26_Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.	.689			
Q25_The true owners of English are everyone who uses English.	.666			
Q47_Awareness of different English varieties will enable me to learn about a greater range of English speakers.	.646			
Q5_The good English teacher provides opportunities for learners to learn about different English varieties.	.617			
Q22_Learning the culture of native English-speaking countries improves my English.	.612			
Q51_English language programs should provide students with opportunities to practise the language with speakers from different language backgrounds, both in school and beyond.	.594			
Q57_My native/first language is a useful resource for learning.	.490			
Factor 2: English use with target communities (α = .82)				
Q43_I am learning English because I want to communicate with native speakers of English.		.785		
Q15_I am learning English because I want to communicate with non-native speakers of English.		.755		
Q41_I am learning English because I want to know about various English-speaking communities.		.683		
Q42_English is one of my languages.		.581		
Q1_I am learning English because I want to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.		.575		
Factor 3: Preference for native English (α = .77)				
Q31_The goal of learning the English language is to speak with a native-like accent.			.762	
Q32_Good English language instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English.			.679	
Q33_Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures.			.625	
Q30_English varieties such as British and American English are more correct than English varieties such as Indian or Singaporean English.			.568	
Q40_The role of the teacher is to help students develop native-like proficiency.			.465	
Factor 4: Language norms (α = .74)				
Q55_Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English conversation classes.				.838
Q35_Class time should be devoted to learning the language system (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling, and syntax) of standard varieties of English only.				.583
Q20_Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English classes.				.574
Q38_There is little benefit for students who have mastered American or British English to learn more about (or be made aware of) other varieties of English.				.422
Q56_Non-native spoken English is inferior to native spoken English.				.373

a. Note: Only loadings of ± .32 or greater are included in this solution.

Table 6 shows a factor correlation matrix. Factors interpreted as *Awareness about varieties of English* (*Varieties of English*) and *English use with target communities* (*Target communities*); *Target communities* and *Preference for native English* (*Native English*); and *Native English* and *Language norms* showed moderate correlations of .53, .42, and .47, respectively. Some correlations among factors were expected since a psychological construct such as attitude 'is rarely partitioned into neatly packaged units that function independently of one another' (Osborne, 2015, p. 5).

Table 6
Factor correlation matrix (pilot study)

Factors	1	2	3	4
1. Varieties of English	1.000	.527	.314	−.067
2. Target communities	**.527**	1.000	.415	.194
3. Native English	.314	**.415**	1.000	.469
4. Language norms	−.067	.194	**.469**	1.000

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.

The attitudinal factors were more detailed than those of the pilot study with the non-Japanese learners (see Section 3.5.2.2). The results showed that Japanese learners' attitudes were consistent. In other words, if the participants showed positive attitudes towards different varieties of English and speakers of these varieties in general, they tended to be positive about learning and being taught about them in class. The traditional orientations were also shown, and the participants held beliefs about the importance of learning and being taught native English and the 'correctness' of the language, Standard English, and native-speaker superiority. Overall, the results of statistical analyses corresponded with the constructs in the GELT framework. This showed that the instrument captured these constructs well, showing evidence in support of construct validity. Each scale appeared to measure each construct consistently, which showed that the instrument was more likely to be reliable (e.g. Kline, 1993). Based on the piloting,

further modifications were made to the Japanese version of the GEO-Q. For example, regarding Q25 'The true owners of English are everyone who uses English'. Of the students, 51 reported in the questionnaire that they had difficulty understanding this. In terms of Q30 'English varieties such as British and American English are more correct than English varieties such as Indian or Singaporean English', 44 students stated in the questionnaire that they understood it but had a hard time answering. Thus, Q25 was changed to 'English is owned by not only users of English as their native/first language but also everyone who uses English' and Q30 was changed to 'In terms of grammar and pronunciation, English varieties such as British and American English are more correct than English varieties such as Indian or Singaporean English'. Overall, 25 items loading on the factors above were retained in the final instrument.

(d) Exposure to varieties of English measure

Reliability analysis was conducted on the exposure to varieties of English measure, showing acceptable reliability $> .7$ ($\alpha = .83$) (Kline, 1999).

The results of descriptive statistics, such as means and standard deviations, for each questionnaire item, were computed and are shown in Table 7. Since a Likert scale was used, each response option was assigned a number for scoring purposes (*very true of me* = 6; *true of me* = 5; *somewhat true of me* = 4; *somewhat untrue of me* = 3; *untrue of me* = 2; *very untrue of me* = 1). The descriptive statistics showed the importance of the in-class and out-of-class distinctions, as expected (Mizuno, 2008; Seargeant, 2011; Terasawa, 2015; Yano, 2011). The students did not have many opportunities to speak English outside the classroom with any type of speaker. They had the most exposure to native-speaker English through listening, and to English spoken by Japanese speakers through speaking in the classroom, with means of 3.86 and higher. They had less exposure to

other language-speaker English overall. Since there was a possibility that the participants hear Japanese people speaking English both in and outside the classroom, the items 'I often listen/listened to Japanese-speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] in listening/speaking class' and 'I often listen/listened to Japanese-speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] outside the classroom' were added to cover the full spectrum of Japanese English learners' exposure to varieties of English.

(e) Proficiency measure

Students indicated scores on the English language proficiency tests they had taken in the past five years. Of the students, 160 reported TOEIC scores with an average score of 510.88, and 241 students reported EIKEN scores; 22.0% of the students had EIKEN grade 3, and 19.1 % of the students had EIKEN grade 4. Nevertheless, most students appeared to have taken EIKEN when they were junior high or senior high school students, and they had taken TOEIC after graduating from high school. No clear relationship was found between EIKEN and TOEIC scores. Only 20 and 10 students, respectively, reported TOEFL and IELTS scores, showing that TOEIC and EIKEN were popular English proficiency exams among Japanese students, and that TOEIC was more likely to be used for the main study data analysis. No changes were made to the proficiency measure regarding this point.

Based on the results of the pilot study, final modifications of the GEO-Q were made. The final Japanese version of the GEO-Q is included in Appendix G.

Table 7
Results of descriptive statistics: Exposure to varieties of English measure (N = 343)

Items	Mean	*SD*
EQ4_I often have/had conversations in English with Japanese English speakers in speaking class.	3.90	1.29
EQ1_I often listen/listened to native-speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] in listening/speaking class.	3.86	1.36
EQ6_I often listen/listened to native-speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] outside the classroom.	3.48	1.51
EQ2_I often listen/listened to other language-speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] in listening/speaking class.	3.33	1.35
EQ3_ I often have/had conversations in English with native English speakers in class.	3.17	1.35
EQ7_I often listen/listened to other language-speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] outside the classroom.	3.10	1.43
EQ5_I often have/had conversations in English with other language speakers in speaking class.	2.87	1.41
EQ8_I often have/had conversations in English with native English speakers outside the classroom.	2.59	1.43
EQ10_I often have/had conversations in English with other language speakers outside the classroom.	2.36	1.36
EQ9_I often have/had conversations in English with Japanese English speakers outside the classroom.	2.31	1.28

3.5.3. Procedure for the main study

The sample was recruited via email. The researcher contacted 37 universities in Japan through connections held by the researcher as described in Section 3.4. The professors or heads of departments of 37 universities responded positively to this initial contact. The researcher either visited in person or sent another email to describe what participation would involve at the student level. If a professor or head of the department agreed to participate, the researcher sent them the questionnaire for students via email. The first page of the questionnaire contained a detailed description of the study and asked students to participate in the study with an embedded link for starting the online questionnaire. The teachers distributed the questionnaire to their students in class by sharing a link using

a QR code or outside the classroom via mailing lists. Such distribution of the questionnaire was up to the teachers at their institutions. The data collection for the main study began in March 2018 and was completed in June 2018. The main study was conducted in a different academic year. Thus, the main study participants were different from the pilot study participants, although some of the pilot and main study participants were from the same universities.

3.5.4. Data analysis for the main study

The analysis strategies for the main study will now be discussed with reference to the research questions.

3.5.4.1. *Research Question 1*

RQ1. What are the factors that underpin Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language?

> a. What factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes are related to the traditional and global orientations based on the GELT framework?

The completed response data were exported securely to Excel, and were then prepared for statistical analysis. For example, some data, such as university name and study major, were coded into numbers, and blanks were replaced with 0. They were then copied into IBM SPSS Statistics 25 for analysis. Descriptive statistics were conducted to summarise the data. EFA was conducted on all 25 attitudinal items. EFA explores the data and provides information about how many factors are necessary to represent the data (Hair, Black, Babin, & Anderson, 2014). The primary aim of choosing EFA for the main study is to reveal the underlying structure in the attitudinal data and to determine whether

similar orientations to those described in the GELT framework exist in the present study as explored in the pilot studies. At the same time, EFA reveals construct validity, which refers to the extent to which an instrument captures a specific theoretical construct or trait (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). In this study, this meant whether the GEO-Q measures what it is supposed to measure: the factors of attitudes towards English as a global language. In addition to construct validity, internal consistency was checked. Reliability is concerned with the ability of an instrument to measure a construct consistently (DeVellis, 2003). In this study, Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha was used to measure the strength of that consistency; in other words, how closely related a set of items were as a group. A Cronbach's alpha score of > .7 was considered acceptable (e.g. Kline, 1999; Nunnally, 1978), though smaller scores have also been accepted for instruments measuring psychological constructs or abilities (Kline, 1999).

3.5.4.2. *Research Question 2*

RQ2. What is the relationship, if any, between the factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language and their English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English?

Structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to examine a set of relationships between latent constructs (the attitudinal factors) and predictor variables (English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English). Also, the potential confounding variables (university type, university location, gender, study major, year of study, university characteristics, and overseas experience) were incorporated into the model as predictors. It is possible to enter factor scores as dependent variables in regression models to predict attitudes using independent variables (English language proficiency, exposure

to varieties of English, and the potential confounding variables). However, these models treat measured variables and latent constructs identically. Thus, although similar to SEM, multiple regression fails to take into account any of the measurement properties forming a multiple-item construct when estimating the relationship (Hair *et al*., 2014). SEM is a better fit for this study since SEM can metrically examine a theoretical model that involves both latent constructs and measured variables in one analysis (Hair *et al*., 2014). Before conducting SEM, in order to test the validity of the measurement model derived from the results of EFA—in other words, to test how well the measured variables (the attitudinal questionnaire items) represent the constructs (the attitudinal factors) extracted during EFA—confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed. IBM SPSS AMOS 25 was used to conduct CFA and SEM.

All the Likert and 'how true of me' scales in this study, if the responses were ranged well across all six possible options and if they were not excessively skewed, were treated as yielding interval data (Jamieson, 2004). Regarding the predictor variable, exposure to varieties of English, the sums of scores in response to exposure to native varieties of English (4 items), Japanese varieties of English (4 items), and other varieties of English (4 items) were used. In this variable, participants could score a minimum of 4 (if they had allocated (1) *This is not at all true of me* to each item) and a maximum of 24 (if they had allocated (6) *This is very true of me* to each item). In terms of another predictor variable, English language proficiency, participants could score a minimum of 10 and a maximum of 990. Due to the skewed data, the potential confounding variables for the SEM were converted into binary categorical variables based on university type (national/public or private), university location (urban or rural), gender (female or male), study major (science majors or others), year of study (first year or others), university characteristics (universities selected for the Top Global University Project or others), and overseas

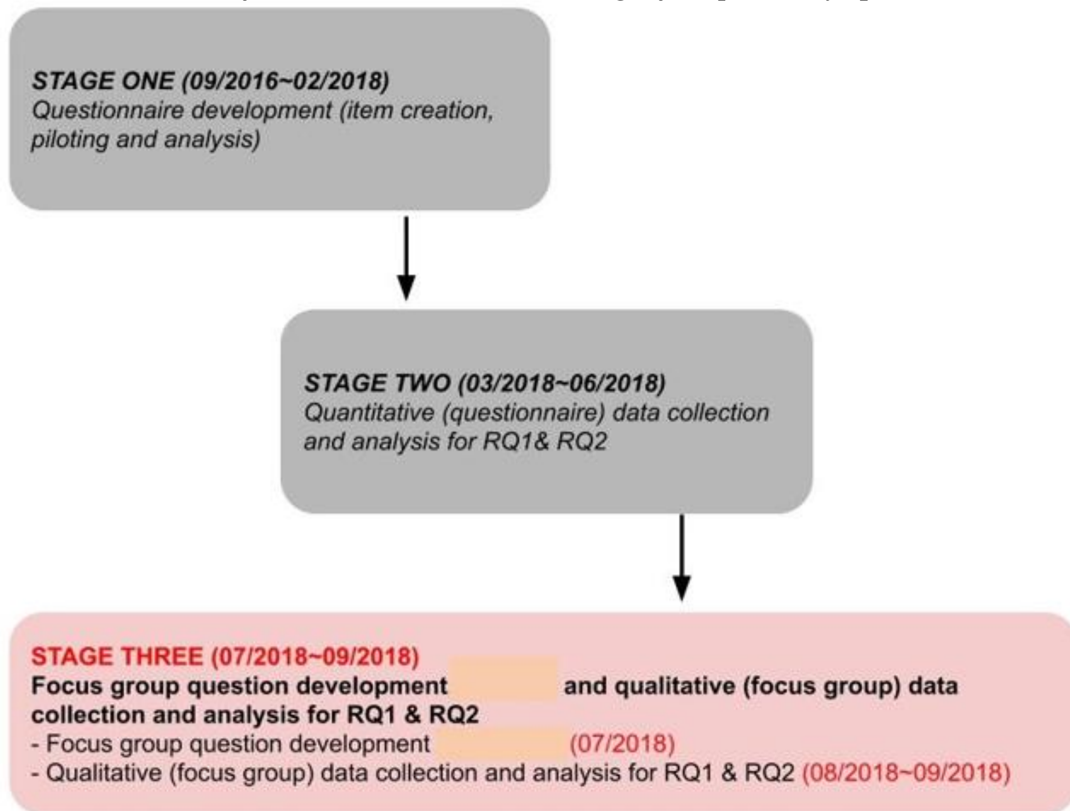
experience (never been overseas or been overseas). The participants' study majors were divided into two groups: science majors or others, since other approaches to the categorisation of study majors were not suitable for the data analysis.

3.6. Focus group question development and qualitative data collection and analysis

This section describes the focus group question development and qualitative data collection and analysis. The researcher took on the role of moderator in all focus groups. The data collection and analysis were all conducted in Japanese, which was the focus group participants' and researcher's first language. The present study collected qualitative data by using focus groups after the quantitative data collection and analysis. This was intended to confirm the questionnaire results and help the researcher understand the factors of attitudes extracted by the statistical analyses in detail to explore students' attitudes towards English as a global language and to elaborate what factors had an impact on these attitudes, including, but not limited to, English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English, tapping into how these attitudes were formed. Figure 13 illustrates the timings of the pilot and main studies. The development began and concluded in July 2018.

Figure 13

An overview of STAGE THREE and the timings of the pilot study (qualitative)



3.6.1. Focus group interviews

A focus group can be defined as a technique involving the use of in-depth group interviews in which a small number of people who are purposively selected are focused on a given topic (Rabiee, 2004; Steward, Shamdasani, & Rook, 2007; Wilkinson, 2004). Focus groups fit the aims of this study of examining complex attitudes and attitude formation (Galloway, 2011). As indicated in Galloway (2019), focus groups can yield high-quality data through group interaction. With the presence of other members, giving participants greater anonymity and reducing pressures, participants may feel more comfortable in focus groups than in an individual interview. As a result, they may disclose more ideas. With the dynamic and spontaneous nature of the group discussion, various topics can be covered, and more genuine opinions can be elicited. Furthermore, focus groups give participants an opportunity to listen, share, and help in formulating

their thoughts (Krueger & Casey, 2014; Morgan, 1997). More concretely, listening to other participants' ideas may help the participants identify and reflect on their own experiences and opinions and give well-informed thoughts on the topics, which may not likely be captured in other qualitative data collection methods. This also shows how they brainstorm and formulate their ideas, share experiences, discuss topics, and develop opinions about the topics as a group. These interactions provide insight into how participants with diverse viewpoints inspire and challenge each other, which allows the researcher to fully investigate the process of learners' attitude formation.

The focus groups were conducted in real time online for three reasons. In order to include participants from different universities located in different areas in each focus group, it was impossible for the researcher to gather the respondents in the same room on a specific date and time. Also, Japanese university students are typically very busy with various activities outside of university classes, such as club activities and part-time jobs (NIER, 2014); and they usually have time late at night during weekdays or early mornings during weekends. Thus, online focus groups were a very good fit for the current Japanese university students. Lastly, Japan is one of the countries where most university students have access to digital devices with web cameras, good technical skills, and high internet speed/capability (Miniwatts Marketing Group, 2019), which made the successful implementation of real-time online focus groups possible.

3.6.2. Focus group questions

The focus group session was guided by questions that the researcher had prepared ahead of the focus group. The questions were originally based on Galloway (2011) because the research aim and setting were very similar, aiming to explore Japanese university students' attitudes towards English for change in ELT. Some follow-up questions which were not

on the interview guide were asked mainly to probe or clarify the participants' answers. The questions were focused on examining the attitudinal factors obtained during EFA (*English use with target communities*, *Awareness about varieties of English*; *Multilingualism*, *Language norms*, and *Preference for native English*) and language exposure (by asking about past, current, and future English use; varieties of English they had been exposed to; and the notion of Standard English and its criteria) in greater detail. The questions were open-ended to allow for detailed responses or to explore the participants' wide range of ideas. Additionally, the researcher made sure to convey that there was no correct or incorrect answer to any of the questions, so that the participants would feel sufficiently comfortable in sharing their experiences and opinions freely and in the manner they preferred. The questions were grouped thematically, moving from general questions to more specific ones (within each theme) as recommended in Krueger (1998). This allowed the discussion to flow naturally. The focus group questions were further developed by the pilot study explained in Section 3.6.4.

3.6.3. Video conferencing service

Based on the criteria established by Tuttas (2014), a video conferencing service (Zoom) was selected for focus group in this study. First, the service must support real-time audio and full-motion video imaging with good sound and visual quality. Second, the service must support AV recordings of the focus groups. Third, no more than moderate technical competency must be required of participants. Fourth, participants must not be required to purchase and install the software. Fifth, only invited parties can gain access to enter the meeting space. Sixth, the software can be used in Japanese. Seventh, the service must support the same functions (real-time audio, full-motion video imagining, and AV recordings) not only for laptops but also for smartphones. Lastly, the software should

provide a robust set of security features to protect the data. Taking into account the criteria and the strengths and weaknesses of the different video conferencing services, such as Skype, GoToMeeting, Adobe Connect, and Zoom, the Zoom video conferencing service, which met the most criteria, was chosen.

The researcher staged a mock focus group by scheduling Zoom meetings and inviting colleagues to log in to the virtual meeting space. Functional features were displayed on the host screen, which was necessary for the researcher to manage the meeting but were not visible to participants. The mock sessions helped the researcher to develop proficiency in moderating focus groups using Zoom.

3.6.4. Piloting with Japanese learners

The pilot focus groups were conducted to pilot the questions, to foster the researcher's experience in coordinating and moderating video conferencing focus groups, and to evaluate logistics, including meeting coordination and data management. Two focus groups consisting of three students were coordinated. All pilot focus group participants completed the pilot study questionnaire and had agreed to take part in the focus group sessions and wrote their email addresses in the questionnaire. They were later recruited by the researcher directly by sending them an email, and then the researcher set up the meeting via Doodle (www.doodle.com). Out of the 6 students who had agreed to take part in focus group sessions in the questionnaire, all responded to the researcher's emails and participated in the pilot study. All students speak Japanese as their first language (5 female, 1 male, with an average age of 20.8 years). Of the students, two were from private universities in urban areas, and 4 students were from national universities in rural areas. A majority of the students were either in their first year (4 students), third year (1 student), or fourth year (1 student); and 4 of the students were humanities and social

science majors, while 2 students were science and engineering majors. Three students were from the universities selected for the Top Global University Project. Three students had studied abroad, 3 students had resided abroad, and 5 students had been abroad before. They had an average English language learning experience totalling 12.6 years and had completed formal English language education in Japan. All of the students thought that their English language learning had been most affected by their English language classes in elementary, junior high, and senior high schools.

In the pilot focus groups, the participants were asked to answer each question. After each focus group, they also were asked if they had difficulty doing so and how the questions could be improved, which was used to finalise the interview guide. The guide was modified by deleting some questions and making a few small changes to the wording of questions. It was also found that conducting an online focus group with three students was easy to manage, especially because it gave all the participants the right amount of time to answer all questions. Thus, focus groups for the main study consisted of three to four students. The final version of the focus group questions (see Appendix H) was used with the nine main study focus groups.

The pilot focus groups also yielded insight and experiences, contributing to successful online focus groups. For example, in order to coordinate focus groups, a web-based group scheduling program, Doodle, was used; and an embedded link was sent to the participants via email. Since the participants rarely checked their emails, it did not ease the challenges of coordinating focus groups as quickly as possible with the participants who had busy schedules. Thus, LINE (https://line.me/en/, a very popular freeware app for instant communications in Japan) was used in the main study. Some participants experienced small technical challenges while joining their Zoom meeting (e.g. speaker and

microphone adjustments were needed and sound quality was inconsistent). However, they reported that the system worked well once the researcher assisted them to make the necessary functional adjustments. This addressed the importance of the researcher's proficiency in using technology. Thus, the researcher took some online courses to learn more about how to manage the software to resolve the challenges efficiently. Background noise was captured by microphones in some cases, and two participants were asked to move to different rooms. This showed that it was necessary for participants to join a Zoom meeting from fairly quiet places. Some participants joined the session using smartphones, which yielded inconsistent sound quality compared to the use of laptops. Thus, the researcher emphasised to the participants that the best way to join a Zoom meeting is to use a laptop or desktop computer with a stable Internet connection from a quiet place. The pilot participants commented favourably about the use of Zoom. The pilot study gave the researcher confidence to conduct successful online focus groups for the main study.

3.6.5. Procedure for the main study

As the consents were signed in the online questionnaires, the researcher coordinated focus groups by contacting study participants first via email and then via LINE to set up a meeting. When each focus group was coordinated, the researcher logged on to the Zoom system and generated a uniform resource locator (URL), a unique Internet address for the Zoom meeting room, in the form of a hyperlink. On the scheduled meeting date/time, participants clicked on the URL to open the virtual meeting space. Zoom meeting-access messages were distributed to participants on the day of the meeting, approximately 60 minutes prior to the start time. The email contained instructions for participants to click on the URL five minutes before the scheduled focus group start time. The five-minute

lead time allowed the researcher to ensure that participants logged on successfully, troubleshoot any technical issues, and make necessary adjustments. Prior to clicking on the AV recorder icon, the researcher reminded participants that the focus group would be recorded. Before starting the interview, the researcher gave the participants a brief oral introduction to the study and answered any remaining questions. All sessions lasted for about 90 minutes. Over the course of two months, nine focus groups involving 30 participants in total were conducted without a major issue. The data collection for the main study began in August 2018 and was completed in September 2018. The AV recorded data were later transcribed by the researcher for analysis.

3.6.6. Data analysis for the main study

Approaches to analysing qualitative data for both Research Questions 1 and 2 are discussed below.

After the transcription process was complete, the transcripts were analysed with qualitative content analysis, a process involving both deductive and inductive analyses (Mayring, 2000; Schreier, 2014). All responses to the focus-group questions were imported into a computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software, NVivo; the data were coded via a number of passes through the data to generate themes for general coding, to code in depth, and finally to check coding. The unit of analysis is defined as a 'segment of text that is comprehensible by itself and contains one idea, episode, or piece of information' (Moretti, Vliet, Bensing, Deledda, Mazzi, Rimondini, Zimmermann, & Fletcher, 2011, p. 421). Codes were assigned to text pieces relating to a theme. The analysis involved the following steps.

Step 1. The researcher engaged in a close reading of the transcripts.

Step 2. The transcripts for each focus group were coded into nodes according to the theme that involved all participants' comments relating to attitudes towards English using NVivo. The data were coded into people nodes, whereby utterances were grouped according to whether they had been said by the interviewer or the participant.

Step 3. The units were further categorised under the results of the questionnaire (mainly deductive analysis). Regarding Research Question 1, the units were further categorised, referring to the attitudinal factors obtained during EFA. In terms of Research Question 2, the categorised data obtained from Research Question 1 were further analysed according to the variables affecting the attitudes addressed by the SEM, such as English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English.

Step 4. Due to technical difficulties, all other codings were carried out by hand. The subsequent analysis focused on identifying new emergent themes, as well as instances which further illustrated the nature of each of these categories (mainly inductive analysis). Within each factor (Research Question 1) and each predictor (Research Question 2), such further analyses were conducted.

Although the quantitative assessment criteria of validity and reliability are not directly applicable to qualitative research, trustworthiness could be considered an equivalent concept regarding the quality of qualitative research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Lincoln and Guba (1985) refined the concept of trustworthiness by introducing the criteria of credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. Credibility is determined when there is confidence in the truth of the reported findings of a piece of qualitative research from the perspective of the participants. Transferability refers to the applicability

of the findings to other settings. Dependability concerns consistency within the findings and that very similar findings would arise if the study were to be repeated; and confirmability refers to establishing that the researcher's interpretations and findings are clearly derived from the data, requiring the researcher to demonstrate how conclusions and interpretations have been reached. In line with the guidelines (Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, Pölkki, Utriainen, & Kyngäs, 2014; Mayring, 2000), the measures taken in this study to enhance the trustworthiness of the content analysis are discussed below.

In order to ensure the trustworthiness of the results of content analysis, the data collection method (focus group) was carefully chosen, as mentioned in Section 3.6.1. Also, the focus group interviews were semi-structured. This fitted the aim of content analysis for this study, which involved both inductive and deductive reasoning. Additionally, as indicated in Section 3.6.2, the focus group questions were based on a previous study (Galloway, 2011) that successfully yielded rich data to examine attitudes of the same population (Japanese university students), leading to the successful coding of the obtained data. Regarding the sampling strategy, as in Section 3.4, due to the limited number of questionnaire respondents who finally agreed to take part in the focus groups, the researcher did not have the option to choose purposive sampling, which could have been suitable for qualitative studies where a researcher is interested in informants who have the best knowledge concerning the research topic. This could be a threat to the trustworthiness of the results. Nevertheless, the study stated each participant's characteristics in detail and the principles and criteria used to form each focus group, which might contribute in particular to improving the transferability of the results to other contexts (see Appendix C). The optimal sample size linked to the saturated data supported the trustworthiness. As seen in Appendix I, the groupings of the data and creating of concepts can be seen relatively easily, arguably indicating sufficient sample size, which

led to the saturation of data. A description of the concepts or categories and how they were created also should be provided to indicate trustworthiness. This study was mainly analysed according to the results of the questionnaire, which are explained in detail in Sections 4.1, 5.1, 5.2, and 5.3. Regarding the analysis, the researcher was solely responsible. Since the analyses were highly contextualised rather than based on categorical sorting, it was not suitable to obtain inter-rater reliability. Instead, all the focus group discussion transcripts were coded by the researcher twice, confirming the dependability of the findings. Also, peer checking (Dörnyei, 2007; Lincoln & Guba, 1985) was conducted by asking professors and graduate students in similar fields whether the coding was clear and consistent. They carefully followed up on the whole analysis process and categorisation. The credibility of the findings was also important since the study has tapped into a latent construct (attitude). Fifteen participants agreed to receive an emailed copy of the transcript of their respective focus group discussion one or two weeks after the interview took place in order to read the transcript and then to reply to the researcher by email to confirm whether, in their opinion, the transcript was representative of the interview. All 15 participants confirmed that the transcript was an honest, accurate, and comprehensive record of their interviews. In order to improve the trustworthiness of the study at the reporting phase, the content and structure of concepts generated by the content analysis were presented in a clear and understandable way, as shown in Sections 4.2 and 5.4. Also, the study used quotations to support the confirmability of the results, showing a connection between the data and results. The quotations were translated from Japanese into English by the researcher. Back-translation (Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) was used and two bilingual external reviewers who were highly proficient in both Japanese and English were asked to interpret the quotations previously translated into English back

to Japanese. Lastly, as explained in this section, a detailed description of the content analysis process was provided to increase the dependability of the study.

3.7. Methodological limitations

This section explains the limitations of the present study, especially in terms of sampling, proficiency measure, and focus groups.

3.7.1. Sampling

The researcher is aware of the limitations of the sampling strategy: The selected sample provides no scientific basis on which results can be generalised to the wider population, and there is no way of estimating the likely level of error in the sample. While not ensuring representativeness, this sampling method provided useful information that allowed for fulfilling the aim of the study. This was a preliminary stage of research that required questionnaire construction in order to take an exploratory look at multiple factors of attitudes towards English as a global language that no previous research had investigated. Additionally, the researcher believed the technique was appropriate for this study since the available information for the population was limited and the population was widely dispersed, so that any probability sampling would have been inefficient given the researcher's time and access.

Although the main study sample covered a wide range of Japanese university students' characteristics, it is worth mentioning the difference between the target population and the sample in great detail. Most majors were related to the humanities and social sciences. The participants in those majors were from private universities, and their universities tended to be located in urban areas. Also, most of the participants in majors other than humanities and social sciences were from national universities, and their universities

tended to be located in rural areas. Most of the participants were in the first or second year of university. Especially in the focus groups, only one fourth-year student participated in the focus group because fourth-year university students typically were busy with job hunting during the time of this study (MEXT, 2018b).

The influence of these confounding variables on attitudes was carefully controlled in SEM by including them as predictors. In focus groups, the issue of how those variables could have affected the participants' attitudes was examined qualitatively.

3.7.2. Proficiency measure

The researcher is aware of the limitations of using TOEIC scores as a proficiency measure. The TOEIC measures English language abilities within business contexts, which means that it does not measure English in other contexts. The test is typically measured against native English, especially American English, and examines only reading and listening skills. Yet, taking into consideration the current study contexts and the skills the test measures, the TOEIC can be considered a reliable indicator of English language proficiency among the target population for three reasons. First, the TOEIC is a popular measure of proficiency among Japanese universities (IIBC, 2016), and all the participants had taken the TOEIC after enrolling in their universities. According to IIBC (2020a), 333 universities used the test scores as part of their entrance examinations. Also, 328 universities used the test scores for course credits in 2018 (MEXT, 2019). A total of 364,572 university students took the test with an average score of 567 in 2020 (IIBC, 2020b). Second, the detailed skills measured by the test are relevant to English usage in global contexts, which are arguably relevant to the attitudes towards English as a global language. The skills measured include an individual's ability to use English in global contexts, such as understanding explanations and instructions, understanding global

workplace conversations, following public talks and announcements, and connecting information relevant to the real world (ETS, 2019). Third, the reliability and validity of the tests have been examined and improved regularly, and some suggest a positive relationship between TOEIC scores and performance in a variety of everyday and workplace tasks in English (e.g. Powers & Powers, 2010; Wei & Low, 2017).

3.7.3. Focus group

There are some potential limitations regarding the chosen data collection method. For example, many factors of attitudes towards English as a global language may be unconscious, in which case the respondents might not have been able to report their thoughts accurately on and feelings about them. Additionally, since the researcher acting as a moderator was from the University of Oxford, which is perceived as a prestigious overseas institution in Japan, the researcher's presence might have had an impact on the focus group participants' responses, especially on those who had never studied abroad. They might have felt the need to give answers which they thought would impress the researcher or other participants who had studied abroad in the group instead of stating honest opinions. For example, they might have felt the need to be more globally oriented since they might have thought that the researcher wanted to emphasise the importance of globalisation as stated throughout Japanese education (MEXT, 2016). Contrariwise, they might have felt pressured to be more traditionally oriented because they might have thought that the researcher wanted to show results compatible with those of other studies to emphasise the need to cultivate more global mindsets.

The researcher made an effort to overcome those limitations. The researcher acted as a moderator of the focus groups as much as possible to reduce the impact of her presence and to ensure neutrality in terms of facilitating the discussions.

On the one hand, the researcher, who was herself a student at one of the Japanese universities, consciously focused on building rapport with the participants by briefly sharing a personal language learning experience which was similar to the participants' so that the participants might have perceived the researcher as closer in identity to them and their peers. On the other hand, the researcher provided necessary guidance and support as a moderator: building trust amongst the group; keeping participants focused, engaged, and attentive; encouraging participation from all the group members; probing to identify underlying attitudes, reasoning, and experience; and summarising the discussion from time to time to check that the researcher was gaining a good understanding of the participants' comments.

The researcher also used LINE to communicate with participants. This application was chosen as a primary communication tool with participants. All participants preferred and gave consent to use the application, and no personal information except an email address was disclosed in the communications. The application helped the researcher set up an informal environment where participants felt free to contact the researcher any time before, during, and after the focus groups, especially because some of the participants were worried about how the focus groups were going to operate. Also, the researcher made sure that the participants were able to take part in the focus groups from home; and as participants knew that they did not have to wear formal clothes, this ensured that the participants felt safe and comfortable in freely sharing their views about English and their past, current, and future English use. As a result, most participants joined the focus group session from their homes wearing comfortable clothes.

During the interviews, the screen was divided into three or four according to the number of participants, and they were displayed in the same way, which did not show the interviewer in a separate display, thereby treating everyone as equals.

Although the participants engaged in the discussions, they did not form opinions as a group except when discussing *Language norms*. Instead, they took other members' opinions into consideration while voicing their own opinions on most of the concepts addressed in the GELT framework. As a result, the focus groups tended to resemble group interviews, which can be generally defined as a qualitative data-gathering technique that involves the systematic questioning of multiple individuals simultaneously in either formal or informal settings (Fontana & Frey, 2000). This lack of group interaction was mostly attributable to the fact that focus group participants did not know each other in advance, and they especially had difficulty inspiring and challenging others' opinions. The online focus groups made it even more difficult for them to interact freely due to conversational turn-taking, characterised by simultaneous, overlapping responses (Matt & Stewart, 2000). Thus, data from these focus groups were analysed according to the themes emergent in the opinions presented, rather than group interaction, which was more limited than is typical in focus group methodology.

3.8. Ethical considerations

For both the pilot and the main studies, all participants were adults older than 18, which did not require the researcher to obtain permission from a responsible adult to allow the researcher to invite participants to take part in the study. The first page of the online questionnaire described the study and its procedures and provided opportunities to ask questions about the study (see Appendices D and G). In the focus groups, the researcher sent an email containing an embedded link to open the electronic consent via a secure,

web-based survey platform. The consent included a detailed description of the data collection method and the disclosure that each focus group would be AV recorded (see Appendix J). Consent was given by proceeding to the second page of the online questionnaire and completing a consent form before participating in the focus groups.

Participation in the study was entirely voluntary, and the participants were free to withdraw at any time and to decline to answer any questions. The participants were less likely to be exposed to harm since no psychologically harmful questions were included. Because no personal information, except for email addresses, was given regarding online questionnaires, identity was anonymous to the researcher. In cases where identity was known (in focus groups), the data were treated confidentially following ethical procedures at the University of Oxford while also adhering to BERA guidelines. The researcher removed all personal information from the collected data.

Data security was taken seriously in order to prevent unauthorised access, disclosure, and changes to or destruction of data. File security was ensured by controlling access to folders and files through password protection and encrypting the data. The file was stored on the University's networked fileservers with copies kept on remote and portable storage. All data were handled as securely as possible through techniques such as storage on password-protected computers with firewall and anti-virus protection installed. All materials, techniques, and processes that were used in this study were approved by the Central University of Research Ethics Committee at the University of Oxford.

The collected data will be kept for five years, then the storage will be destroyed so that no information can be recovered.

4. FINDINGS I

The findings presented in this chapter relate to Research Question 1:

1. What are the factors that underpin Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language?

    a. What factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes are related to the traditional and global orientations based on the GELT framework?

The analysis strategies for this main study in relation to Research Question 1 are discussed in Section 3.5.4.1. In this chapter, the quantitative results (questionnaire) are first presented, and then the qualitative results (focus groups) are described.

4.1. Questionnaire (The Japanese version of the GEO-Q)

4.1.1. Data screening

The data were screened for univariate outliers. A total of 6 out-of-range values due to administrative errors were identified and recoded as missing data.

4.1.2. Descriptive statistics (Attitude measure)

Since a Likert scale was used, a number was assigned to each label (*strongly disagree* = 1; *disagree* = 2; *somewhat disagree* = 3; *somewhat agree* = 4; *agree* = 5; *strongly agree* = 6). The descriptive statistics, such as means and standard deviations, for each questionnaire item were computed. Questionnaire items with means of 4.50 or higher and 2.96 or lower are shown in Tables 8 and 9 below, and all items are shown in Appendix K.

The items on which the students agreed most strongly (items with a mean of 4.50 or higher) addressed global orientations: The students had positive attitudes towards

speaking their native/first language and English, their ownership of English, and different varieties of English. In contrast, the items the respondents agreed with the least (items which had a mean of 2.96 or lower) were related to traditional orientations. These students appeared to have negative attitudes towards American or British English-speaking students who do not know different varieties of English, Standard and 'correct' English, and the inferiority of non-native varieties of English.

Table 8
Results of Descriptive statistics: Attitudinal questionnaire items, mean of 4.50 or higher and standard deviation (N =660)

Items	Mean	*SD*
Q20_It will be useful for me to have both my native/first language and English in the future.	5.25	1.07
Q8_ English is owned by not only users of English as their native/first language but also everyone who uses English.	5.14	1.10
Q10_Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.	4.71	1.17
Q12_Exposure to different English varieties in English listening and speaking classes is important to improve my English.	4.71	1.11
Q17_English language programs should provide students with opportunities to practise the language with speakers from different language backgrounds.	4.70	1.10
Q24_It is important to speak other languages in addition to English.	4.57	1.21

Table 9
Results of Descriptive statistics: Attitudinal questionnaire items, mean of 2.96 or lower and standard deviation (N =660)

Items	Mean	*SD*
Q9_Correct English grammar is required for successful communication.	2.96	1.30
Q21_Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English conversation class.	2.90	1.27
Q19_Non-native spoken English is inferior to native spoken English.	2.89	1.36
Q14_Class time should be devoted to learning the language system (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling and syntax) of standard varieties of English only.	2.73	1.24
Q15_There is little benefit for students who have mastered American or British English to learn more about (or be made aware of) other varieties of English	2.59	1.21

4.1.3. Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) (Attitude measure)

EFA was conducted to reveal the underlying structure in the questionnaire data and determine whether these factors underlying the newly developed attitude measure would

correspond with the constructs included in the GELT framework. EFA using the maximum likelihood method was conducted on the 25 items with oblique rotation (promax) since the data were relatively normally distributed (see Appendix K for the skewness and kurtosis) as explained in the pilot studies (see Section 3.5.2).

Variables that have a large number of low correlation coefficients ($r = \pm.30$) were checked by referring to the correlation matrix, as they indicate a lack of patterned relationships. Similarly, variables that have correlations above $r = \pm.90$ were checked. As a follow-up, the determinant score was checked; the value was .000257, above the rule of thumb (.00001; Field, 2009). The current data thus were deemed to have patterned relationships among the variables. Bartlett's test of sphericity [χ^2 (276) = 5637.793, p < .001] also indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for EFA. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .90, and all KMO values for individual items were > .73 which was well above the acceptable limit of .5 (Field, 2009). The communalities of the items showed that Q1 (My native/first language is a useful resource for learning English) had a small amount of variance (15%) in common with the rest of the items in the analysis; thus, Q1 was deleted.

An initial analysis was run with the 24 items to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Five factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 56.73 % of the variance. The scree plot showed inflexions (Cattell, 1966) that would justify retaining five factors. Given the convergence of the scree plot, five factors were retained in the analysis. The percentage of the non-redundant residuals was checked by referring to the reproduced correlation matrix to determine whether a model was a good fit (having less than 50% of the non-redundant residuals with absolute values that

are greater than .05; Yong & Pearce, 2013) which held true for the current data. The reproduced correlation matrix and the original correlation coefficients matrix also were compared to check if the model was a good fit (having small residuals between the two matrices; Yong & Pearce, 2013), which also held true for the data. The items that clustered on the same factors with an absolute value greater than .30 were set for interpretation (DiStefano, Zhu, & Mîndrilă, 2009) and suggested that Factor 1 represented *English use with target communities* (5 items), Factor 2 represented *Awareness about varieties of English* (6 items), Factor 3 represented *Multilingualism* (4 items), Factor 4 represented *Language norms* (3 items), and Factor 5 represented *Preference for native English* (6 items). The details of each factor are elaborated upon below.

In order to check the internal consistency of the questionnaire items, reliability analyses were conducted. For each factor Cronbach's results were as follows: *English use with target communities*, α= .80; *Awareness about varieties of English*, α= .81; *Multilingualism*, α= .78; *Language norms*; α= .74; and *Preference for native English*, α= .63. Taking into account Kline's criteria (1999), all factors except *Preference for native English* had acceptable reliability >.7. Even though *Preference for native English* had low alpha statistic, it was kept in the final analysis because this factor was extracted in the pilot study and included in the GELT framework. Additionally, the proposed cut-off point should not be applied blindly since the estimated reliability may vary according to a number of features, such as sample size, the number of items, response types, and the domain being tested (Brown, 2014; Plonsky & Derrick, 2016). Some cross-loadings were found (Q17 and 19). Those items were included in Factor 3 and Factor 5 respectively since the items loaded most strongly on the respective factors and the inclusion in these factors was in accordance with the results of the piloting and the GELT framework (see

Table 10 for a list of these five factors, the items which loaded on each factor, and the reliability coefficient for each factor).

Factor 1: *English use with target communities*

This factor was the same as Factor 2 (*English use with target communities*) in the pilot study. This factor included five items indicative of an interest in learning various English-speaking communities and using English with native and non-native speakers of English. An item related to a sense of ownership of English was also loaded (i.e. English is one of my languages).

Factor 2: *Awareness about varieties of English*

Most of the items loaded on this factor were from Factor 1 (*Awareness about varieties of English*) in the pilot study. The six items included in this factor reflected an interest in and awareness of the importance of different varieties of English and learning these varieties.

Factor 3: *Multilingualism*

All the items (4 items) loaded on this factor were from Factor 1 (*Awareness about varieties of English*) in the pilot study. The factor included items indicative of beliefs about the importance of being able to use their native language and English. An item related to a sense of ownership of English was also loaded (i.e. English is owned by not only users of English as their native/first language but also everyone who uses English).

Factor 4: *Language norms*

The factor was determined by appreciative loadings from three items reflecting beliefs about language norms, the importance of learning and being taught 'correct' grammar,

and Standard English. These items were included in Factor 4 (*Language norms*) in the pilot study.

Factor 5: *Preference for native English*

The six items loaded on the factor largely overlapped with Factor 3 (*Preference for native English*) and Factor 4 (*Language norms*) in the pilot study. The items included in this factor reflected positive views about American and British English acting as the teaching models in classrooms and being seen as the 'correct' varieties; learning about the cultures associated with these varieties of English; beliefs about the importance of learning these varieties; and a desire for native-like fluency and accent, along with the legitimacy of native-speaker superiority.

Table 11 shows a factor correlation matrix. Factors interpreted as *English use with target communities* (*Target communities*) and *Awareness about varieties of English* (*Varieties of English*); *Target communities* and *Multilingualism*; *Varieties of English* and *Multilingualism* showed correlations .65, .50, and .62 respectively. The correlation between *Language norms* and *Preference for native English* (*Native English*) was .29. Some correlations among factors were expected since a psychological construct such as attitude 'is rarely partitioned into neatly packaged units that function independently of one another' (Osborne, 2015, p.5).

Table 11
Factor correlation matrix (main study)

Factor	1	2	3	4	5
1. Target communities	1.000	.654	.500	-.112	.338
2. Varieties of English	**.654**	1.000	.618	-.062	.355
3. Multilingualism	**.500**	**.618**	1.000	-.363	.198
4. Language norms	-.112	-.062	-.363	1.000	.285
5. Native English	.338	.355	.198	.285	1.000

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.

Table 10

Results of exploratory factor and reliability analyses of the main study for the attitude measure [a]

Items	factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1: English with target communities (α= .80)					
Q2_I am learning English because I want to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.	.829				
Q18_I am learning English because I want to know about various English-speaking communities.	.770				
Q22_I am learning English because I want to communicate with non-native speakers of English.	.701				
Q5_I am learning English because I want to communicate with native speakers of English.	.609				
Q16_English is one of my languages.	.481				
Factor 2: Awareness about varieties of English (α= .81)					
Q10_Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.		.663			
Q13_Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures.		.574			
Q25_Learning the culture of native English-speaking countries improves my English.		.541			
Q4_The good English teacher provides opportunities for learners to learn about different English varieties.		.491			
Q6_Awareness of different English varieties will enable me to learn about a greater range of English speakers.		.473			
Q12_Exposure to different English varieties in English listening and speaking classes is important to improve my English.		.470			
Factor 3: Multilingualism (α= .78)					
Q8_English is owned by not only users of English as their native/first language but also everyone who uses English			.746		
Q20_It will be useful for me to have both my native/first language and English in the future.			.719		
Q17_English language programs should provide students with opportunities to practise the language with speakers from different language backgrounds.	.349		.469		
Q24_It is important to speak other languages in addition to English.			.302		
Factor 4: Language norms (α= .74)					
Q21_Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English conversation classes.				.779	
Q9_Correct English grammar is required for successful communication.				.750	
Q14_Class time should be devoted to learning the language system (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling and syntax) of standard varieties of English only.				.542	
Factor 5: Preference for native English (α= .63)					
Q7_In terms of grammar and pronunciation, English varieties such as British and American English are more correct than English varieties such as Indian or Singaporean English.					.550
Q3_The goal of learning the English language is to speak with a native-like accent.					.519
Q11_Good English listening and speaking instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English.					.504
Q19_Non-native spoken English is inferior to native spoken English.			-.321		.456
Q23_The role of the teacher is to help students develop native-like proficiency.					.401
Q15_There is little benefit for students who have mastered American or British English to learn more about (or be made aware of) other varieties of English.					.362

a. Note: Only loadings of ± .30 or greater are included in this solution

4.1.4. Summary

Overall, five factors pertaining to attitudes towards English as a global language were found: *English use with target communities*, *Awareness about varieties of English*, *Multilingualism*, *Language norms*, and *Preference for native English*. The final version of the attitude measure yielded results similar to those of the pilot study (see Section 3.5.2.4). This further supported the reliability and validity of the instrument.

These five factors corresponded with the constructs in the GELT framework. The students' attitudes were relatively consistent. The participants who showed positive attitudes towards diverse varieties of English also had positive attitudes towards learning and being taught these varieties. Similarly, those who assigned high ratings to items related to native English also endorsed items about learning and being taught native English. There was no clear relationship between global and traditional orientations. For instance, the participants who endorsed items about diverse varieties of English did not necessarily show negative attitudes towards items related to native English. Unlike the pilot study, a weak positive correlation between *Language norms* and *Native English* was found ($r < .3$) (Cohen, 1988) in the main study.

Although there were similarities in the factor structures between the main and pilot studies and each factor was explained by the items loaded on it, a more in-depth explanation for each factor was needed. Based on quantitative analysis, qualitative data were collected and analysed. The findings are presented in the next section.

4.2. Focus groups

As described in Section 3.6.6, content analysis was carried out. First, the data were categorised according to the attitudinal factors, deductively coding the data according to

the constructs that emerged from the GEO-Q. Then, within each factor, further analyses were conducted inductively. The results of these analyses that pertain to Research Question 1 are presented in this chapter.

4.2.1. Focus group data related to Factor 1: *English use with target communities*

As described in the groupings (see Section 3.4), in the focus groups, *Group A* participants were the most open to the Factor 1 items. *Group I* had the least positive attitudes towards these items. This focus group data supported the results of the questionnaire. Most participants in *Groups A* to *G*, who indicated greater agreement with the questionnaire items, stated that they wanted to communicate not only with native speakers, but also with non-native speakers. They were planning to use English with a range of target interlocutors for business, education, travel, and media. Participants in *Groups F*, *H*, and *I* were less positive towards using English as a global language. Participants in these groups perceived English as something that would help them get a job or obtain a good TOEIC score. Two participants who wanted to become junior high or senior high school English language teachers stated that they were planning to use English specifically with Japanese speakers of English.

4.2.1.1. *Situations where the participants thought that they would use English with both native and non-native speakers*

Within the focus group, the globally oriented participants thought that they would use English with native and non-native speakers in a range of future domains, including business, study abroad, travel, and media.

Participants 3, *6*, *8*, *10*, *11*, *13*,*14*, *15*, *16*, *17*, *18*, *22*, and *23* mentioned that their jobs might involve working with people overseas. These participants were fully aware that

they would use English in this capacity not only with native speakers, but also with non-native speakers. Those future jobs included medical occupations, international organisations, trade, aviation, information technology, and civil service. For example, *Participant 11* stated the following:

> I want to be a dentist. I want to read articles about dental research in English. If I start studying the latest research in dentistry with people from overseas, I want to use English as the world's lingua franca because the language allows me to communicate with people who are not native speakers of English such as people from China.

Participant 16 also had a clear idea about his future job, stating 'I want to work for a prefectural government office in the future and I would like to promote and sell prefectural products, such as rice and sake, to foreign countries using English'. *Participants 1* and *12* had clearly not decided what they were going to do, but they showed an interest in working with people from all over the world. *Participant 1* mentioned, 'I am not thinking about working overseas in the future. Nevertheless, we can no longer do business in Japan . . . I still have not decided what I am going to do in the future, but I feel that I need to use English in any case'.

Participants 5, *10*, and *22* were planning to study abroad and use English while overseas, which was not necessarily connected to Anglophone countries. *Participant* 22 mentioned, 'I want to study abroad at a university in Thailand where English is a medium of instruction because I would like to study international development'. *Participant 10* said, 'I have not decided where to study abroad. I want to use English in order to make friends when I study abroad'. In a similar domain, *Participants 4* and *9* expected to use English when they travelled in the future. *Participant 4* mentioned, 'I do not think I will use

English at work in the future. I love travelling, and during my travelling, I found English very useful. I really want to continue to use English because I enjoy talking to people with diverse backgrounds while travelling'.

Participants 2, *7*, and *21*, who mentioned that they might use English to read news or publications or listen to music, showed an interest in accessing information across the world in English. For example, *Participant 7* mentioned, 'If I decide to stay in Japan, it is not necessary for me to speak English at all, to be honest. Well, I should be able to read newspapers in English for self-improvement though'.

4.2.1.2. *Situations where the participants thought that they would not use English with either native or non-native speakers*

Participants 19, *20*, *24*, *26*, *28*, *29*, and *30* had less positive orientations towards the questionnaire items related to English usage with target communities, mostly because they were less likely to use English in their perceived future. For these students, especially the ones who had the least positive attitudes towards such items, the aim of learning English was for instrumental purposes to get ahead in business or achieve high test scores, rather than to use the language with target interlocutors.

Participants 19, *20*, and *24* mentioned that their future jobs would be unlikely to involve English, which could explain their somewhat lower ratings on the questionnaire. *Participant 19* stated, 'Now I have gotten a job offer from a company in this rural area, and I will be less likely to use English. I will not use English except for contacting my foreign friend in English on Facebook. I assume English will become something from a different world which is further away than ever before'. *Participant 20* also mentioned the following:

> I have not decided what to do in the future. I am not thinking about getting a job where I have to use English a lot. I want to get a job without taking advantage of studying English as my major. I think of my English major as something extra. I am planning to stay in Japan for a while without using English.

Similarly, *Participant 24* did not think she would use English in the future: ‘I am going to be a junior high or senior high school Japanese language teacher; thus, I do not have any intentions to use English in the future, to be honest’.

All participants in *Group I* mentioned that they studied English just to get a good score on the TOEIC test. *Participant 30* mentioned, ‘We currently need a high TOEIC score in order to get a job. I may use English in the future, but I really do not care whether I am going to use the language in the future. I study English just for the TOEIC test’. *Participant 28* mentioned, ‘Well . . . I have not decided on my future yet. I have not decided what I want to do in the future. I will study English a bit just for job hunting. I am not planning to work for foreign companies’. *Participant 29* agreed with the others and mentioned that he was not necessarily studying English for future use. Thus, it seemed as though learners’ orientations towards their future target interlocutors was related to their perceived future use for English, whether it be for test purposes only or driven by a perception that they would not use English at all.

4.2.1.3. *Situations where the participants thought that they would use English with Japanese speakers*

Participants 25 and *27* also had less positive orientations towards questionnaire items related to English usage with target communities, mostly because they thought that they were going to use English with Japanese speakers. They wanted to teach English at junior

or senior high schools in Japan and did not strongly agree with items related to global target communities. They were planning to become English language teachers and thought that they were more likely to teach English and use it only with Japanese students in the classroom.

4.2.2. Focus group data related to Factor 2: *Awareness about varieties of English*

As described in the groupings (see Section 3.4), *Group A* was the most open to the items included in this factor. *Group I* tended to have less positive attitudes towards variation in English. These results from the focus groups partly supported the questionnaire results. *Groups A* to *G* tended to be open to diverse varieties of English for different reasons. Those reasons included reflecting on sociolinguistic realities, understanding regional influences on language, and evaluating varieties against English spoken by native or Japanese speakers. Most participants in *Groups D* and *G* were aware of different varieties but had not necessarily formed attitudes towards them. In contrast to their questionnaire responses, two participants in *Group H* were open to different varieties of English in the focus group. All participants in *Group I* had very limited awareness of the existence of varieties of English. Regarding teaching varieties in the classroom, the participants in *Groups A* to *E* were positive about incorporating them into the curriculum at some point. Some participants (in *Groups A* to *E*) mentioned that we should incorporate more varieties into classrooms at all levels, while others (in *Groups B* and *E*) mentioned that the varieties should only be incorporated at a tertiary level. The remaining participants were less positive about incorporating a range of English varieties into teaching and voiced the opinion that we should focus on teaching native English (explored further within Factor 5, see Section 4.2.5).

4.2.2.1. *Exposure and openness to variation in English*

In the focus groups, numerous reasons were suggested for openness to learning different varieties of English, although some participants were not aware of the varieties' existence. Individuals who were aware of different varieties of English believed learners should be open to such varieties given their connection to the sociolinguistic reality in a globalised world. *Participants 3*, *8*, and *21* not only had positive attitudes towards different varieties of English in general, but also spoke positively about the Japanese variety of English.

Participant 3 has been exposed to Australian and Italian varieties of English in addition to American and British English and expressed resentment that Japanese speakers are frequently criticised for their variety of English. She stated, 'We already have many varieties of English. I believe we should establish "Japanese English" and we should speak that variety, accepting its features'. *Participant 8* mentioned, 'We should accept English as spoken by Japanese people. We are more likely to speak with Indian and Chinese speakers than native speakers of English'. *Participant 21* said, 'I believe it is okay for Japanese people to have "Japanese English." We do not have to imitate either American English or British English. I am currently interested in English spoken by Chinese speakers and other non-native varieties of English'.

Others agreed with being open to different varieties in general. All three participants in *Group C* had a lot of exposure to many varieties of English. All agreed that learners should have more positive attitudes towards different varieties of English. *Participants 8* and *10* especially emphasised the importance of being aware of and able to understand those varieties. *Participant 10* said, 'It does not mean we should not listen to native English, but if we get used to this type of English, we will have difficulty understanding English spoken by speakers of English as a second language. There are more speakers of

English as a second language than native English speakers'. *Participant 14* was very positive about different varieties of English and mentioned that 'Recently an increasing number of people, especially in China and other Asian countries, speak English. We must be able to deal with different varieties of English. I think being able to deal with different varieties is very important, so I try to interact with those people'.

Participants 4, *7*, and *25* were positive about the different varieties in general but had some reservations regarding their importance. *Participant 4* was very open to non-standard varieties and even appreciated them, as illustrated by the following comment: 'I enjoy the differences because I can learn from them and the culture associated with them. This motivates me to learn English more and more'. This participant was aware of a range of varieties from Kenya, Brunei, Iceland, Germany, and France, but also expressed a slightly negative feeling about specific varieties, as illustrated below:

> I just can't put up with English spoken by French people. I certainly admire their English. Yet, when I spoke to French people in English, I felt like I was accused of something, which irritated me.

Participant 25 was also very open to varieties and was familiar with varieties of English spoken by people from New Zealand, Australia, the United Kingdom, Thailand, the Philippines, Taiwan, and Zambia, although the participant had reservations about some of these: 'English varieties spoken by Zambian and Pilipino people were difficult for me to understand. I heard English spoken by Thai people recently and they sounded like they could speak English well'. *Participant 7* was also aware of varieties that included those from Australia, India, and Ethiopia and confirmed that 'Japanese English' could be seen as its own variety. He was familiar with the notion of World Englishes and had a very positive view about diverse varieties of English. At the same time, he believed that those

varieties have to follow 'correct' grammar rules to avoid speakers being unintelligible to one another.

In terms of some of the participants' understanding of regional influences, *Participant 6* partly agreed with *Participant 7*'s opinion as expressed above and mentioned the following:

> I have been exposed to English spoken by people from Australia, England, Scotland, Wales, Germany, France, India, and China. Regarding the diversity of English varieties, there is no communication problem as long as we use the same basic grammar and words. We have to take into account the fact that some words used by even native speakers are regional, and neither English as a native/first language speakers nor English as a second/foreign language speakers can understand them. We can make use of communication strategies, especially with the help of the Internet.

Participant 17 was exposed to English spoken by Singaporean and Vietnamese people and had difficulty understanding them, stating 'I do not think they should fix their English or anything like that. We have to be able to understand them. It is inevitable to have regional and cultural influences on the language'. Although *Participant 16* had no exposure to different varieties of English other than American and English spoken by Japanese, he agreed that the different varieties should be accepted after hearing *Participant 17*'s opinion.

Some participants were aware of the existence of varieties in the Japanese language and used this fact to underpin a belief that varieties of English should be accepted. *Participant*

1 had an open attitude towards diverse varieties of English through drawing attention to the dialects in Japan:

> I do not know very much about what kinds of English exist; nevertheless, I imagine people speak differently depending on countries and regions. We also have many dialects in Japan. Regarding varieties of English, we have different cultures, and we may have different pronunciations, which is totally acceptable.

Participant 5 also supported notions of diversity in English by saying that 'I recognise that there are differences between Australian English and British English. English also has dialects as we have in our language'.

Some participants used their awareness of varieties of English to position native English as a desirable yardstick in contrast to the English spoken by Japanese speakers as an undesirable one. *Participant 11* was very open to different varieties of English, having been exposed to English spoken by Australian and Chinese people. She also mentioned that although 'Chinese English' was different from native English, it was more fluent than English spoken by Japanese people, especially in terms of vocabulary and sentence structure. *Participant 22* was exposed to English spoken by Australian, Brunei, and Korean speakers. She noticed differences between these varieties, especially between American and Australian English. She found the English she heard in Brunei easier to understand than the Australian English and thought that the variety was particularly desirable, noting that it did not have any particular accent (positioning the American accent as the default). *Participant 27* was also exposed to different varieties of English that included Singaporean and Australian English, and observed, 'When I was talking to students from Singapore, they used Singlish that occasionally required paraphrasing.

Although we did not have any communication breakdowns, I felt Singlish was inferior to native English'.

Some participants positioned native and Japanese varieties as a yardstick for analysis. In *Group F*, *Participant 18* mentioned the following:

> I have had opportunities to interact with both native speakers and non-native speakers that included German, French, Italian, Swiss, and Chinese students. Their English was very different from the English spoken by Japanese people. The English spoken by European students was very close to native English. Even though the English spoken by Chinese students was different from native English, they were very close compared to 'Japanese English'.

Participant 20 mentioned 'I am mainly talking to American, Spanish, Mexican, and German people. Those non-native varieties of English are much closer to native English than "Japanese English".'

Similarly, *Participants 19* and *24* noticed differences among varieties of English, including Chinese, Korean, Spanish, Brazilian, Canadian, French, Australian, and New Zealand, and used American English as the benchmark to analyse these.

One participant evaluated non-native English varieties positively because they were close to the English spoken by Japanese speakers and thus familiar. *Participant 15* mentioned that it was easier for her to understand different varieties of English, such as French, Filipina, Taiwanese, and Korean, as these speakers used English as a second language and spoke slowly with simple words. She mentioned, 'I find it very positive and feel a strong sense of familiarity, and it is easier to understand their English than even that of native speakers. I have a really good impression'.

Some participants knew of the existence of varieties but did not think that they were different. *Participant 2* mentioned that he was exposed to English spoken by French and Singaporean people but thought that they were not largely different from what he thought of as English. *Participant 12* was exposed to English spoken by people from China and Eastern European countries, whom she felt were fluent. *Participant 12* did not see the differentiation between native English and other varieties of English. *Participant 13*, who was exposed to English spoken by Australian, Chinese, and Korean people and was also aware of varieties of English, mentioned that he could not discern the difference between native English and the other English varieties. Further to this, some participants (*Participants 23*, *26*, *28*, *29*, and *30*) did not have any ideas about English varieties, mainly due to a lack of exposure. These students appeared in the later focus groups, indicating a link between exposure and a closed orientation to English varieties, which is explored further in Research Question 2.

4.2.2.2. *Incorporating diverse varieties into classroom practices*

Findings from the focus groups also revealed that those who were open to diverse varieties of English were more likely to agree with teaching them at all educational levels, while others mentioned that varieties should only be introduced at the tertiary level. Some mentioned that only native varieties of English should be taught in the classroom, which is explored in detail in Factor 5 (see Section 4.2.5).

All participants in *Group A* and two of the four participants in *Group B* agreed that different varieties of English should be included in English language teaching in Japan. *Participants 4* and *6* mentioned that those varieties should be included at all educational levels, including entrance examinations in the interest of authenticity. *Participant 4* criticised the current testing system for conforming to native-speaker norms. In a different

group, *Participant 14* claimed that it would be important to see the big picture. She mentioned, 'I do not want to negate others' opinions, but we should study English not for entrance examinations but for communication. If so, we should not be restricted to certain varieties of English. We have to learn English that enables individuals to interact with people from various countries in the language'. *Participant 17* agreed with *Participant 14*'s opinion to a certain extent by saying that 'It does not have to be mandatory, but it may be important to learn diverse varieties of English from time to time'. *Participant 10*'s attitude was also consistent with these participants', and she mentioned that it was very important to teach various types of English in the classroom; however, she was the only member of her group to voice such an opinion.

Other lone voices supporting similar opinions could be found in the other groups. *Participant 11* supported the learning of different varieties of English in class, especially English spoken by Chinese people. *Participant 25* mentioned the following:

> I want to learn non-native English rather than native English without having either American or British accents in the classroom. I am interested in British English, but I wonder if learning only British or American English would be useful. If I learn varieties of English other than American or British English, it may be more useful. I am genuinely interested in learning them. I also think that we need to be more open to diverse varieties of English.

Participants 5 and *7* mentioned that such diverse varieties should be introduced at the tertiary level, while at the elementary and secondary levels, only native English should be introduced, mainly because of university entrance examinations. *Participant 7* stated the following:

> In order to prepare for the university entrance examination, we have to study examination English at elementary, junior high, and senior high schools. Honestly, we do not have time to study speaking. Besides, I believe that examination English helps you to gain basic English skills.

In the same group, *Participant 5* agreed with *Participant 7*'s opinion and added that 'At elementary, junior high, and senior high schools, we should learn "pure" English, such as American and British English because it is the most efficient way for us to master examination English. It may take longer to learn such English if we have to work on other varieties with more accents'. In another group, *Participant 16* echoed the opinion that the school-level curriculum needs to help students prepare for the English entrance examination rather than provide opportunities to learn about diverse varieties of English, which would be better placed at the tertiary level.

4.2.3. Focus group data related to Factor 3: *Multilingualism*

Responses for this factor varied within some focus groups. A less clear tendency was found between groups compared to the ones for Factors 1 and 2 in the questionnaire as well as in the focus groups. Overall, most groups were positive about the importance of knowing multiple languages; however, participants in *Group I* indicated the least positive attitudes towards multilingualism as a group. Most participants mentioned that English is an important and convenient communication tool for different reasons, such as connecting with people and gaining access to knowledge, and generally as a skill that is essential in the world. Some participants saw the language's value only in terms of English as an academic subject rather than as a language for future use.

4.2.3.1. *English as a tool*

A majority of participants agreed on the importance of English in addition to their first language as a convenient tool for connecting with people. The reasons provided for this positive orientation included the need for a common communication tool for business and education, as these were previously mentioned as their relevant future domains in Factor 1 (see Section 4.2.1). These participants placed value on English with regard to its use as a tool to connect with other people with different first languages, which was sometimes based on prior ELF experiences. Most of the participants saw English as a common language to communicate with people from different language backgrounds in a multilingual and globalised world (*Participants 1*, *2*, *4*, *5*, *8*, *9*, *10*, *11*, *12*, *14*, *18*, *19*, *20*, *21*, *22*, *24*, *25*, and *27*).

Even the participants who stated that they were unlikely to use English in the future (see *Participants 19*, *20*, and *24* within Factor 1, Section 4.2.1) viewed English as a valuable tool for communication. As an illustration, *Participant 19* stated the following:

> I do believe that English is a communication tool because when I talk to international students with different linguistic and cultural backgrounds at my university, we always end up speaking in English and manage to get the meaning across. Since I live in a rural area, I don't see any foreigners anywhere except at the university. The experience at my university was the first time for me to actually realise that English was indeed a communication tool. Before that, I felt that I had been studying something from an unknown world and something I just had to study since junior high school. I really enjoyed studying English; yet, I was always wondering where I was actually going to use it.

Participant 20 agreed with *Participant 19*'s opinion, saying that she found English to be very convenient when it came to communicating with foreign students at her university.

Participant 21 saw English as a tool but criticised the way English was encroaching on Japanese in higher education. She described the following situation:

> In many universities, globalisation is advocated, and English as a medium of instruction is getting popular and is perceived as cool. Personally, I feel it is unfortunate. It is indeed very sad to shift from Japanese to English at universities without paying attention to the value of being able to study university-level materials in our language.

Thus, for this student, English as a convenient tool was perceived as a double-edged sword that both promoted and also detracted from multilingualism and linguistic diversity.

Some participants studying for a medical degree thought of English as a tool to gain access to knowledge via reading materials that are only available in English. *Participant 13* mentioned that he was learning English as a subject at the moment and that he thought that it would become necessary as a tool in the near future. He mentioned that he could gain knowledge not only from Japanese reading materials, such as academic journal articles and books, but also from English reading materials. *Participant 11* agreed with *Participant 13*.

Lastly, some participants declared strong opinions that English is now essential due to globalisation. *Participant 17* no longer perceived knowledge of English as an advantage, but rather as an essential skill, stating that it is now normal to be able to speak English. *Participant 15* agreed:

> Even if you can speak English, people will no longer be impressed by it. Being able to speak the language is no longer an advantage. When I went to a job conference in Japan for students who had studied abroad, 30% of the companies there gave a presentation in English. I was surprised and concerned that it would be impossible to compete with other candidates without the ability to speak English. Also, when I was at an airport in Paris, airport staff spoke to me in English instead of French because they thought it would be easier to communicate in English than in French with people coming to the airport. Thus, English was used in a place where people with different backgrounds interact, and I felt that English is the most popular language in the world. Based on these experiences, I think English has become an established communication tool.

Similarly, *Participant 8* stated that English will no longer give people an advantage because so many people can speak English already. *Participant 3* also stated a similar opinion by saying, 'The common perception of the world is to have an ability to communicate in English. If one wants to get a job, one has to be able to use English'. *Participants 6*, *7*, *16*, and *29* expressed a similar opinion, albeit not as strongly stated as those of the participants mentioned above.

In contrast, other participants saw English as something they needed to study. *Participants 26, 28, 29*, and *30* acknowledged that while English is a tool for people in certain domains, such as when they travel overseas, they had never personally encountered a situation where they could imagine using it as a very useful tool. *Participant 30* stated that he studied English for the TOEIC test and to attract better job prospects. *Participant 28* agreed with *Participant 30*, saying, 'I was told that one would use English at work in the future and would need to study English to get a better job. I do

not want to study English if I do not have to do so'. All the participants in *Group I* agreed that a majority of their friends held very similar opinions as they do, that is, studying English as a subject instead of as a communication tool. Similarly*, Participant 12* mentioned that the main purpose of learning English was to pass tests and that English tended to be perceived as 'something from a different world', as *Participant 19* mentioned. They still saw English as one of their study subjects, like mathematics, and they remained unsure about how English would be useful to them as a future communication, although they acknowledged that it might be for others.

4.2.4. Focus group data related to Factor 4: *Language norms*

There was greater homogeneity of attitudes within the groups, and this similarity was reflected in the data emerging from the focus groups, indicating that the results of the focus groups were similar to those of the questionnaire. A less clear tendency was found between groups compared to the ones found for Factors 1 and 2 in the questionnaire as well as between focus groups, as also shown in the questionnaire results. Most participants tended to agree that 'correct' pronunciation was important for successful conversation. Participants who focused on 'correct' grammar and pronunciation perceived 'correct' or Standard English, like native English, mostly American and British English. Some participants who focused on fluency did not necessarily assume that fluent English usage was linked to 'correct' or Standard English that should conform to native English. Some participants critically questioned the notion of 'correctness' in terms of English use in society in general and the classroom in particular; others addressed these issues in testing.

4.2.4.1. *Grammar and pronunciation*

Those who thought 'correct' grammar was important tended to think that knowing 'correct' grammar indicated a deeper level of study. *Participant 7* put emphasis on the importance of grammar in communication:

> Although I want to speak like a native speaker, it is not possible. Thus, what one can do is to get closer to native English. With regard to grammar, unlike pronunciation, anyone can acquire native-speaker usage if they memorise all the grammar rules. People should practise a lot, in order to be able to use grammar 'correctly' in speaking. It would be very embarrassing if people cannot use grammar properly because it means that people were too lazy to memorise the rules.

A majority of the participants thought that 'correct' pronunciation was important for communication and that it was more important than 'correct' grammar. In most cases, there was a consensus within each focus group. *Group A* agreed that pronunciation should conform to textbooks or native English usage, mostly American English, even more so than grammar because not even native speakers use 'correct' grammar. In *Group E*, *Participants 14*, *15*, and *16* agreed that grammar was not important for communication. *Participant 16* added, 'Perfect grammar is not necessary for communication. However, the more knowledge of grammar one has, the more effective communication is likely to be. Thus, grammar is not necessary but is rather an advantage'. In the same group *Participant 17* described English with 'correct' pronunciation that conforms to native English usage as important and 'flawless', as opposed to Singaporean English, which he was unable to understand. *Participant 16* believed that such 'flawless' pronunciation was that used in textbooks and standardised university entrance examinations based on

American English, which he considered to be Standard English. *Group F* also reached a consensus on the importance of pronunciation over grammar for communication. *Participant 20* stated, ‘I had been biased and believed that we could not communicate in English at all without using “correct” grammar before going to university. At university, I gradually came to the realisation that one could have successful communication without using “correct” grammar and a minority knew or used grammar perfectly. Pronunciation is more important than grammar’. *Participant 19* agreed with *Participant 20* and added that there are grammar rules one has to follow and those that can be ignored: ‘If grammar could change the meaning of what one is trying to convey, one has to abide by the rules. Yet, one does not have to do so if the difference in grammar rules does not alter what one is trying to communicate. It should be accepted that one does not have to follow the rules strictly’. Similarly, *Participant 18* mentioned that as long as one knows the grammar rules taught in Japanese junior and senior high schools, one can converse successfully. *Participant 22* also agreed with the importance of pronunciation instead of grammar because the grammar that she learned in school was not used in the actual communication she experienced in the past. Participants in *Group B* all agreed that they pay attention to pronunciation because it affects clear understanding. The remaining groups echoed similar opinions about the importance of pronunciation.

Group D unanimously agreed that ‘correct’ pronunciation helps people to be more easily understood but that the type of pronunciation need not be native English for all contexts. *Participant 12* stated, ‘You do not have to be able to speak “correct” English like a native speaker if you want to have everyday conversations. But if you want to use English for work, one cannot help but think that it would be difficult if you cannot speak native English to ensure successful communication’.

Groups H and *I* had less developed opinions about 'correctness'. In *Group H*, *Participant 25* mentioned that comprehensible pronunciation is 'correct', and *Participant 26* mentioned textbook English as 'correct' because it sounds the most familiar and is the easiest to understand. *Group I* members all agreed on the importance of pronunciation for communication. They were unable to articulate any further, but their 'correct' pronunciation was mainly associated with American English.

4.2.4.2. *Fluency*

Fluency was particularly mentioned in discussions emerging from *Groups C* and *H*. They thought that fluency was the most important for successful communication, but it was not associated with native English usage. *Participant 10*, who focused less on 'correctness' mentioned that 'In business, we do not have time to think word by word. We need to be able to speak English consistently. I think it is important to speak English fluently even though you may make a few mistakes'. *Participant 8* agreed with *Participant 10* and said that 'It is crucial for us to be able to tell others that we do not understand right away'. *Participant 15* also viewed fluency as the key to successful communication.

Participant 27 linked fluency to 'correctness' and stated that 'If fluent conversations are taking place, I think they are speaking "correct" English'. *Participant 25* agreed by stating that if one can say things in English without thinking too much, one is perceived as speaking 'correct' English. *Participant 26* agreed.

4.2.4.3. *Questioning 'correctness'*

While most participants clearly acknowledged the existence of 'correct' or Standard English, and some equated it with native English, others had reservations about 'correctness'. Some participants cast doubt on the notion of 'correctness'. *Participant 23*

had never thought about the meaning of ‘correctness’ in English. She believed that American and British English are both ‘correct’ since they were the only varieties to which she had been exposed, but she did not really know why they were ‘correct’. *Participant 21* mentioned that it was too arrogant to make any judgements about ‘correctness’ in English:

> There should be no hierarchy in the language. It is important to have a certain consistency in grammar. We should accept differences as long as we can communicate with each other. I do not know which one we should consider as standard.

Some participants also voiced doubts about the notion of ‘correctness’ in the classroom in Japan. *Participant 9* made the following statement:

> I think Japanese people have a tendency to seek ‘correctness’ in English in class; in other words, we aim to be able to speak American and British English. I do not think we will ever be able to speak the same as those native speakers, although we can get closer to that level. I believe that we will end up speaking English with Japanese accents and usage. Thus, I believe that as long as we can get meaning across, we do not have to achieve the ‘correct’ English with excellent pronunciation.

Participant 10 agreed with *Participant 9* and stated, ‘We have to value diversity in English as an international language . . . We need basic grammar; yet, we should embrace the different varieties of English with different pronunciations’. *Participant 9* again mentioned the following:

> In the classroom, we should emphasise the importance of being more open to the English we speak. This is not a black-and-white matter. We cannot say that we must speak like a native speaker. I think we have to take into consideration both sides and pay attention to 'correctness' to a certain extent as well as make it on our own. We currently care too much about attaining native-like and 'correct' pronunciation and grammar. We should focus a bit more on the significance of our unique English usage.

Participant 3 also mentioned, 'I often hear that Japanese people are afraid of making mistakes in grammar and pronunciation and thus do not participate actively in English language class. We have to prioritise being able to convey our opinions clearly instead of aiming for the perfect native pronunciation'. She also mentioned that society still lacks understanding of English's role as an international language and has not accepted using English in our own way. 'I think we should keep our originality and consider English as a world communication tool instead of something in which we should conform to certain norms. We have not gotten there yet. Thus, we still have to conform to native norms'.

Participant 4 addressed the testing problem that prompts learners to conform to native norms:

> If tests accept various varieties of English, we do not have to care about the 'correctness' of the language, and it would become more familiar and easier to use. I think testing is the reason that we accept the notion of 'correctness'. We feel pressured to speak it, and it requires courage because of the fear of not being able to speak English 'correctly'.

Participant 19 also mentioned that testing in Japan, especially at the secondary level, has contributed to perfectionism in English, which has prevented learners from using English freely.

4.2.5. Focus group data related to Factor 5: *Preference for native English*

Similar to the questionnaire responses, all participants' attitudes were less positive overall in the focus group data. Attitudes were mixed within each focus group, and no clear tendency was found between groups, unlike the ones found for Factors 1 and 2, supporting the questionnaire results. Participants stated that native English was mainly associated with American and/or British English. Attitudes mainly reflected a positive image of the United States and/or the United Kingdom, the advantages of speaking native English, and associations of native English with comprehensibility. Many participants tended to think that being able to speak native English would be an advantage. Reasons for supporting the teaching of native English centred on the power the United States wields, effectiveness, testing, the origin of the language, and practicalities. There were a few participants who questioned the current focus on teaching native English in the classroom. Those who strongly agreed with incorporating diverse varieties of English into classroom teaching in Factor 2 (see Section 4.2.2) did not attach importance to being taught native English in class.

4.2.5.1. *Aiming to speak native English*

Some participants aimed to speak native English, especially American and/or British English, whereas others wished to speak a variety of English that would enable them to communicate successfully. There were a few students who were critical of the idea of aiming at native English.

First, there were participants who wanted to speak native English because of their positive image of the countries where English is spoken. In *Group A*, *Participant 2* mentioned that the varieties of English in Europe and the United States are superior to the ones in Asia, as they are often used as an official language and provide access to advanced cultures. *Participant 1* agreed with *Participant 2* and mentioned, 'I want to learn American English because science, technology, and society are more advanced there, especially in my area, chemical engineering. Thus, it would make sense to learn American English so that I can get information more easily'. *Participant 3* also agreed and stated, 'I definitely feel that the United States has been taking over the world. I often watch Korean drama, which tends to convey a popular admiration of American and British society. I felt the strong influence of the United States. I think the United States has been very strategic about this and very successful. They are winning'. Similarly, *Participant 17* supported American English because he felt that the United States controls the world. The United States' strong influence was also emphasised by all the participants in *Group I*. *Participants 28* and *30* referred to the United States as 'policing the world'.

The notion of advancement was also manifested in connections to pop culture, where American and British English are highly prized. *Participant 3* thought she wanted to speak British English because she really liked British film actors who are portrayed as gentlemen. Similarly, *Participant 6* was personally interested in British English because of British films. *Participant 15* also thought she wanted to speak American English because it is portrayed as stylish and trendy in films and music. *Participant 27* was keen to learn American English due to American films and travel to the United States. For similar reasons, *Group D* agreed that learners should speak the native English variety of countries such as the United States and the United Kingdom. *Participant 11* added

Australia and New Zealand to this list. *Participants 11* and *13* talked positively about the English used in media such as news, radio, and TED.

Second, some participants mentioned the advantages afforded to those who can speak native English, especially in business. *Participant 23* aimed to speak American and British English, as she felt that those varieties were much more valuable and useful than the others in business. She mentioned, 'If you work in international communities, it would be more acceptable if we could speak those varieties rather than a Japanese variety of English that is not fluent and accurate and only enables one to get meaning across'. *Participant 24* agreed with *Participant 23* within this group. *Participant 21* also prized native-speaker norms and stated the following:

> To be honest, if you can speak like a native speaker and speak English fluently, it is a fact that interlocutors are more likely to get a good impression, regardless of the content quality. If you can speak like a native speaker, you may have more advantages than a person who speaks a Japanese variety of English.

Other participants (*6*, *8*, *18*, *19*, and *20*) mentioned that it might not be necessary to speak like a native speaker if one wants to speak English in daily life, but it would be essential in business, as illustrated by the following excerpt: 'If you use English only to communicate with people, you do not have to attain native English; however, if you want to use English for work, you need to speak like a native speaker; otherwise, you may not be treated equally'.

Third, some participants focused on the importance of native English because of its comprehensibility. *Participants 1* and *2* agreed that they wanted to speak the American English used in their textbook CDs because they found it easy to understand. *Participant*

16 echoed this opinion exactly. Similarly, *Participant 14* thought that she wanted to speak American or Canadian English because those varieties were easier for her to comprehend. *Participant 17* wanted to speak 'flawless' English (English with 'correct' pronunciation), such as American and British English, comparing it to Singaporean English, which he said that he could not understand at all. *Participants 6*, *7*, and *26* mentioned that they wanted to speak British or American English because it is easier for Japanese people to understand. *Participant 24* also thought that anyone can comprehend English, such as English spoken in the film *The Sound of Music*, which was linked to American English, thus conflating comprehensible English with native English (as the actors were in fact British).

Fourth, two participants mentioned that they wished to speak native English in order to avoid feeling embarrassed. *Participant 4* said that she wanted to learn American English because she thought that native speakers showed a strong negative reaction to her English, indicating that they did not understand at all. She felt deeply embarrassed by that experience, and she believed that it would be better for her to adjust to American English to avoid feeling awkward again. *Participant 8*'s Japanese friend who studied in Switzerland told her that she was embarrassed because of her accent. *Participant 8* could not help but feel that she might also have been laughed at if she had spoken a variety of English with a Japanese accent, which might not have been comprehensible to others.

In contrast, there were some participants who did not particularly want to learn native English. *Participant 19* mentioned that he had never had a good sense of what kind of English he was supposed to learn in school, which contributed to the feeling that he was learning a language from a different world. *Participant 20* mentioned she did not aim at any specific English variety. *Participant 5* did not wish to obtain any specific English

variety because he believed that as long as he could achieve successful communication in English, any English variety would be fine. *Participant 26* also mentioned wanting to convey meaning successfully and did not have any desire to speak a specific variety of English. Similarly, *Participant 17* aimed at being able to learn a variety of English that would enable him to have conversations without difficulty. Although *Participant 24* said that she would be fine with being able to use English well enough to communicate with people from foreign countries, she believed so only because she did not have any intention of using the language for work. Her idea was similar to the ones relating to the advantages of speaking native English in business mentioned earlier in this section.

Finally, there were some participants who were critical of the idea of aiming at native English, as also mentioned in Sections 4.2.2 and 4.2.4. *Participant 3* clearly stated that people should aim to communicate with each other in various kinds of English rather than aim to speak like a native speaker. She believed that it is important to keep one's own culture and language when using English and that individuals should speak English while preserving their own regional uniqueness. Similarly, *Participant 21* mentioned the following: 'As long as we do not have any difficulty in communication and can successfully convey what we want to convey, any English should be accepted'. *Participant 22* agreed that there should be no stigma attached to speaking any variety of English. Similarly, *Participants 4*, *5*, and *6* also thought that people did not have to aim at speaking native English at all. *Participants 11* and *17* thought that as long as essential grammar was maintained to avoid communication breakdowns, native English would not be necessary.

4.2.5.2. *Teaching native English in the classroom*

Some participants indicated that diverse varieties of English should be taught in the classroom, as mentioned in regard to Factor 2 (see Section 4.2.2), whereas others stated that only native English should be taught for different reasons.

First, some participants thought that American English should be taught in classrooms because of its world power. *Participant 19* commented, 'Well, once I thought that I wanted to learn the origin of English that was closely associated with British English. Yet, taking into account the economic power of the United States, if you learn English, I now think it may be more beneficial for people to learn American English in class'. *Participant 20* further elaborated: 'I also thought about the centrality of the United States. From the learner's point of view, I think learners across the world want to learn American English more than British English. Overall, many people speak American English in the world. Therefore, I want to study American English in the classroom'. Similarly, *Participant 26* showed a preference for being taught American English in school because of the power the United States wields. *Participant 27* agreed with *Participant 26* and stated, 'I want to learn American English in school because the United States is a very influential country. The United States is a rich country, and, when comparing the United States with Asian countries, I feel like the United States is stronger. Thus, the language spoken in that country is superior'. This attitude was also evident in comments from *Participants 28*, *29*, and *30* in *Group I*, in which *Participant 30* declared, 'Japan relies largely on a powerful country, the United States, with regard to national security and trade. English language education has to reflect the current reality'.

Second, some participants thought that native English should be taught because focusing on one variety saves time and is more pedagogically effective. *Participant 15* strongly advocated learning only American English, stating the following:

> I feel that we should learn American English all the way through university. To be honest, I do not feel we have time to learn such varieties… …If we take into account the current education system, it would be better to learn only one variety (American English) in order to use the language as a tool.

Participant 24 believed that it is important for beginners to focus on American English first in order to acquire fundamental English skills efficiently. Similarly, *Participant 5* believed that American and British English should be taught at the elementary and secondary levels because it would be the quickest way to learn English.

The third reason provided for teaching native English was its centrality in testing. *Participants 13* and *22* were very interested in studying not only American but also other types of English in the classroom. Those were limited to native varieties of English, such as British, Australian, and New Zealand English, mainly due to the fact that standardised English tests, such as TOEIC and EIKEN, include them. As mentioned in Section 4.2.2, *Participants 5*, *7*, *16*, and *17* stated that teaching American English, especially at the elementary and secondary levels, is very efficient because it is essential to pass university entrance examinations, which mainly employ American English.

The fourth reason to learn native English in the classroom was centred on the origin of the language. *Participant 18* mentioned that 'The origin of English is related to the United Kingdom and the United States, so I want to learn either British English or American English'. *Participants 23* and *26* also expressed that teaching either American English or

British English would be preferable because those varieties are related to the countries where the English language originated.

Maintaining current classroom practices was the fifth reason the participants thought that native English should be employed in the classroom. *Participant 20* thought that American English should be taught in the classroom since textbook CDs for junior and senior high schools are based on American English. Similarly, *Participant 21* thought that American English should be employed because that variety is used mainly in current classrooms. *Group I* mentioned that American English should be taught in the classroom because current classroom practices in Japan conform to American English.

In contrast to the above, three participants cast doubt on only being taught native English in class. *Participant 13* mentioned the importance of being able to speak like a native speaker. However, he thought that people should avoid teaching it in school. He stated the following:

> We have to focus on being able to participate actively in conversation and use grammar well enough to communicate successfully rather than being able to speak like a native speaker. Speaking Japanese English does not necessarily mean one cannot have successful communication. We should not be ashamed of speaking Japanese English and of not being able to speak English very well, which may be more likely to impose a negative impression on interlocutors.

Participant 23 also mentioned that 'In mandatory education, we should not force learners to speak like a native speaker, which may make them think they do not want to learn English. Instead, we should encourage them to keep their own English pronunciation and usage. They can strive to speak like a native speaker if they wish to'. In the same group,

Participant 22 mentioned that there is no need for people to be able to speak like a native speaker. She thought the reasons that Japanese English had not been established were possibly due to the lack of confidence and passive attitudes towards the Japanese's English usage.

4.3. Summary

The focus groups investigated the participants' attitudes in more depth. By and large, the data supported the quantitative data for each factor identified in the questionnaire. The results addressed mainly two types of attitudes: global and traditional orientations. Many participants were inclined to be globally oriented, perceiving variations in English and speakers of those varieties (Factor 1: *English use with target communities*, Factor 2: *Awareness about varieties of English*, and Factor 3: *Multilingualism*) positively, while they were also inclined to be somewhat traditionally oriented, conforming to Standard English and native-speaker norms (Factor 4: *Language norms* and Factor 5: *Preference for native English*).

Similar to the quantitative results regarding global orientations, there were some correlations between Factors 1, 2, and 3. If the participants were thinking about using English with both native and non-native speakers, they were very positive about diverse varieties of English and about learning them in the classroom. The target communities these students imagined centred on business, education, travel, and media. They also saw English as a valuable communication tool for connecting with people around the world. Some participants thought that English was a tool because they were told in school that it was going to be useful in pursuit of their future careers. The least globally oriented group, those who were not thinking about using English with either native or non-native speakers, displayed no awareness of diverse varieties of English and tended to be less

open to these being taught in the classroom. They saw English as a subject of academic study rather than as a communication tool.

The qualitative results also revealed complex relationships between Factors 1, 2, and 3. Some participants were thinking about using English with both native and non-native speakers and were more open to diverse varieties of English, but they did not necessarily agree with being taught these varieties in the classroom. The reasons for the difference were related to positive attitudes towards native English, such as the United States' influence on their society and beliefs about learning and being taught English efficiently. Some participants thought that diverse varieties of English should only be taught at university and that native English should be taught in elementary, junior high, and senior high schools in preparation for university entrance examinations. Moreover, many participants used native English or the English spoken by Japanese people as a yardstick in order to evaluate other varieties of English. This reflected their belief that one should aim for native English and that the English the Japanese speak requires improvement.

Regarding traditional orientations, there was consensus in each group on the importance of standards in pronunciation and the pursuit of 'correctness'. Some equated 'correct' or Standard English with American or British English, and these varieties of English were thought of as desirable for use and as classroom models. Others did not assume that 'correct' or Standard English should be native English, supporting the quantitative results, which showed a weak correlation between Factors 4 and 5 ($r < .3$) (Cohen, 1988). Regardless of their global orientations, they tended to aim at native English, have positive images of native English as being stylish and influential, and acknowledge the advantages of speaking native English. These images were deeply rooted in how they viewed language not only in class but also in society, where they viewed the economy,

technology, media, film, drama, and international business communities as dominated by the United States. Although a few of the learners made suggestions as to how the current sociolinguistic reality in a globalised world should be, they thought it was different from the reality they were experiencing. These remarks confirmed that although they were globally oriented, they still had positive images of native English.

At this stage, regarding the factors affecting attitudes, the experience of using English with people who speak different varieties of English appeared to play a significant role, especially in Factors 1, 2, and 3. Whether proficiency was associated with the attitudes factor was less clear in the analysis; thus, further analysis focusing on the participants' language proficiency is deemed to be necessary.

5. FINDINGS II

The findings presented in this chapter relate to Research Question 2:

2. What is the relationship, if any, between the factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language and their English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English?

As mentioned in Section 3.5.4.2, structural equation modelling (SEM) was used to address Research Question 2, which was concerned with the relationships between attitudinal factors and proficiency and exposure to English varieties.

The five-factor exploratory factor solution in the previous chapter (EFA1) was intentionally inclusive in its analysis of factors in order to explore the factor structure more broadly, allowing cross-loadings (Q17 and 19) and low factor loadings <.4 (Q15 and 24). Thus, before conducting further analysis, a second EFA was conducted on the study sample to obtain an underlying factor structure with more strict standards for testing assumptions (EFA2). Second, confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (a measurement part of SEM) was used in order to test the fit of the attitudinal factor structure to the actual data and its validity (Yong & Pearce, 2013), which was essential for conducting SEM (Hair *et al.*, 2009). Lastly, SEM was conducted to explore the structural relationships between latent constructs (attitudinal factors) and observed variables (proficiency and exposure to varieties of English). In this chapter, the quantitative results (questionnaire) are first presented, and then the qualitative results (focus groups) are described.

5.1. Questionnaire: EFA2 (Attitude measure)

EFA was conducted on the 25 attitudinal items to obtain a simple attitudinal factor structure (see Appendix K for the details of each item).

5.1.1. Evaluation of assumptions

Several assumptions (sample size and missing data; univariate normality; linearity; multivariate outliers; multicollinearity and singularity; and factorability of R) were carefully checked prior to the EFA.

5.1.1.1. *Sample size and missing data*

The collected data were available from 660 students, and 25 variables were included in the analysis. A general rule of thumb regarding the required sample size is that 'at least 300 cases are needed with low communalities, a small number of factors, and just three or four indicators for each factor. Sample sizes well over 500 are required under the worst conditions of low communalities and a larger number of weakly determined factors' (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p.618). Bryant and Yarnold (1995) stated that a study sample should be a minimum of five times the number of variables, the subjects-to-variables ratio should be 5:1 or greater, and every analysis should be based on at least 100 observations regardless of the subjects-to-variables ratio. Based on those criteria, this study, having a subjects-to-variables ratio of 132:5, was deemed to have a sufficient sample size to conduct EFA. The data were screened for univariate outliers. No values were identified and recoded as either outliers or missing data.

5.1.1.2. *Univariate normality*

The assumption of univariate normality is not required for EFA; nevertheless, if variables are normally distributed, the factor solution is improved (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Thus, distributions of the 25 variables were examined for skewness and kurtosis (see Appendix K for the skewness and kurtosis). Some were negatively skewed and/or had positive kurtosis. The ratio of skewness/kurtosis to its standard error was used as a test of normality and some of the values were less than -1.96 or greater than +1.96, suggesting some of the variables failed the normality test according to Tabachnick and Fidell's (2013) criteria. However, based on the magnitude of the deviation from normality, no deletion of variables or transformations of them was performed.

5.1.1.3. *Linearity*

The differences in skewness for variables were examined for the possibility of curvilinearity for some pairs of variables. The analysis can be degraded when linearity fails because it assumes that the relationships among pairs of variables are linear (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). With 25 variables, examination of all pairwise scatterplots was unfeasible. Therefore, a random spot check on 30 plots was conducted. Departure from linearity as well as potential outliers in the plots were not particularly concerning; thus, there was no evidence of true curvilinearity. Transformations were thus not conducted.

5.1.1.4. *Multivariate outliers*

Multivariate outliers indicate extreme scores on two or more variables (Kline, 2005). This can also degrade the analysis. In order to detect whether the variables had multivariate outliers, the critical chi-square values for the Mahalanobis distance were checked. Using

the criterion of $p = .001$ with 25 degrees of freedom (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013), the critical value of χ^2 was 52.62. Thus, all variables were examined to determine whether the value exceeded the critical value of $\chi^2 = 52.62$. For this set of data, 27 cases were deemed to be multivariate outliers. The decision is made to delete the 27 cases, leaving 633 non-outlying cases, which is still the acceptable number of cases to conduct EFA (see Section 5.1.1.1 for the sample size).

5.1.1.5. *Multicollinearity and singularity*

In order to investigate multicollinearity and singularity that cause statistical instability, the squared multiple correlations (SMCs) among the 25 variables were checked. If any of the SMCs are one (1), then singularity is present. If any of the SMCs are very large (i.e., near one), then multicollinearity is present (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). IBM SPSS deals with tolerance criteria (1 – SMC). In this study, the tolerance ranged from .45 to .84. The condition index was also checked for each item to further investigate the presence of multicollinearity. Condition index is a measure of tightness or dependency of one variable on the others. A collinearity problem occurs when a dimension with a high condition index contributes strongly to the variance of two or more variables. According to the criteria suggested by Belsley, Kuh, & Welsch (1980), a condition index should be no greater than 30 for a given dimension and no more than one of the variance proportions should be greater than .50. In examining the condition index for all 25 items, six items had a condition index greater than 30. Nonetheless, no more than one of the variance proportions was greater than .50. Thus, there was little evidence that multicollinearity or singularity existed.

5.1.1.6. *Factorability of R (correlation matrix)*

A matrix that is factorable should include several sizable corrections (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Variables that have a large number of low correlation coefficients ($r = \pm.30$) were checked by referring to the correlation matrix, as they indicate a lack of patterned relationships. Similarly, variables that have correlations above $r = \pm.90$ were checked. As a follow-up, the determinant score was checked, and the value was .000339, above the rule of thumb (.00001; Field, 2009). The current data thus were deemed to have patterned relationships among the variables. Bartlett's test of sphericity [χ^2 (300) = 5895.070, $p < .001$] also indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for EFA. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .91, and all KMO values for individual items were > .75, which was well above the acceptable limit of .5 (Field, 2009). This supported the suitability of the data for factor structure detection.

5.1.2. EFA2

Since all the assumptions were checked, EFA using the maximum likelihood method with oblique rotation (promax) was conducted on the 25 items, as explained in the pilot studies (see Section 3.5.2). Due to the low item communality, Q1 (My native/first language is a useful resource for learning English) and Q16 (English is one of my languages) were deleted (16% for Q1 and 23% for Q16). An initial analysis was run with 23 items to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Five factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1 and in combination explained 55.22 % of the variance. The scree plot showed inflexions (Cattell, 1966) that would justify retaining four factors. Given the convergence of the scree plot, four factors were retained in the analysis. The percentage of the non-redundant residuals was checked by referring to the reproduced correlation

matrix to determine whether a model was a good fit (having less than 50 % of the non-redundant residuals with absolute values greater than .05; Yong & Pearce, 2013), which held true for the current data. The reproduced and the original correlation coefficients matrices also were compared to check if the model was a good fit (having small residuals between the two matrices; Yong & Pearce, 2013), which also held true for the data. Based on Comry and Lee's (1992) and Yong and Pearce's (2013) suggestions, the items that clustered onto the same factors with an absolute value greater than .40 were set for interpretation, suggesting four factors (22 items). The EFA was rerun with the 22 items, and the analysis repeated until a clear factor structure that explained a high percentage of total item variance was obtained (Hinkin, 1998). Due to the low item loadings with an absolute value less than .40 and cross-loadings, 11 items were deleted. The deleted items were related to multilingualism (Q 1, 20, and 24), a sense of 'correctness' (Q 7), ownership of English (Q 8 and 16), the importance of being aware of different varieties of English (Q 4, 6, and 17), and the legitimacy of native-speaker superiority (Q 15 and 19). Thus, in the final analysis, four factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1, and in combination explained 64.49 % of the variance. The scree plot also showed inflexions (Cattell, 1966) that would justify retaining four factors. The items that loaded on the same factors (> .40, except Q 11) suggested that Factor 1 represented *English use with target communities* (4 items), Factor 2 represented *Awareness about varieties of English* (5 items), Factor 3 represented *Language norms* (3 items), and Factor 4 represented *Preference for native English* (3 items). The details of each factor are described below.

To check the internal consistency of the questionnaire items, reliability analyses were conducted. For each factor, Cronbach's results were as follows: *English use with target communities*, α= .82; Awareness about varieties of English, α= .77; *Language norms*, α= .75; and *Preference for native English*, α= .65. According to Kline's (1999) threshold

(>.70), all the factors had acceptable reliability except *Preference for native English*. Even though *Preference for native English* had low alpha statistic, it was kept in the final analysis because this factor was extracted in the EFA1 and included in the GELT framework. Additionally, the cut-off point should not be applied blindly since the estimated reliability might vary according to a number of features such as sample size, the number of items, response types, and the domain being tested (Brown, 2014; Plonsky & Derrick, 2016). Among the items, Q 11 loaded on Factor 4 (*Preference for native English*) with an absolute value less than .40 (.38) and loaded on Factor 2 (*Awareness about varieties of English*) with an absolute value close to .30 (.28). However, the item was retained since the value (.38) was close to .40 and the item was included in *Preference for native English* emerged during EFA1 (see Table 12 for a list of the four factors, the items which loaded on each factor, and the reliability coefficient for each factor).

Factor 1: *English use with target communities* (4 items)

This was similar to Factor 1 (*English use with target communities*) in EFA1. The items included in this factor reflected an interest in learning about various English-speaking communities and using English with native and non-native speakers of English. Compared to Factor 1 in EFA1, Q16 (a sense of ownership of English) was not included in the factor.

Factor 2: *Awareness about varieties of English* (4 items)

Most of the items loaded on this factor were included in Factor 2 (*Awareness about varieties of English*) in EFA1. The factor included items indicative of beliefs about the importance of diverse varieties of English, learning and being taught about them, and

learning about native English-speaking cultures. Compared to Factor 2 in EFA1, Q4 and 6 (the importance of different English varieties) were not included in the factor.

Factor 3: *Language norms* (3 items)

All the items loaded on this factor were from Factor 4 (*Language norms*) in EFA1. The items included in this factor reflected beliefs about language norms, the importance of learning and being taught 'correct' grammar, and Standard English.

Factor 4: *Preference for native English* (3 items)

The three items loaded on this factor largely overlapped with Factor 5 (*Preference for native English*) in EFA1. The factor reflected positive views about American and British English acting as the teaching models in classrooms; and a desire for native-like fluency and accent. Compared to Factor 5 in EFA1, Q7, 15, and 19 relating to the 'correctness' of American and British English and the legitimacy of native-speaker superiority were not included in the factor.

Table 13 shows a factor correlation matrix. Factors interpreted as *Target communities* and *Varieties of English*; *Target communities* and *Native English*; and *Varieties of English* and *Native English* showed correlations .60, .49, and .52, respectively. The correlation between *Language norms* and *Native English* was .17. Some correlations among factors were expected since a psychological construct such as attitude 'is rarely partitioned into neatly packaged units that function independently of one another' (Osborne, 2015, p.5).

Table 12
Results of exploratory factor and reliability analyses of the main study for the attitude measure (EFA2)

Items	Factor Loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1: English use with target communities (α= .82)				
Q2_ I am learning English because I want to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.	**.793**	-.129	.025	.050
Q18_I am learning English because I want to know about various English-speaking communities.	**.742**	.065	.033	-.066
Q22_I am learning English because I want to communicate with non-native speakers of English.	**.733**	.032	.088	-.045
Q5_ I am learning English because I want to communicate with native speakers of English.	**.576**	.012	-.143	.279
Factor 2: Awareness about varieties of English (α= .77)				
Q10_Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.	-.178	**.767**	-.004	.083
Q12_Exposure to different English varieties in English listening and speaking classes is important to improve my English.	.058	**.659**	-.094	.036
Q25_Learning the culture of native English-speaking countries improves my English.	.283	**.540**	-.044	-.011
Q13_Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures.	.283	**.484**	.028	-.150
Factor 3: Language norms (α= .76)				
Q21_Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English conversation classes.	.077	-.013	**.814**	-.059
Q9_ Correct English grammar is required for successful communication.	.006	.018	**.688**	.019
Q14_Class time should be devoted to learning the language system (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling and syntax) of standard varieties of English only.	-.014	-.085	**.648**	.098
Factor 4: Preference for native English (α= .65)				
Q3_ The goal of learning the English language is to speak with a native-like accent.	-.059	-.088	-.072	**.815**
Q23_The role of the teacher is to help students develop native-like proficiency.	.019	.131	.135	**.473**
Q11_Good English listening and speaking instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English.	.098	.280	.189	**.372**

Table 13
Factor correlation matrix (EFA2)

Factor	1	2	3	4
1. Target communities	1.000	.602	-.015	.490
2. Varieties of English	**.602**	1.000	.013	.515
3. Language norms	-.015	.013	1.000	.169
4. Native English	**.490**	**.515**	.169	1.000

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Promax with Kaiser Normalisation.

5.1.3. Summary of EFA2

Overall, four factors of attitudes towards English as a global language (*English use with target communities*, *Awareness about varieties of English*, *Language norms*, and *Preference for native English*) instead of five factors were found. The findings were similar to the results of EFA 1, including the correlations among the factors. The differences here were that *Multilingualism* was omitted and a few items that had relatively low loadings were also discarded in order to determine underlying constructs more precisely.

5.2. Questionnaire: Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) (Attitude measure)

From the results of EFA2, the Global Englishes Orientation (GEO) model was postulated and then tested to examine the factorial validity of the model (determining the extent to which 14 items considered to measure each factor actually did so) by using the same sample. In scale development studies, CFA can be used to test the validity of the structure obtained after EFA (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006).

5.2.1. Model specification for CFA

The hypothesised four-factor GEO model provided the specification input for analyses (see Figure 14 below). The CFA model of GEO structure hypothesised a priori that: (a) responses to the GEO can be explained by four factors, *English use with target communities* (*Target communities*), *Awareness about varieties of English* (*Varieties of English*), *Language norms* (*Language norms*), and *Preference for native English* (*Native English*); (b) each item has a non-zero loading on the attitudinal factor it is designed to measure, and zero loadings on all other factors; (c) the four factors are correlated; and (d) the error/uniqueness terms associated with the item measurements are uncorrelated.

Target communities and *Varieties of English* are indicated by four items, and *Language norms* and *Native English* are indicated by three items. A correlation table with means and standard deviations is shown in Table 14.

In the present case, parameters were checked to see whether there was more than enough information in the data to estimate the model, which is important because it allows the examination of indices of model fit or measures of how well the tested model describes the actual data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The covariance matrix comprised a total of 105 (14[14+1]/2) pieces of information. Only 34 were to be estimated freely (10 factor loadings, 14 error variances, 4 factor variances, and 6 factor covariances). All the others were fixed parameters in the model. As a result, the hypothesised model was overidentified with 71 (105 – 34) degrees of freedom, indicating that there was sufficient information in the data to estimate the model. In the following sections, the GEO model and assumptions that should be met for running CFA are described.

Figure 14
The hypothesised four-factor GEO model

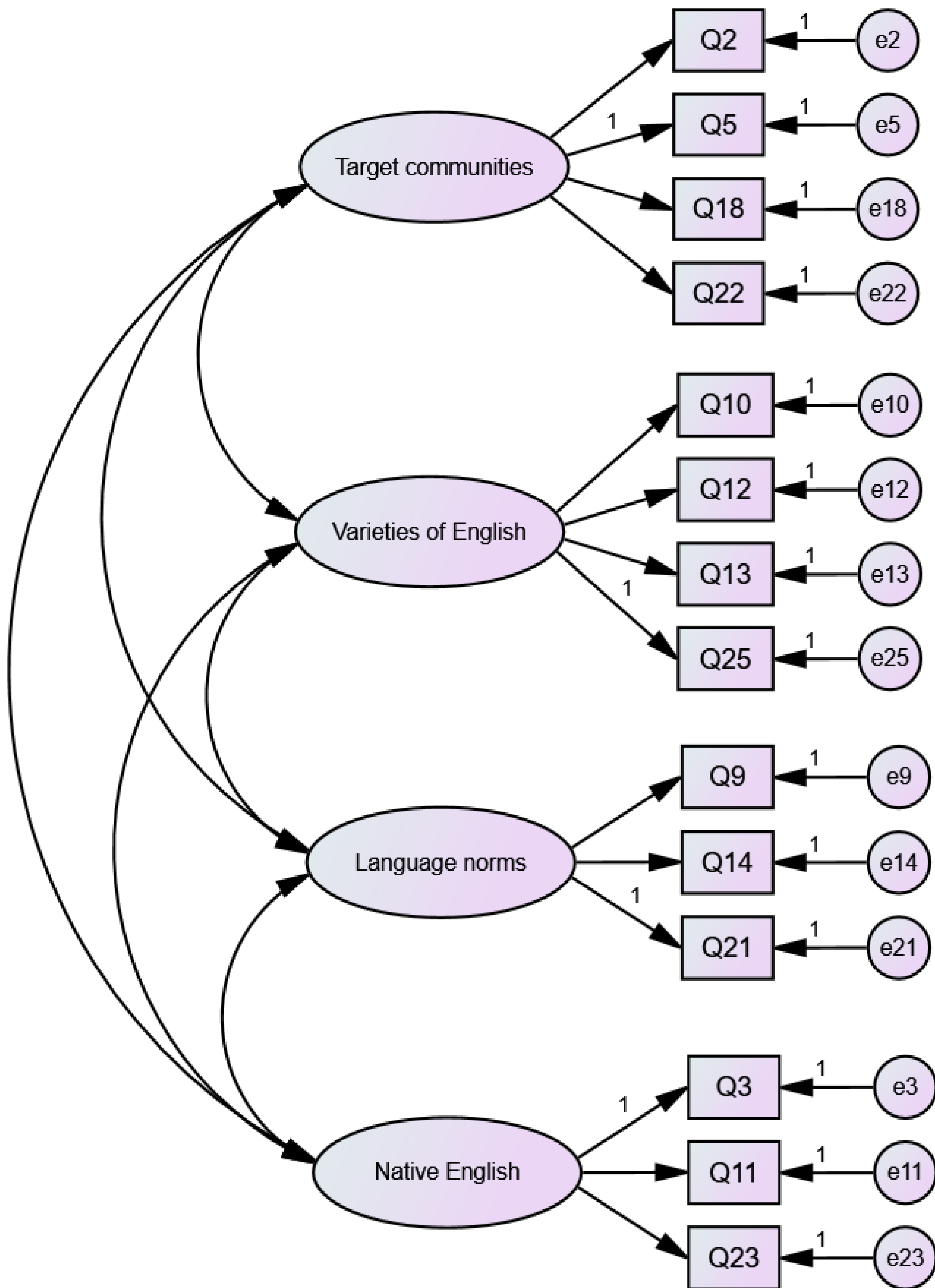


Table 14. ***Correlation for CFA***

Observed variable	Q23	Q11	Q3	Q21	Q14	Q9	Q25	Q13	Q12	Q10	Q22	Q18	Q5	Q2
Q23	1.000													
Q11	.372	1.000												
Q3	.440	.354	1.000											
Q21	.149	.120	.141	1.000										
Q14	.126	.102	.120	.531	1.000									
Q9	.132	.106	.125	.552	.469	1.000								
Q25	.319	.257	.303	-.024	-.020	-.021	1.000							
Q13	.256	.206	.243	-.019	-.016	-.017	.471	1.000						
Q12	.290	.233	.276	-.022	-.018	-.019	.535	.429	1.000					
Q10	.254	.204	.241	-.019	-.016	-.017	.468	.375	.426	1.000				
Q22	.289	.232	.274	.014	.012	.012	.406	.325	.370	.323	1.000			
Q18	.296	.238	.281	.014	.012	.013	.416	.334	.379	.331	.536	1.000		
Q5	.297	.239	.282	.015	.012	.013	.418	.335	.381	.333	.539	.552	1.000	
Q2	.287	.231	.273	.014	.012	.012	.404	.323	.367	.321	.520	.533	.535	1.000

The variables were standardised to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. N = 633; M = 0; SD = 1.

5.2.2. Evaluation of assumptions

Several assumptions (sample size and missing data; normality and linearity; outliers; multicollinearity and singularity; estimation method; and bootstrapping) were carefully checked prior to CFA as described in the following sections.

5.2.2.1. *Sample size and missing data*

In this study, there were 633 participants and 14 observed variables. The ratio of cases to estimated parameters was 18:1. The ratio was adequate based on Jackson's (2003) criteria, suggesting a sample-size to parameters ratio of at least 10:1. There were no missing data.

5.2.2.2. *Normality and linearity*

DeCarlo (1997) indicated that while skewness inclines to impact tests of means, kurtosis severely affects tests of variances and covariances. Taking into account that the analysis of covariance structures is vital for CFA, a primary concern is evidence of kurtosis. Thus, the values of univariate and multivariate kurtosis were assessed. The univariate kurtosis values for each of the 14 observed variables were checked. Positive values ranged from .266 to .813 and negative values from -.088 to -.642, yielding an overall mean univariate kurtosis value of -.180. The standardised kurtosis index (B_2) in a normal distribution has a value of 3, with larger values indicating positive kurtosis and lesser values indicating negative kurtosis (Byrne, 2001). Although there seems to be no clear rule of thumb regarding how large the values should be in order to be considered as extreme kurtosis (Kline, 2005), West, Finch, and Curran (1995) suggested rescaled B_2 values, which are obtained by subtracting 3 from the B_2 values, equal to or greater than 7 to be indicative of early departure from normality. In this study, using the value of 7 as a guide, none of the observed variables was found to be substantially kurtotic.

The fact that the distribution of observed variables is univariate normal does not mean that the distribution is multivariate normal (West *et al.*, 1995). Thus, the index of multivariate kurtosis and its critical ratio were assessed. The critical ratio value can be considered as Mardia's (1970, 1974) normalised estimate of multivariate kurtosis (Byrne, 2001). The Mardia's (1970, 1974) normalised estimate values > 5 are indicative of data that are nonnormally distributed (Bentler, 2005). In this application, the z-statistic was 22.585 suggesting nonnormality in the sample. Regarding linearity, it was not feasible to examine all pairwise scatter plots to assess linearity; therefore, randomly selected pairs of scatter plots (30 plots) were examined. There was no evidence of true curvilinearity.

5.2.2.3. *Further assumption checks (outliers; multicollinearity and singularity; residuals; and estimation method and bootstrapping)*

No univariate outlier was found. The Mahalanobis distance values were further checked for each case. A review of these values showed that no further cases were identified as serious multivariate outliers. Multicollinearity and singularity problems were not found in the data since the program converged. The evaluation of the residual was performed as part of the model assessment.

Regarding the estimation method, taking into account the effectively large sample size ($N = 633$), although the assumption of normality was violated, the Maximum Likelihood (ML) estimation method was used for this study. It has been suggested that the ML estimator is the most frequently used estimation method and can be a good choice with medium to large samples, even with nonnormality (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Nevertheless, previous studies (Byrne, 2001; Nevitt & Hancock, 2001; West *et al.*, 1995) that investigated the robustness of the ML estimation to violations of the assumption of normality found that, as data become increasingly nonnormal, (a) the chi-square statistical

value becomes large, (b) some fit indices that include comparative fit index are modestly underestimated, and (c) standard errors of the parameter estimates are underestimated. In other words, nonnormality can cause a type 1 error and lead to low standard errors for the estimated parameters suggesting that the regression paths and factor/error covariances will be statistically significant, although they may not exist in the population. Thus, in the current study, since the degree of nonnormality was extreme, it was necessary to use a corrective strategy in order to apply the ML estimation method.

IBM SPSS AMOS 25 provides two applicable corrective strategies: the Bollen-Stine corrected *p*-value and bootstrapping. The Bollen–Stine corrected *p*-value gauges a model fit without normal theory limitations, and $p > .05$ suggests that the model fits the data well (Bollen & Stine, 1992). Thus, the Bollen-Stine corrected *p*-value was checked in order to assess the overall model fit for the study.

The bootstrapping technique, a computer-generated resampling technique, enables the researcher to create multiple subsamples from an original database to produce a bootstrap (empirical) sampling distribution (Byrne, 2001). In the study, both the bootstrap estimates of standard errors for each factor-loading parameter and the appropriate ML standard error estimates were computed, which allows the researcher to identify several large discrepancies between the two sets of standard error estimates. The 95% bias-corrected confidence intervals for both the unstandardised and standardised factor-loading estimates were also computed. If upper and lower bias-corrected confidence intervals do not include zero, the hypothesis that the factor loading is equal to zero in the population can be rejected, suggesting that the factor-loading parameter is statistically significant ($p > .05$). Accordingly, this study used the ML estimation with bootstrapping (500

resamples) to generate accurate estimations of the parameters with accompanying confidence intervals and *p*-values (Byrne, 2010).

5.2.3. Confirmatory factor analysis

Since corrective measures were taken for a violation of the normality assumption and all other assumptions were met, CFA was conducted. In the following sections, the model summary, indices of fit for the model, and modification indices with a view to pinpointing areas of model misspecification are explained.

5.2.3.1. *Model estimation*

Regarding the estimation of the hypothesised model, the overall chi-square (χ^2) for the model was significant ($p > .05$), χ^2 (71, $N = 633$) = 242.745, $p < .001$. Thus, this χ^2 goodness of fit statistic failed to indicate that the model fitted the actual data (the observed covariance matrix matched the estimated covariance matrix within sampling variance; Byrne, 2010). Chi-square values depend on the sample sizes; in such models with large samples, trivial differences can cause the χ^2 to be significant due to sample size (Byrne, 2001; Cooper, 2017). In this case, the sample size of 633 was large. Moreover, all model parameters were estimated successfully, resulting in a convergent solution. Thus, other fit statistics were examined closely.

5.2.3.2. *Other fit statistics*

The following indices of model fit were chosen on the basis of (a) the variant approaches to the assessment of model fit and (b) the support in the literature as important indices of model fit that should be reported (Byrne, 2010; Hair *et al.*, 2009). Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) indicated that the comparative fit index (CFI) and the root mean square error of

approximation (RMSEA) are the most commonly reported fit indices. Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested reporting two types of fit indices: the standardised root mean square residual (SRMR) and CFI. Thus, the study relied on the CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR in addition to the χ^2 results. The selected indices of fit are presented in the following section.

The CFI (Bentler, 1990) assesses fit relative to other models. CFI values greater than .95 are indicative of good-fitting models (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The CFI value of .940 in this study was indicative of an acceptable-fitting model. The RMSEA (Browne & Cudeck, 1993) estimates the lack of fit in a model compared to a perfect model. The RMSEA value in the present case was .062. Using the 90% confidence intervals for this RMSEA, the true value of RMSEA was between .053 and .070. This value appeared quite low and was below the .10 guideline (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The RMSEA value, therefore, provided additional support for determining model fit. The SRMR is the average differences between the sample variances and covariances and the estimated population variances and covariances. Small SRMR values indicate good-fitting models. The value in this study was .046, below the conservative cut-off value of .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

As mentioned in Section 5.2.2, due to the issue of multivariate nonnormality, the Bollen-Stein bootstrap procedure was conducted. In this study, the Bollen–Stine bootstrap was $p = .002$, suggesting poor fit (Bollen & Stine, 1992). However, this could be a function of the large sample size, which is associated with the nature of chi-square values as described in Section 5.2.3.1. Since the ML estimator *p*-value was .000, the Bollen–Stine bootstrap $p = .002$ showed at least some improvement. The analysis also considered the standardised residual covariance matrix. If the estimated model represents a good fit, the majority of residual covariances should be less than two (Joreskog, 1993), which was apparent from the results. The bootstrap estimates of standard errors were compared with

the appropriate ML error estimates. This showed that the distribution of these estimates appeared to be close to what would be expected under normal theory assumptions. The 95 % bias-corrected confidence intervals for the standardised factor-loading estimates were checked, and none of these intervals included zero ($p < .01$) as shown in Table 15, indicating the hypothesis that each factor loading was equal to zero in the population was rejected (Byrne, 2001).

Overall, the goodness-of-fit statistics indicated that the GEO model was a reasonably good-fitting model.

Table 15
The 95 % bias-corrected confidence intervals for the standardised parameter estimates

Parameter			Estimate	Lower	Upper	*P*
Q2	<---	Target communities	.719	.669	.763	.004
Q5	<---	Target communities	.745	.682	.783	.007
Q18	<---	Target communities	.742	.688	.784	.006
Q22	<---	Target communities	.723	.674	.765	.005
Q10	<---	Varieties of English	.610	.528	.674	.007
Q12	<---	Varieties of English	.698	.630	.751	.005
Q13	<---	Varieties of English	.614	.542	.667	.005
Q25	<---	Varieties of English	.767	.719	.804	.004
Q9	<---	Language norms	.699	.634	.758	.004
Q14	<---	Language norms	.671	.604	.732	.006
Q21	<---	Language norms	.790	.729	.845	.005
Q3	<---	Native English	.646	.571	.702	.008
Q11	<---	Native English	.547	.455	.613	.005
Q23	<---	Native English	.681	.620	.743	.003

5.2.3.3. *Construct validity*

Hair *et al*. (2009) suggested that to assess measurement model validity, not only the overall model fit but also the criteria for construct validity must be investigated. Thus, such criteria were examined.

In order to assess the extent to which a set of measured variables actually represents the theoretical latent construct those variables are designed to measure, face validity (the extent to which the content of the questionnaire items is consistent with the construct

definition), convergent validity (the extent to which indicators of a specific construct converge or share a high proportion of variance in common), discriminant validity (the extent to which measures of the constructs that theoretically should not be highly related to each other are indeed distinguished from one another), and nomological validity (test of validity that examines whether the correlations between the constructs reflect the theoretical or hypothetical relationships of such constructs) were examined (Hair *et al.*, 2009).

Face validity appeared evident; the conceptual definitions matched well with the questionnaire item wordings as described in the results of EFA2. Additionally, a pre-test was performed in which two independent judges matched the items with the constructs. No judge had difficulty matching the items to such constructs, providing further confidence that face validity was established.

For convergent validity, Hair *et al.*'s (2009) guidelines were that individual standardised factor loadings (regression weights) should be at least .5, and preferably .7. The average variance extracted (AVE) measures (the overall amount of variance in the indicators accounted for by the latent construct) should be equal or exceed 50 %, and .7 was considered the minimum threshold for construct reliability, except when conducting exploratory research (Fornell & Bookstein, 1982; Hair *et al.*, 2009). Table 16 displays standardised factor loadings, AVEs and construct reliabilities.

The lowest loading obtained was .547, linking *Native English* to Q11. Five other loading estimates fell just below the .7 standard. The AVEs ranged from 39 % for *Native English* to 54 % for *Target communities*. *Target communities* and *Language norms* exceeded the 50 % rule of thumb, followed by 46 % for *Varieties of English*. Construct reliabilities ranged from .66 for *Native English* to .82 for *Target communities*. Most of these

exceeded .7, suggesting adequate reliability. Overall, the evidence roughly supported the convergent validity of the GEO model. Although some loading estimates were below .7, most of these were just below the .7, and the lowest loading did not appear to be significantly harming model fit or internal consistency. The AVEs were below 50 % for *Varieties of English* and *Native English*. Nevertheless, AVEs appeared to be a strict measure of convergent validity. Malhotra and Dash (2011) noted that 'AVE is a more conservative measure than construct reliability. On the basis of construct reliability 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' (p.702). All reliability estimates were considered acceptable, taking into account the aims of this study that were tentative (Hair *et al.*, 2009). Additionally, the model fit the data relatively well according to the model fit indices as explained in Section 5.2.3.2. Thus, adequate evidence of convergent validity was provided.

Table 16
GEO Standardised factor loadings, average variance extracted, and reliability estimates

Items	Target communities	Varieties of English	Language norms	Native English
Q 2	0.72			
Q 5	0.74			
Q18	0.74			
Q22	0.72			
Q10		0.61		
Q12		0.70		
Q13		0.61		
Q25		0.77		
Q 9			0.70	
Q14			0.67	
Q21			0.79	
Q 3				0.65
Q11				0.55
Q23				0.68
Average Variance Extracted	53.6%	45.6%	52.1%	39.3%
Construct Reliability	0.82	0.77	0.77	0.66

The conservative approach for establishing discriminant validity compares the AVEs for each factor with the squared inter-construct correlations associated with that factor, and the AVEs should be greater than the corresponding squared inter-construct correlation estimates (Hair *et al.*, 2009). All AVEs from Table 16 were greater than the corresponding squared inter-construct correlation estimates in Table 17 except for *Varieties of English*. Therefore, this test suggested that there was a problem with discriminant validity for the GEO model regarding *Varieties of English*. Nevertheless, the model provided a good fit and showed little evidence of considerable cross-loadings among the measured variables, supporting discriminant validity (Hair *et al.*, 2009). Taken together, these results partly supported the discriminant validity of the GEO model.

Table 17
GEO Construct Correlation Matrix (Standardised)

Items	Target communities	Varieties of English	Language norms	Native English
Target communities	1.00	.53	.00	.35
Varieties of English	0.73**	1.00	.00	.37
Language norms	0.03	-0.04	1.00	.08
Native English	0.59**	0.61**	0.28**	1.00

Significance Level: ** = .001, Values below the diagonal are correlation estimates among constructs, diagonal elements are construct variances, and values above the diagonal are squared correlations.

As a final step in assessing construct validity of the GEO model, nomological validity was examined. Nomological validity can be tested by examining whether the correlations between the constructs in the measurement theory make sense (Hair *et al.*, 2009). Based on the GELT framework, in this study, all the constructs were expected to be related to one another. Most of the constructs were related to one another, specifically, having significant positive correlations with staying intentions (see Table 17). However, two correlations were inconsistent with such predictions. The correlation estimates between *Target communities* and *Language norms* ($r = .03$, $p = .62$) and between *Varieties of*

English and *Language norms* (r = -.04, p = .45) were not significant with a very low correlation. Thus, the analysis of the correlations among the GEO model constructs did not fully support the nomological validity of the model.

Although some concerns relating to construct validity were identified, since the aim of the study was exploratory in nature, a number of model diagnostics that may suggest a way to improve the specified model or identify some problem areas were checked. The results, however, should be interpreted with caution.

5.2.3.4. *Modifying the model*

Byrne (2001) and Hair *et al.* (2009) suggested that the following diagnostic measures from CFA should be checked: path estimates, standardised residuals, and modification indices.

Regarding the path estimates, the loadings of each indicator on a construct below the suggested cut-off values .7 should be evaluated for deletion, but the decision should be made taking into account the other diagnostic measures (Byrne, 2001; Hair *et al.*, 2009). The path estimates were examined earlier to assess convergent validity. One loading estimate .547 associated with *Native English* was considered for deletion because it fell below the ideal loading cut-off of .7. Nevertheless, the path estimate (*Native English* --->Q11) was not eliminated because the model fit remained high.

The standardised residuals were also checked. The GEO model had 105 residuals. There were four standardised residuals greater than |2.5|. Only one standardised residual exceeded |4.0|, the benchmark value that may indicate a problem (Byrne, 2001; Hair *et al.*, 2009), which was 4.087 for the covariance between Q3 and 5. Both of these variables had a loading estimate close to or greater than .7 on their respective constructs. This residual

might be explained by the content of the items. In this case, Q3 and 5 might have overlapping content, which is explained in the following section. No action was taken at this point, given the overall positive results.

Large modification indices (*MI*s) may suggest the presence of factor cross-loadings and error term correlations, respectively (Byrne, 2001; Hair *et al.*, 2009). The very large *MI* for the covariance of the error terms of Q3 and 5 was identified (err3⇔err5; *MI* =38.313), which might require model re-specifications. As mentioned earlier in the standardised residuals, this error covariance appeared to be triggered by a high degree of overlap with the content of these two items. Q3 asked whether the goal of learning the English language was to speak with a native-like accent, while Q5 asked whether they were learning English because they wanted to communicate with native speakers of English. Although the *MIs* for the error term correlations are useful in identifying problems with specific items, model re-specifications should not be made based solely on them (Hair *et al.*, 2009). The *MI*s for the factor loadings were also checked, revealing no parameters indicative of cross-loadings. At this point, it seemed both reasonable and logical that no further action (i.e. post hoc model modification) was taken given a solid theoretical foundation, a good model fit, and evidence of construct validity.

5.2.3.5. *The final model (CFA)*

The CFA results roughly supported the GEO model. Thus, the 14 items on the GEO-Q appeared to measure each key construct of attitudes towards English as a global language well. Although the χ^2statistic was significant at the .001 level and the Bollen-Stine corrected *p*-value was also significant (p = .02), which was not unusual given a sample size of 633, the CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR showed a good model fit. Since some evidence of construct validity violations was shown, the specified model should be interpreted with

caution. However, given the tentative nature of the study, the results showed that the measures appeared to behave as they should in terms of the unidirectionality of the four measures and in the way the constructs relate to other measures, as illustrated in Figure 15 and Tables 18 and 19 below.

Table 18
Fit indices for the GEO model

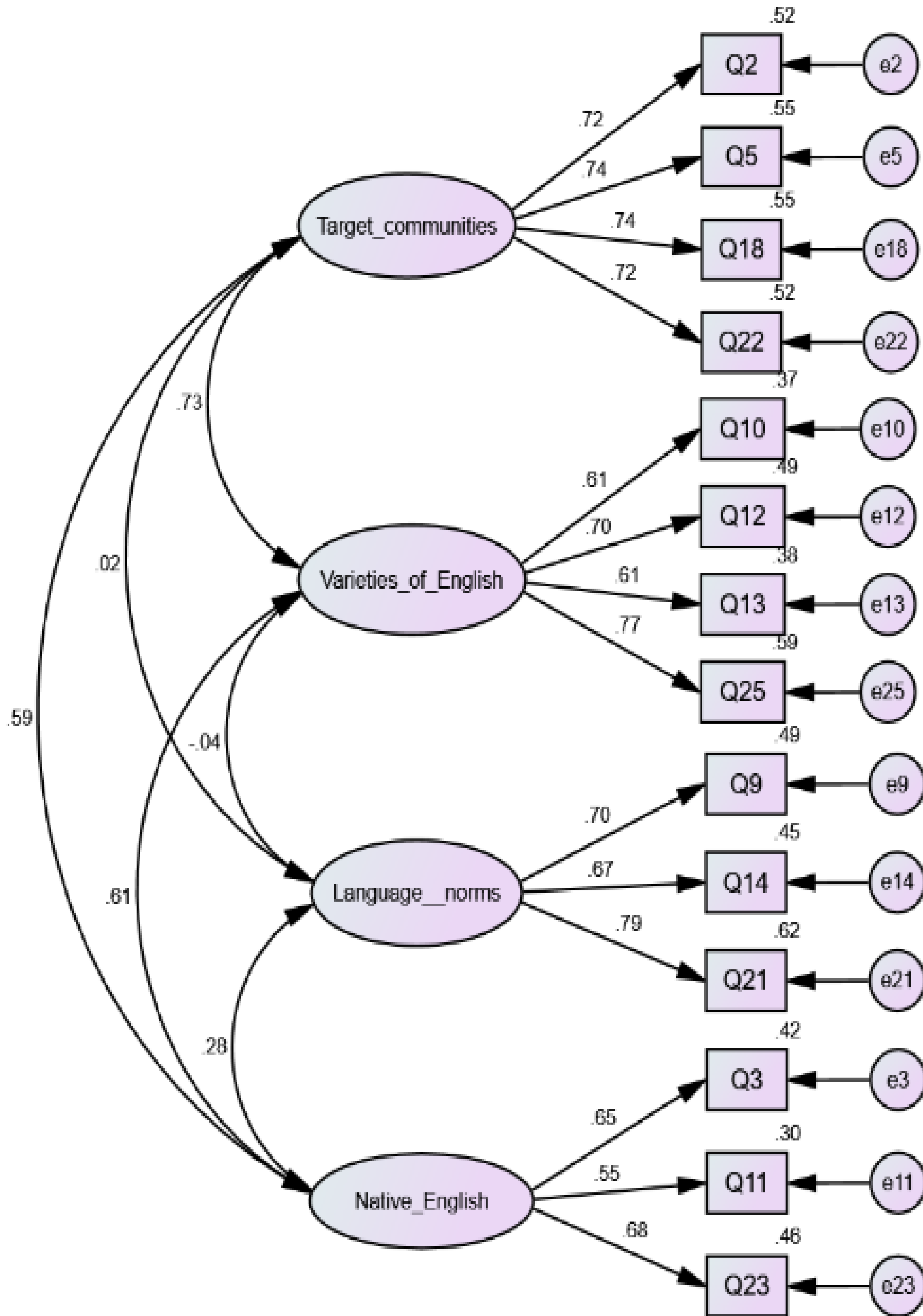
χ^2	*df*	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)	SRMR	Bollen-Stine corrected p-value
242.745**	71	0.940	0.062. (0.053-0.070)	0.046	0.02

Significance Level: $^{**}p < .001$

Table 19
***Standardised and Unstandardised Coefficients and standard errors for the CFA analysis* (p < .001)**

Observed variable	Latent construct	*β*	*B*	*SE*
Q2	Target communities	.719	.921	.055
Q5	Target communities	.745	1.000	
Q18	Target communities	.742	.960	.058
Q22	Target communities	.723	.914	.056
Q10	Varieties of English	.610	.765	.056
Q12	Varieties of English	.698	.851	.057
Q13	Varieties of English	.614	.800	.057
Q25	Varieties of English	.767	1.000	
Q9	Language norms	.699	.915	.067
Q14	Language norms	.671	.843	.063
Q21	Language norms	.790	1.000	
Q3	Native English	.646	1.000	
Q11	Native English	.547	.718	.072
Q23	Native English	.681	.918	.079

Figure 15
The final four-factor GEO model



5.3. Questionnaire: Structural equation modelling (SEM)

Based on the GEO model, SEM was further conducted in order to investigate the relationships between the attitudinal constructs and proficiency and exposure to varieties of English taking potential confounding variables into account, which is described in this section.

5.3.1. Model specification for SEM

The fit of the hypothesised model in Figure 16 was assessed using the same sample (N = 633). The model included four hypothesised factors: *Target communities* (with Q2, 5, 18, and 22, as indicators), *Varieties of English* (with Q10, 12, 13, and 25, as indicators), *Language norms* (with Q9, 14, and 21, as indicators), and *Native English* (with Q3, 11, and 23, as indicators). It was hypothesised that proficiency (*prof*) and exposure to native varieties of English (*ex native*), Japanese varieties of English (*ex Japanese*), and other varieties of English (*ex others*), measured variables, all predicted *Target communities*, *Varieties of English*, *Language norms*, and *Native English*, latent variables. Additionally, overseas experience (*overseas*), gender (*gender*), university types (*uni type*), university location (*uni loca*), university characteristics (*uni chara*), year of study (*year*), and study majors (*major*), all measured variables, were controlled in the model (i.e. they, too, were added as predictors of the four latent variables). All of the independent variables (proficiency, exposure to native varieties of English, exposure to Japanese varieties of English, exposure to other varieties of English, and potential confounding variables) were allowed, initially, to freely covary.

Similar to the CFA, parameters in the model were checked to see whether there was sufficient information in the data to estimate the model. This is important because it

allows the examination of indices of model fit or measures of how well the tested model describes the observed data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). In the study, the sample covariance matrix comprised a total of 325 (25[25+1]/2) pieces of information. Only 144 were to be estimated freely (10 factor loadings, 44 regression coefficients, 29 variances, and 61 covariances), and all the others were fixed parameters in the model. As a result, the hypothesised model was overidentified with 181(325 – 144) degrees of freedom, indicating that there was more than enough information in the data to estimate the model. A correlation table with means and standard deviations is shown in Table 20.

Figure 16
The hypothesised model

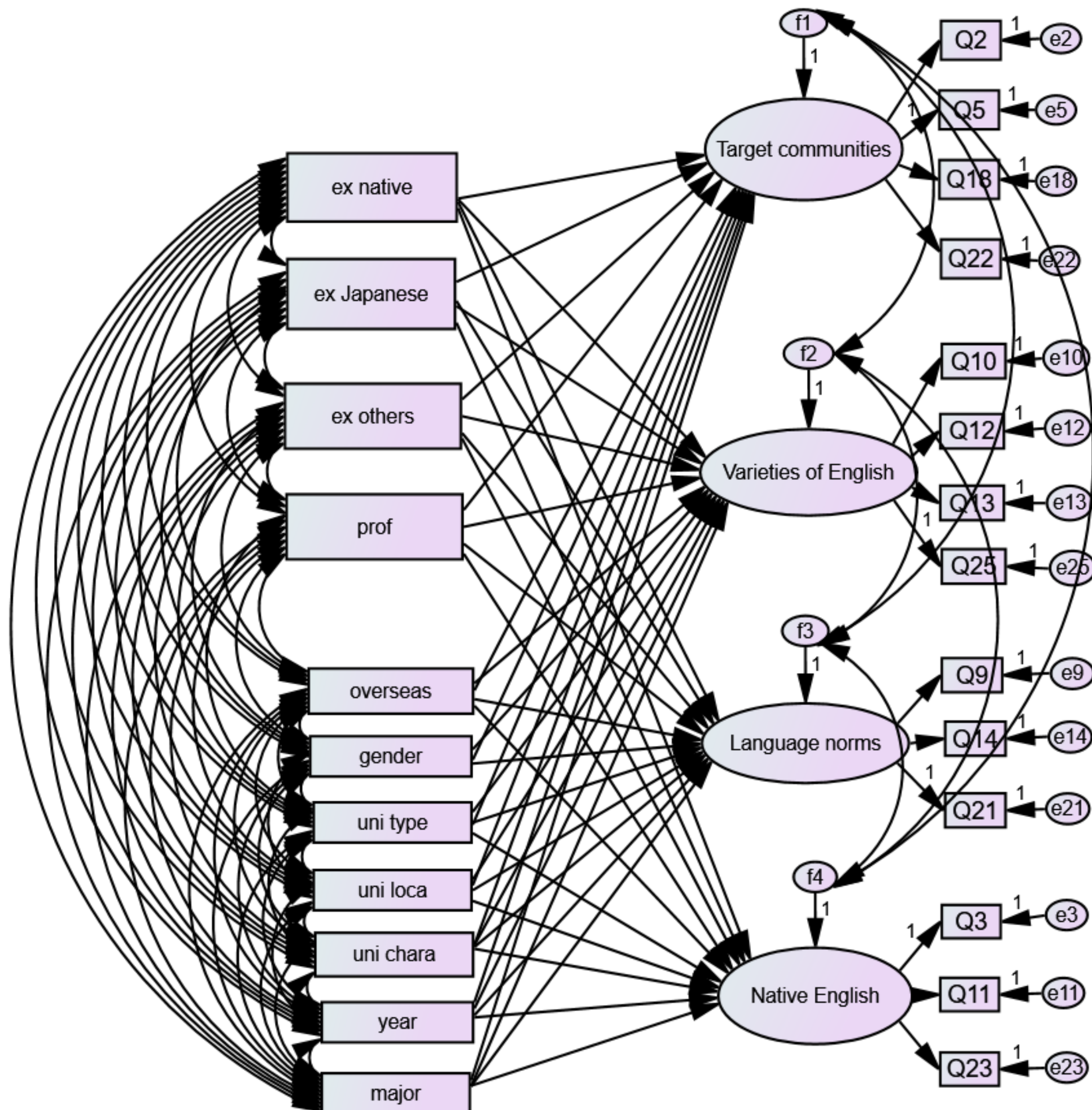


Table20 *Correlation for SEM*

Observed variables	major	year	uni chara	uni loca	uni type	gender	overseas	prof	ex other	ex Japanese	ex native	Q23	Q11	Q3	Q21	Q14	Q9	Q25	Q13	Q12	Q10	Q22	Q18	Q5	Q2
	1.000																								
major	-.147	1.000																							
year	.446	-.530	1.000																						
uni chara	-.427	.105	-.491	1.000																					
uni loca	-.568	-.127	-.257	.770	1.000																				
uni type	.187	.042	.034	.060	.008	1.000																			
gender	.057	.035	.061	-.106	-.084	.065	1.000																		
overseas	.238	-.152	.339	.151	.152	.254	.216	1.000																	
prof	-.008	.044	-.001	.006	-.019	-.075	.045	.057	1.000																
ex other	.023	.012	.011	.038	.028	-.010	.095	.007	.272	1.000															
ex Japanese	.000	.091	-.053	.028	-.022	.075	.143	.198	.289	.578	1.000														
Q23	.010	-.007	.000	.008	-.034	.045	.032	.012	.024	.198	.195	1.000													
Q11	.008	-.006	.000	.006	-.027	.035	.025	.009	.019	.156	.154	.378	1.000												
Q3	.009	-.007	.000	.008	-.032	.042	.030	.011	.023	.187	.184	.453	.357	1.000											
Q21	-.038	.014	-.051	.002	.014	-.081	-.057	-.096	.102	.137	.106	.142	.112	.134	1.000										
Q14	-.034	.013	-.045	.002	.012	-.071	-.050	-.085	.090	.120	.093	.124	.098	.118	.538	1.000									
Q9	-.034	.013	-.046	.002	.012	-.072	-.051	-.086	.092	.122	.094	.127	.100	.120	.549	.481	1.000								
Q25	.097	-.035	.032	.055	-.023	.059	.081	.164	.030	.295	.283	.315	.248	.298	-.035	-.031	-.032	1.000							
Q13	.077	-.028	.026	.044	-.018	.047	.064	.131	.024	.235	.225	.251	.198	.237	-.028	-.025	-.025	.472	1.000						
Q12	.087	-.031	.029	.049	-.021	.053	.073	.148	.027	.265	.255	.284	.223	.268	-.032	-.028	-.029	.533	.425	1.000					
Q10	.076	-.027	.025	.043	-.018	.046	.064	.129	.023	.232	.222	.247	.195	.234	-.028	-.024	-.025	.465	.371	.419	1.000				
Q22	.002	-.073	.052	.061	.050	.020	.195	.201	.091	.240	.320	.286	.225	.270	.008	.007	.007	.400	.319	.360	.314	1.000			
Q18	.003	-.076	.054	.063	.052	.020	.203	.209	.095	.249	.332	.297	.234	.281	.008	.007	.007	.416	.331	.374	.326	.530	1.000		
Q5	.003	-.076	.054	.063	.053	.020	.204	.210	.095	.251	.333	.298	.235	.282	.008	.007	.007	.418	.333	.376	.328	.532	.553	1.000	
Q2	.002	-.074	.053	.061	.051	.020	.197	.203	.092	.243	.323	.289	.228	.273	.008	.007	.007	.404	.322	.364	.318	.515	.535	.538	1.000

The variables were standardised to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. $N = 617$; $M = 0$; $SD = 1$.

5.3.2. Description of independent variables

Before proceeding to SEM, all the independent variables (exposure to varieties of English, proficiency, and confounding variables) were checked as described in this section. All the original dependent variables (attitudinal factors) are explained in Section 4.1.2 and Appendix K.

5.3.2.1. *Exposure to varieties of English (ex native, ex Japanese, and ex others)*

As described in Section 3.5.1.1, the amount of respondents' exposure to different varieties of English was measured via the exposure to varieties of English measure. The descriptive statistics, such as means, and standard deviations, for each questionnaire item were computed, as shown in Table 21. Since a Likert scale was used, numbers were assigned to each response for scoring purposes (*very true of me* = 6; *true of me* = 5; *somewhat true of me* = 4; *somewhat untrue of me* = 3; *untrue of me* = 2; *very untrue of me* = 1). The students had the most exposure to native-speaker English through listening inside ($M = 4.19$) and outside the classroom ($M = 3.91$) and to Japanese English through their speaking classes ($M = 4.00$). Most students did not have many opportunities to speak English outside the classroom with all types of speakers ($M \leqq 2.65$). Regarding English spoken by speakers other than native and Japanese speakers, they showed less exposure to such speakers ($M \leqq 2.87$). Cronbach's alpha was calculated to check the exposure to varieties of English measure reliability, and it was found to be reliable ($\alpha = .84$) according to the threshold (> .7) suggested by Kline (1999). In order to examine the relationship between attitudinal factors and exposure to different varieties of English in detail, the items were grouped into exposure to native varieties of English items (EQ1, 2, 3, 4), exposure to Japanese varieties of English items (EQ5, 6, 7, 8), and exposure to other varieties of English items (EQ9, 10, 11, 12) to create composite scores. Such scores were

calculated based on each grouping and they were out of a possible maximum score of 24 and a possible minimum score of 4.

Table 21
Results of Descriptive statistics: exposure to varieties of English measure (N =633)

Items	Mean	*SD*
EQ1_I often listen/listened to native-speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] in listening/speaking class.	4.19	1.25
EQ7_I often have/had conversations in English with Japanese English speakers in speaking class.	4.00	1.36
EQ2_I often listen/listened to native-speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] outside the classroom.	3.91	1.35
EQ5_I often listen/listened to Japanese-speaker English [songs/movies/ radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] in listening/speaking class.	3.72	1.38
EQ3_I often have/had conversations in English with native English-speakers in speaking class.	3.23	1.31
EQ6_I often listen/listened to Japanese-speaker English [songs/movies/ radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] outside the classroom.	3.12	1.38
EQ9_I often listen/listened to other language-speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] in listening/speaking class.	2.87	1.48
EQ10_I often listen/listened to other language-speaker English [songs/ movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] outside the classroom.	2.81	1.50
EQ4_I often have/had conversations in English with native English-speakers outside the classroom.	2.65	1.43
EQ11_I often have/had conversations in English with other language-speakers in speaking class.	2.50	1.41
EQ12_I often have/had conversations in English with other language-speakers outside the classroom.	2.44	1.44
EQ 8_I often have/had conversations in English with Japanese English-speakers outside the classroom.	2.32	1.30

5.3.2.2. *Proficiency (prof)*

As mentioned in Section 3.5.1.2, TOEIC scores were used to examine the relationship between attitudinal factors and proficiency. The scores were out of a possible maximum score of 990 and a possible minimum score of 10 with a mean of 572.13 (*SD* = 141.54, *N* = 333).

5.3.2.3. *Potential confounding variables*

In addition to exposure to varieties of English represented in the model by three variables (exposure to native varieties of English, exposure to Japanese varieties of English, and exposure to other varieties of English) and proficiency represented by TOEIC scores, other measured variables that could affect the relationships between attitudinal factors and the predictor variables above were included in the model as independent variables. As explained in Section 3.5.4.2, all these variables were binary categorical variables: overseas experiences (*overseas*; never been overseas: $N = 206$, been overseas: $N = 411$); gender (male: $N = 295$, female: $N = 322$); university types (*uni type*; private: $N = 330$, others: $N = 287$); university location (*uni loca*; urban: $N = 255$, rural: $N = 362$); university characteristics (*uni chara*; Top Global university: $N = 330$, others: $N = 287$); year of study (*year*; first year: $N = 317$, others: $N = 300$); and study majors (*major*; science major: $N = 138$, other majors: $N = 479$) (see Section 3.4 for the selection of relevant variables).

5.3.3. Evaluation of assumptions

Several assumptions (sample size and missing data; normality and linearity; outliers; multicollinearity and singularity; and estimation method and bootstrapping) were carefully checked prior to SEM, as explained in this section.

5.3.3.1. *Sample size and missing data*

The dataset contained responses from 633 participants. Given the number of measured variables and the hypothesised relationships, the sample was adequate (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013).

There were complete data for 311 participants on the 25 measured variables. Sixteen participants (2.5%) were missing data on gender and 311 participants (49.1 %) were missing proficiency data. Because such missing data could seriously affect conclusions drawn from an empirical study, they needed to be addressed (Byrne, 2001; Hair *et al*., 2009; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). The missing data showed that some respondents did not indicate their gender and/or did not report their TOEIC scores.

Although the missing data on gender were due to non-response by the respondents, and thus not ignorable, the amount of the missing data was at a low enough level to proceed directly to the remedy according to Hair *et al*.'s (2009) criteria (i.e. less than 10% of the sample). Taken together, listwise deletion of 16 cases was performed. Similarly, the missing data on proficiency were not ignorable. Additionally, the level of the missing data was high; thus, such missing data should be remedied. First, the level of randomness in the missing data was assessed using a Pearson chi-square test to compare the observations with and without missing data for each variable on the other variables. The results indicated that whether or not proficiency was reported depended on the participants' university location (χ^2 (1) = 60.547, $p < .001$). The effect size, Cramer's *V*, was moderate (.31), according to Cohen's criteria (1988). This showed that all the absent data here were due to a missing at random. In other words, missingness is because of a predictable reason and, thus, becomes a random effect that can be estimated. Taken together, in order to replace such missing values, the full information maximum likelihood (FIML) estimation was employed (Little, Jorgensen, Lang, & Moore, 2014), using the observed responses to supplement the loss of information due to the missing responses.

In order to measure the effectiveness of FIML, the study examined the extent to which estimates and goodness-of-fit indices vary between an analysis based on the complete data using FIML and one for which the data were missing. Although the number of fixed parameters in the model was the same for the two samples, the number of unlabelled parameters varied, with the incomplete data group having 169 estimated parameters, and the complete data sample having 144. The explanation of this discrepancy was associated with the estimation of 14 intercepts and 11 means for the incomplete data sample. The number of degrees of freedom (181) remained the same across the complete and incomplete data samples. Nevertheless, its calculation was based upon a different number of data points (350 versus 325), as well as a different number of estimated parameters (169 versus 144). Despite the loss of the data for the one sample, the overall χ^2 value remained relatively close to that for the complete data sample (375.579 versus 374.461).

A comparison of parameter estimates between the incomplete and complete data samples was conducted. In reviewing these estimates for the incomplete data sample and for the complete data sample, the values were relatively close. As shown in Table 22, in comparing the goodness-of-fit statistics for the incomplete data sample, with those reported for the complete data sample, such values were almost the same (e.g. χ^2, 375.579 versus 374.461; RMSEA, .042 versus .042; CFI, .960 versus .962). Given the extent to which both the parameter estimates and the goodness-of-fit statistics were similar, these findings provided strong supportive evidence for the effectiveness of the FIML approach to addressing the problem of missing data values in this study. Thus, the analysis proceeded with the complete data sample (N = 617).

Table 22
Fit indices for the model with the incomplete and complete data

Model	χ^2	*df*	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)
The incomplete data	375.579**	181	0.960	0.042(0.036-0.048)
The completed data	374.461**	181	0.962	0.042(0.036-0.048)

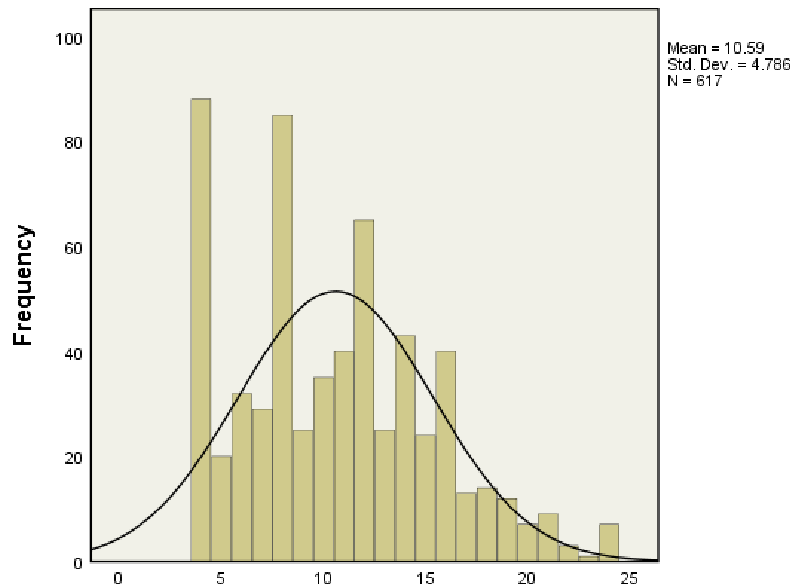
Significance Level: $^{**}p < .001$

5.3.3.2. *Normality and linearity*

The distribution of the 29 observed variables was examined for univariate normality. As mentioned in the EFA and CFA (see Sections 5.1.1 and 5.2.2), all 14 attitudinal items in the GEO model were checked. A review of these values revealed no item to be substantially nonnormal. Other measured variables (independent variables) are described below.

The composite scores on *ex native* ranged from 4 to 24 (*M* = 13.98, *SD* = 3.68). This variable was normally distributed (skewness = .088, *SE* = .098; kurtosis = -.151, *SE* = .196). Regarding *ex Japanese* (*M* = 13.18, *SD* = 3.64), there was a positive kurtosis value (skewness =.110, *SE* =.098; kurtosis = .056, *SE* =.196). The 5% trimmed mean value of outlying cases in this variable had little to no effect on the mean (13.16), suggesting that this variable did not deviate significantly from normality. In terms of *ex others* (*M* =10.59, *SD* = 4.79), according to the histogram in Figure 17, this variable was non-normally distributed (skewness =.465, *SE* =.098; kurtosis = -.377, *SE* =.196), suggesting that the data were positively skewed. The *p*-value of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic was .000, further suggesting a violation of the assumption of normality. However, an inspection of the boxplot revealed that no outlier was found in this variable which might account for the similarity to the mean value of the 5% trimmed mean (10.36).

Figure 17
The histogram for ex others



There were no extreme outliers in this variable; therefore, in order to attain normal distribution without sacrificing valid, non-extreme outlying cases, the variable was logarithmically transformed. The logarithmically transformed *ex others* was investigated to determine whether it conformed to a normal distribution, but the distribution of the transformed variable was less normal than that of the non-transformed variable. The square root and inverse transformations were then applied to *ex others* but did not normalise the distribution in comparison with the original variable nor with the logarithmically transformed variable. Since the data transformation techniques failed to normalise the distribution and there was a large number of respondents who reported no exposure to other varieties of English, the original data values were transformed into a binary variable (not exposed or exposed to other varieties of English). The variable was dichotomous and had an 88 to 529 split, roughly a 1 to 6 ratio, which was greater than 1 to 10 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013); thus, this was not particularly disturbing. The binary variable was retained for analysis. Similarly, in terms of confounding variables, which were dichotomous (see Section 5.3.2), all the variables were with a split greater than a 1

to 10 ratio (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Thus, these binary variables were also retained for analysis.

Regarding *prof*, the data were scored out of a possible maximum score of 990 and a possible minimum score of 10 with a mean of 579.15 (*SD* = 118.258). This variable was normally distributed (skewness = .269, *SE* = .098; kurtosis = .532, *SE* = .196).

Regarding multivariate normality, as mentioned in the CFA (see Section 5.2.2), the index of multivariate kurtosis and its critical ratio were checked. In this application, the z-statistic was 14.360, suggesting that the measured variables are not distributed normally.

Regarding linearity, with 29 variables, the examination of all pairwise scatterplots was impractical. Therefore, 45 random spot checks were conducted. All observed pairs appeared to be linearly related. Transformations were thus not made to these variables.

5.3.3.3. *Further assumption checks (outliers; multicollinearity and singularity; adequacy of covariances; residuals; and estimation method and bootstrapping)*

Neither univariate nor multivariate outliers were detected. A review of the Mahalanobis distance values showed that no further cases were identified as serious multivariate outliers. Since the program converged, the covariance matrix was assumed to be non-singular. Additionally, there were no convergence problems due to the covariances. The evaluation of residuals was performed as part of model evaluation. Regarding the estimation method, as mentioned in the CFA (see Section 5.2.2), in order to use the Maximum Likelihood (ML), the data should be multivariate normal (Byrne, 2001). Since the degree of nonnormality was extreme, the present analysis employed the ML estimation with bootstrapping (500 resamples) to generate accurate estimations of the parameters with accompanying confidence intervals (bias-corrected at the 95%

confidence level) and *p*-values as recommended in Byrne (2010). The Bollen-Stine corrected *p*-value was also computed to assess the overall model fit (Bollen & Stine, 1992).

5.3.4. Structural equation modelling

Since corrective measures were taken for a violation of the normality assumption, and all other assumptions were met, SEM was conducted. In the following sections, the model summary, bootstrapping, indices of fit for the model as a whole, and finally, modification indices with a view to pinpointing areas of model misspecification are explained.

5.3.4.1. *Model estimation*

Regarding the estimation of the hypothesised model, the overall chi-square (χ^2) was significant, χ^2 (181, $N = 617$) = 374.461, $p < .001$ indicating a poor-fitting model (Byrne, 2010). Chi-square values depend on the sample sizes; in such models with large samples, trivial differences can cause the $\chi 2$ to be significant due to sample size (Byrne, 2001; Cooper, 2017). In this case, the sample size of 617 was large. Moreover, all model parameters were estimated successfully, resulting in a convergent solution. Thus, other fit statistics were examined closely.

5.3.4.2. *Other fit statistics*

As explained in the CFA (see Section 5.2.3), this study relied on the CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR in addition to the χ^2 results. The selected indices of fit are presented in the following section.

The CFI value of .962 in this study was indicative of a good-fitting model according to Hu and Bentler's (1999) criteria. The value for RMSEA was .042. Using the 90%

confidence interval for this RMSEA, the true value of RMSEA was between .036 and .048. This value appeared quite low and was below the .10 guideline (Browne & Cudeck, 1993). The RMSEA value, therefore, provided additional support for determining model fit. Furthermore, the SRMR value was .034, and it was below the conservative cut-off value of .08 (Hu & Bentler, 1999), indicating a good-fitting model.

The Bollen–Stine bootstrap was p = .002, suggesting poor fit (Bollen & Stine, 1992). Since the sample size was large and the ML estimator *p*-value was .000, the Bollen–Stine bootstrap $p = .002$ showed at least some improvements. The analysis also considered the standardised residual covariance matrix. If the estimated model represents a good fit, the majority of residual covariances should be less than two (Joreskog, 1993), which was apparent from the results. The bootstrap estimates of standard errors were compared with the appropriate ML error estimates. The findings suggested that the distribution of these estimates appeared to be close to what would be expected under normal theory assumptions. The 95 % bias-corrected confidence intervals for the standardised factor-loading estimates were checked, and some of these intervals included zero ($p > .01$), as shown in Tables 23 and 24, indicating some factor loadings could be equal to zero in the population (Byrne, 2001). These estimates are examined in the next section.

Table 23

The 95 % bias-corrected confidence intervals for the standardised factor-loading estimates ($p < .01$)

Parameter			Estimate	Lower	Upper	*P*
Target communities	<---	ex native	.327	.228	.420	.006
Target communities	<---	ex Japanese	.133	.036	.231	.007
Target communities	<---	prof	.166	.061	.277	.005
Target communities	<---	overseas	.196	.118	.276	.003
Target communities	<---	year	-.134	-.248	-.034	.008
Varieties of English	<---	ex native	.188	.077	.294	.005
Varieties of English	<---	ex Japanese	.298	.186	.402	.004
Varieties of English	<---	ex other	-.108	-.191	-.016	.021
Varieties of English	<---	prof	.158	.070	.270	.001
Varieties of English	<---	uni type	-.223	-.362	-.030	.033
Varieties of English	<---	uni loca	.223	.063	.385	.007
Varieties of English	<---	year	-.097	-.202	-.003	.046
Language norms	<---	prof	-.109	-.215	-.005	.043
Native English	<---	ex native	.187	.062	.323	.003
Native English	<---	ex Japanese	.199	.086	.332	.003
Native English	<---	uni type	-.206	-.376	-.041	.023
Q2	<---	Target communities	.721	.663	.771	.005
Q5	<---	Target communities	.745	.685	.801	.003
Q18	<---	Target communities	.742	.684	.802	.003
Q22	<---	Target communities	.714	.666	.769	.003
Q12	<---	Varieties of English	.693	.613	.758	.004
Q13	<---	Varieties of English	.613	.534	.680	.003
Q25	<---	Varieties of English	.770	.714	.819	.004
Q10	<---	Varieties of English	.605	.529	.690	.002
Q9	<---	Language norms	.701	.632	.766	.003
Q14	<---	Language norms	.687	.597	.768	.003
Q21	<---	Language norms	.783	.711	.840	.007
Q3	<---	Native English	.654	.572	.723	.005
Q11	<---	Native English	.546	.449	.628	.003
Q23	<---	Native English	.692	.611	.760	.005

Table 24
***The 95 % bias-corrected confidence intervals for the standardised factor-loading estimates* ($p > .01$)**

Parameter			Estimate	Lower	Upper	*P*
Target communities	<---	ex other	-.022	-.122	.074	.711
Target communities	<---	gender	-.043	-.127	.043	.332
Target communities	<---	uni type	-.083	-.232	.075	.255
Target communities	<---	uni loca	.132	-.021	.286	.090
Target communities	<---	uni chara	.022	-.130	.143	.917
Target communities	<---	major	-.063	-.177	.059	.275
Varieties of English	<---	overseas	.028	-.053	.125	.493
Varieties of English	<---	gender	.001	-.089	.093	.957
Varieties of English	<---	uni chara	-.026	-.156	.108	.726
Varieties of English	<---	major	.045	-.079	.160	.485
Language norms	<---	ex native	.087	-.024	.219	.128
Language norms	<---	ex Japanese	.108	-.027	.237	.114
Language norms	<---	ex other	.083	-.011	.180	.104
Language norms	<---	overseas	-.070	-.163	.011	.132
Language norms	<---	gender	-.071	-.160	.027	.146
Language norms	<---	uni type	.082	-.070	.258	.309
Language norms	<---	uni loca	-.062	-.237	.083	.449
Language norms	<---	uni chara	-.046	-.217	.085	.522
Language norms	<---	year	-.008	-.128	.101	.917
Language norms	<---	major	.032	-.078	.175	.570
Native English	<---	ex other	-.069	-.168	.039	.226
Native English	<---	prof	-.033	-.153	.109	.685
Native English	<---	overseas	.010	-.080	.117	.765
Native English	<---	gender	.063	-.032	.162	.157
Native English	<---	uni loca	.153	-.025	.350	.077
Native English	<---	uni chara	.034	-.129	.184	.780
Native English	<---	year	-.070	-.188	.045	.266
Native English	<---	major	-.072	-.209	.046	.209

5.3.4.3. *Modifying the model*

As explained in Section 5.2.3.4, a number of model diagnostics that may suggest a way to improve the specified model or identify some problem areas were checked. Byrne (2001) and Hair *et al.* (2009) suggested that the following diagnostic measures from SEM should be checked: path estimates, standardised residuals, and modification indices.

Regarding the measurement part, path estimates should be examined to ensure that these have not changed substantially from the CFA model (Hair *et al.*, 2009). In this study, the loading estimates were unchanged or changed only slightly and the maximum change was .016, as shown in Table 25. The construct reliability did not change except for *Native English* (.67). The correlational relationships among the attitudinal factors from the CFA model and those from the SEM model were quite comparable, as shown in Table 26. These further supported the measurement model's validity. In terms of the structural part, the estimated unstandardised and standardised structure path estimates are shown in Table 25. Regarding the predictor variables (proficiency and exposure to varieties of English), all but seven structural path estimates were significant. The exceptions were the estimates between *Target communities* and *ex others* (β = -.022, p = .597); *Language norms* and *ex native* (β = .087, p = .140), *ex Japanese* (β = .108, p = .057), *ex others* (β = .083, p = .082), and *prof* (β = -.109, p = .067); and *Native English* and *ex others* (β = -.069, p = .167) and *prof* (β = -.033, p = .602). Thus, although a majority of these estimates were in the expected directions and hypothesised to be significant, they were not supported. Regarding confounding variables, most structural path estimates were non-significant as expected. The exceptions were the estimates between *Target communities* and *overseas* (β = .196, p < .001) and year of study (*year*; β = -.134, p < .01); *Varieties of English* and university types (*uni type*; β = -.223, p < .01) and university location (*uni loca*; β = .223, p < .01); and *Native English* and university types (*uni type*; β = -.206, p < .05), indicating that these variables might have influenced some relationships between the predictor variables (proficiency and exposure to varieties of English) and attitudinal factors.

Table 26 also contains the correlational relationships among the independent variables. *Ex native* was significantly correlated with exposure to *ex Japanese* (r = .578, p < .001), *ex others* (r = .289, p < .001), and *prof* (r = .198, p < .001); *ex Japanese* was also

significantly correlated with *ex others* ($r = .272$, $p < .001$) as expected. Significant correlations between *prof* and some of the independent variables were expected because the FIML dealt with the missing data on proficiency considering other measured variables.

The standardised residuals were checked. The SEM model had 245 residuals. There were three standardised residuals greater than |2.5|. No standardised residual exceeded |4.0|, the benchmark value that may indicate a problem (Byrne, 2001; Hair *et al.*, 2009). No action was taken at this point, given the overall positive results.

Large *MI*s were also checked. The very large *MI* for the covariance of the error terms of Q3 and 5 was identified (err3⇔err5; *MI* =38.182), which might require model re-specifications. As mentioned in the CFA (see Section 5.2.3.4), this error covariance appeared to be triggered by a high degree of overlap with the content of these two items. A review of the *MI*s for structural relationships revealed no model re-specification would contribute to substantial improvement in model fit. Given a solid theoretical foundation and a good model fit, it seemed both reasonable and logical that no further attempt should be made for modification. Thus, post-hoc model modifications were not performed.

5.3.4.4. *The final model (SEM)*

The SEM results roughly supported the hypothesised model, as shown in Figure 16. The model fit the data well. Although the χ^2 statistic was significant at the .001 level and the Bollen-Stine corrected *p*-value was significant ($p = .02$), which was not unusual given a sample size of 617, the CFI, RMSEA, and SRMR indicated a good model fit, as shown in Table 27.

As shown in Table 25, in this model, 30.8% of the variance in *English use with target communities* (*Target communities*) was accounted for by all the predictor variables. An

increase in positive attitudes towards *English use with target communities* (*Target communities*) was predicted by greater exposure to native varieties of English (*ex native*; $\beta = .327$, $p < .001$), Japanese varieties of English (*ex Japanese*; $\beta = .133$, $p < .01$), and proficiency (*prof*; $\beta = .166$, $p < .01$). Greater exposure to other varieties of English (*ex others*) did not significantly predict increased positive attitudes towards *English use with target communities* (*Target communities*; $\beta = -.022$, $p = .597$). Nevertheless, it was important to note that increased positivity towards *English use with target communities* (*Target communities*) was also significantly predicted by two confounding variables: whether students had been abroad (*overseas*; $\beta = .196$, $p < .001$) and whether students were in their first year (*year*; $\beta = -.134$, $p < .01$).

Regarding the variance in *Awareness about varieties of English* (*Varieties of English*), 24.7% was accounted for by all the predictor variables. As shown in Table 25, increased positivity towards varieties of English (*Varieties of English*) was predicted by greater exposure to native varieties of English (*ex native*; $\beta = .188$, $p < .001$), Japanese varieties of English (*ex Japanese*; $\beta = .298$, $p < .001$), and proficiency (*prof*; $\beta = .158$, $p < .01$) but less exposure to other varieties of English (*ex others*; $\beta = -.108$, $p < .05$). Two confounding variables, namely whether students were from private universities (*uni type*; $\beta = -.223$, $p < .01$) and whether students were from urban universities (*uni loca*; $\beta = .223$, $p < .01$), predicted increased positivity towards *Awareness about varieties of English*.

None of the variables significantly predicted increased positive attitudes towards *Language norms*. Only 7.0% of the variance in language norms was accounted for by all the predictor variables, as shown in Table 25.

Lastly, 12.3% of the variance in *Preference for native English* (*Native English*) was accounted for by all the predictor variables. As shown in Table 25, increased positivity

towards native English (*Native English*) was significantly predicted by greater exposure to native English (*ex native*; $\beta = .187$, $p < .01$) and Japanese varieties of English (*ex Japanese*; $\beta = .199$, $p < .01$). Neither exposure to other varieties (*ex others*; $\beta = -.069$, $p = .167$) of English nor proficiency (*prof*; $\beta = -.033$, $p = .602$) significantly predicted positive attitudes towards native English (*Native English*). It was important to note that increased positivity towards native English (*Native English*) was also significantly predicted by a confounding variable: whether students were from private universities (*uni type*; $\beta = -.206$, $p < .05$).

Table 25

Results from the SEM analysis

Structural Model Estimates

Parameters			β	B	SE	P	R^2
Target communities	<---	ex native	.327	.089	.014	***	.308
Target communities	<---	ex Japanese	.133	.037	.014	.007	
Target communities	<---	ex others	-.022	-.062	.117	.597	
Target communities	<---	prof	.166	.001	.000	.001	
Target communities	<---	overseas	.196	.419	.087	***	
Target communities	<---	gender	-.043	-.086	.082	.295	
Target communities	<---	uni type	-.083	-.168	.153	.271	
Target communities	<---	uni loca	.132	.269	.151	.074	
Target communities	<---	uni chara	.022	.045	.126	.722	
Target communities	<---	year	-.134	-.271	.099	.006	
Target communities	<---	major	-.063	-.153	.134	.254	
Varieties of English	<---	ex native	.188	.045	.013	***	.247
Varieties of English	<---	ex Japanese	.298	.072	.013	***	
Varieties of English	<---	ex others	-.108	-.272	.110	.013	
Varieties of English	<---	prof	.158	.001	.000	.004	
Varieties of English	<---	overseas	.028	.053	.081	.513	
Varieties of English	<---	gender	.001	.001	.077	.985	
Varieties of English	<---	uni type	-.223	-.394	.143	.006	
Varieties of English	<---	uni loca	.223	.399	.141	.005	
Varieties of English	<---	uni chara	-.026	-.046	.118	.698	
Varieties of English	<---	year	-.097	-.171	.092	.063	
Varieties of English	<---	major	.045	.094	.125	.450	
Language norms	<---	ex native	.087	.023	.015	.140	.070
Language norms	<---	ex Japanese	.108	.029	.015	.057	
Language norms	<---	ex others	.083	.226	.130	.082	
Language norms	<---	prof	-.109	-.001	.000	.067	
Language norms	<---	overseas	-.070	-.142	.095	.136	
Language norms	<---	gender	-.071	-.137	.091	.132	
Language norms	<---	uni type	.082	.157	.168	.349	
Language norms	<---	uni loca	-.062	-.120	.166	.467	
Language norms	<---	uni chara	-.046	-.088	.139	.527	
Language norms	<---	year	-.008	-.016	.108	.881	
Language norms	<---	major	.032	.073	.147	.621	
Native English	<---	ex native	.187	.044	.015	.003	.123
Native English	<---	ex Japanese	.199	.047	.015	.001	
Native English	<---	ex others	-.069	-.171	.124	.167	
Native English	<---	prof	-.033	.000	.000	.602	
Native English	<---	overseas	.010	.018	.091	.847	
Native English	<---	gender	.063	.109	.087	.211	
Native English	<---	uni type	-.206	-.358	.161	.026	
Native English	<---	uni loca	.153	.269	.159	.090	
Native English	<---	uni chara	.034	.058	.133	.661	
Native English	<---	year	-.072	-.121	.103	.240	
Native English	<---	major	-.070	-.150	.140	.285	

Table 25
Results from the SEM analysis (Continued)

Measurement Model Estimates							
Parameters			*β*	*B*	*SE*	*P*	R^2
Q2	<---	Target communities	.721	.922	.055	***	
Q5	<---	Target communities	.745	1.000			
Q18	<---	Target communities	.742	.960	.058	***	
Q22	<---	Target communities	.714	.904	.056	***	
Q10	<---	Varieties of English	.605	.753	.056	***	
Q12	<---	Varieties of English	.693	.844	.056	***	
Q13	<---	Varieties of English	.613	.796	.057	***	
Q25	<---	Varieties of English	.770	1.000			
Q9	<---	Language norms	.701	.917	.064	***	
Q14	<---	Language norms	.687	.863	.064	***	
Q21	<---	Language norms	.783	1.000			
Q3	<---	Native English	.654	1.000			
Q11	<---	Native English	.546	.709	.072	***	
Q23	<---	Native English	.692	.928	.081	***	

*** $p < .001$

Table 26
Correlational relationships among the measured predictor variables/factors

Structural Model Estimates				
Parameters			*r*	*P*
uni type	<-->	uni loca	.770	***
ex native	<-->	ex Japanese	.578	***
uni type	<-->	major	-.568	***
uni chara	<-->	year	-.530	***
uni loca	<-->	uni chara	-.491	***
uni chara	<-->	major	.446	***
uni loca	<-->	major	-.427	***
prof	<-->	uni chara	.339	***
ex native	<-->	ex others	.289	***
ex Japanese	<-->	ex others	.272	***
uni type	<-->	uni chara	-.257	***
prof	<-->	gender	.254	***
prof	<-->	major	.238	***
prof	<-->	overseas	.216	***
ex native	<-->	prof	.198	***
gender	<-->	major	.187	***
prof	<-->	uni type	.152	***
prof	<-->	year	-.152	***
prof	<-->	uni loca	.151	***
year	<-->	major	-.147	***
ex native	<-->	overseas	.143	***
uni type	<-->	year	-.127	.002
overseas	<-->	uni loca	-.106	.009
uni loca	<-->	year	.105	.009
ex Japanese	<-->	overseas	.095	.019
ex native	<-->	year	.091	.025
overseas	<-->	uni type	-.084	.038

Table 26

Correlational relationships among the measured predictor variables/factors (Continued)

Structural Model Estimates				
Parameters			*r*	*P*
ex native	<-->	gender	.075	.063
ex others	<-->	gender	-.075	.064
overseas	<-->	gender	.065	.105
overseas	<-->	uni chara	.061	.132
gender	<-->	uni loca	.060	.138
overseas	<-->	major	.057	.157
ex others	<-->	prof	.057	.161
ex native	<-->	uni chara	-.053	.187
ex others	<-->	overseas	.045	.260
ex others	<-->	year	.044	.271
gender	<-->	year	.042	.300
ex Japanese	<-->	uni loca	.038	.344
overseas	<-->	year	.035	.379
gender	<-->	uni chara	.034	.400
ex Japanese	<-->	uni type	.028	.492
ex native	<-->	uni loca	.028	.493
ex Japanese	<-->	major	.023	.568
ex native	<-->	uni type	-.022	.594
ex others	<-->	uni type	-.019	.634
ex Japanese	<-->	year	.012	.764
ex Japanese	<-->	uni chara	.011	.790
ex Japanese	<-->	gender	-.010	.799
gender	<-->	uni type	-.008	.844
ex others	<-->	major	.008	.851
ex Japanese	<-->	prof	.007	.870
ex others	<-->	uni loca	.006	.883
ex others	<-->	uni chara	-.001	.988
ex native	<-->	major	.000	.995
Measurement Model Estimates				
Parameters			*r*	*P*
f1(Target communities)	<-->	f2(Varieties of English)	.684	***
f1(Target communities)	<-->	f4(Native English)	.557	***
f2(Varieties of English)	<-->	f4(Native English)	.538	***
f3(Language norms)	<-->	f4(Native English)	.240	***
f2(Varieties of English)	<-->	f3(Language norms)	-.114	.037
f1(Target communities)	<-->	f3(Language norms)	-.023	.666

Table 27

Fit indices for the SEM model

χ^2	*df*	CFI	RMSEA (90% CI)	SRMR	Bollen-Stine corrected p-value
374.461**	181	0.962	0.042. (0.036-0.048)	0.034	0.02

Significance Level: $^{**}p < .001$

5.3.5. Summary

Overall, some relationships were found between proficiency and exposure to different varieties of English and factors affecting attitudes towards English as a global language. More exposure to native and Japanese varieties of English predicted increased positive attitudes towards *Target communities*, *Varieties of English*, and *Native English*. Interestingly, more exposure to other varieties of English predicted less positive attitudes towards *Varieties of English* and did not predict any other attitudinal factors. Higher proficiency predicted increased attitudes towards *Target communities* and *Varieties of English*. Attitudes towards *Target communities* were predicted by overseas experiences and study years. Learners' university type and location predicted their attitudes towards *Varieties of English*. Learners' university type also predicted their attitudes towards *Native English*. Attitudes towards *Language norms* were not predicted by any of the predictor variables. Lastly, the factors predicted the measured indicator variables well; in other words, the GEO model was found to be strong. These quantitative findings are further explored in qualitative data analysis.

5.4. Focus groups

The focus group data were analysed based on the SEM results and were used to add qualitative support to the quantitative findings.

As described in Section 3.6.6, analyses were carried out in order to answer Research Question 2, which explores the relationship between the attitudinal factors (*Target communities*, *Varieties of English*, *Language norms*, and *Native English*) and respondents' proficiency and exposure to varieties of English (native, Japanese, and other varieties). Based on the questionnaire results, the focus group data were mainly analysed

deductively to tease apart and interpret the quantitative findings. The data were examined further, taking all other variables affecting attitudes (overseas, study year, university types, and university location) addressed in the quantitative analysis into consideration.

5.4.1. Exposure to native varieties of English

In the focus groups, those who had more exposure to native varieties of English tended to be more globally oriented, thinking that they would be more likely to speak English in the future (*Groups A* to *G*). Their positive attitudes appeared to be formed through their various experiences, such as talking to native speakers both in Japan and overseas for sightseeing, business, and/or study abroad. Language and content classes taught by native English-speaking teachers at high schools and/or universities also had an impact on their attitudes. Moreover, reading textbooks in native varieties of English as well as journal articles and magazines related to the sciences and humanities published in the United States or the United Kingdom, listening to American or British music, and/or watching American or British films also contributed to the development of their attitudes. Through exposure to native varieties, all participants formed positive attitudes towards native varieties and the speakers of those varieties. For example, *Participant 9* stated the following:

> In my high school, there was an exchange programme. Some students from Harvard University and University College London were invited to my high school in Japan. The students stayed in Japan for two weeks. I was able to become friends with them. This experience changed my understanding of English language learning and teaching. I realised that it was vital to have abundant opportunities to speak with native speakers one-on-one.

Participant 9 also showed positive attitudes towards native varieties of English. He stated that native varieties of English differed from the English presented in textbooks. He wanted to learn 'authentic' and 'informal' English such as the ones he encountered in the exchange programme.

Some participants gained insights not only into native varieties but also other varieties due to their exposure to native English varieties. *Participant 13* mentioned that because of his study abroad experience in the United States, which gave him a chance to talk with native speakers in English, he learned that it was possible to communicate successfully using varieties of English other than native ones. Thus, he started perceiving different varieties of English more positively. *Participant 6* was initially exposed to native varieties by reading British novels and watching British films and YouTube video clips featuring British actors. She stated, 'British English is easier for me to learn than American English, especially in respect to pronunciation'. *Participant 6* also found out that there were varieties of British English, such as South-Western English, Northern English, and Scottish English, through books and films. This led her to become interested in other varieties of English, such as the English spoken in Germany, France, India, and China. Thus, initial exposure to native varieties of English was seen as a gateway to positive attitudes towards other varieties.

Among the more globally oriented groups, *Group F* was an exceptional case. The participants in *Group F* (*Participants 19* and *20*) had more exposure to native varieties of English despite the fact that they were less likely to use English in the future than some of the participants in the less globally oriented groups. They were exposed to native varieties of English not only quantitatively but also qualitatively differently compared to the participants in the less globally oriented groups at that time. Their majors were English

related, and they were in an environment that required them to regularly use English with native speakers in their university courses. For instance, although *Participant 19* mentioned that he might not use English after graduating from his university, he was very enthusiastic about being able to speak with native speakers more effectively. He was currently taking courses taught by an American professor. He aimed to understand what his teacher said in class ‘correctly’ and wanted to communicate with the teacher more smoothly at smaller seminars. In order to do so, he believed that it would be better to set his teacher and the variety of English the professor spoke (American English) as a target interlocutor and language, respectively. *Participant 20* also agreed with *Participant 19* and stated that she had been speaking to native English-speaking professors frequently on campus, which contributed to her developing interest and positive attitudes towards speaking with native speakers. She thought that she should learn native varieties of English in order to communicate with her professors more confidently.

Regarding the less globally oriented groups (*Groups H* and *I*), because they believed that they were less likely to encounter opportunities to speak with native speakers at that time and in the future, they tended to be exposed to native varieties of English through language classes or TOEIC test preparation. Their belief that they had to comprehend the English used in the TOEIC test (native varieties) in order to obtain a good score which could make a difference in searching for a future job mainly contributed to their positive attitudes towards native varieties of English.

Overall, both the quantity and quality of exposure to native varieties in the past, present, and future appeared to play a crucial role in the development of globally oriented attitudes. In addition, no particular negative image of native varieties due to exposure to these varieties was found.

5.4.2. Exposure to Japanese varieties of English

Similar to exposure to native varieties of English (see Section 5.4.1), the quantity and quality of exposure to Japanese varieties of English appeared to be important in the participants' attitude formation. In other words, those who had more exposure and more positive encounters with Japanese varieties and the speakers of these varieties tended to be more globally oriented.

The participants were mainly exposed to Japanese varieties in language classrooms. The focus group data revealed that the participants' experience with Japanese classmates, Japanese English language teachers, and classroom conversation practices contributed to their attitudes. *Participant 8* referred to her Japanese classmates' English as an achievable model. She mentioned that her classmates' pronunciation was better than her own and that it was easier for her to imitate the variety her Japanese classmates spoke than to try to imitate her native English-speaking teacher's pronunciation. Furthermore, her Japanese classmates were better at giving useful advice about pronunciation than native English-speaking teachers because the former had endured the same difficulty she did with regard to pronouncing certain words.

Some participants thought that Japanese English language teachers had influenced their attitudes. *Participant 10* mentioned the following:

> My high school Japanese teacher of English studied English language education at a graduate school. His pronunciation was not very good, but we were able to understand his English. His pronunciation was not native-like but very Japanese accented. Nevertheless, he always conducted his entire class in English, and he used English fluently without thinking about what he planned to say. He did not

> use difficult words, but he was as fluent as native speakers. So, I want to achieve that level of fluency.

Participants 1, *8*, and *13* also stated that their Japanese English language teachers had some positive influence on their global orientations towards English. This was partly because their teachers shared their successful and unsuccessful experiences of using English with people from diverse backgrounds and how they overcame the communication difficulties they encountered. The participants were able to relate to these experiences and develop positive attitudes towards English use in a global context. *Participant 8* stated the following:

> My Japanese teacher of English shared his own experiences of speaking with people from different backgrounds in English. He explained that he had difficulty communicating with them because he misused *had better* and did not know the difference between *should* and *have to*. He also explained why it happened and what he could have done. This information was indeed very helpful for me to learn how to communicate with diverse speakers in English effectively.

However, some participants who had less exposure to Japanese varieties of English (*Participants 16* and *26*) expressed frustration with their classroom conversation practices with their Japanese classmates. They found the exposure to Japanese varieties of English unnatural and rather unhelpful for improving their listening and speaking skills. *Participant 16* mentioned that he and his Japanese classmates had known each other very well, and they never used English to communicate with each other outside the language classroom. He felt awkward and silly engaging in conversation practices with his classmates in English. Therefore, he was not satisfied with the conversation practices, developing somewhat negative attitudes towards Japanese varieties of English and the

speakers of these varieties. Other participants had some exposure to Japanese varieties and were more globally oriented; however, their experiences were negative partly due to their lack of confidence in their varieties and their interlocutors' lack of openness to these varieties. As mentioned in Section 4.2.5, *Participant 4* encountered a situation where some English-speaking interlocutors reacted negatively to her Japanese-accented English. She was upset by the incident and thought that she should try to use native varieties of English. *Participant 8* heard a similar story from her friend. Regarding interlocutors' lack of openness to different varieties, *Participant 27* also mentioned that Japanese returnee students from English-speaking countries in her class at her high school were picked on since their pronunciation was different from that of the rest of their classmates who spoke a Japanese variety. Those students ended up learning Japanese English pronunciation in order to fit into the class.

On the one hand, more exposure to and meaningful experiences with Japanese varieties seemed important to increase students' global attitudes. On the other hand, their unsuccessful interactions could affect their attitudes negatively. In some cases, they would resort to more traditional ideas, overwhelmingly preferring native varieties to Japanese varieties.

5.4.3. Exposure to other varieties of English

Although the globally oriented groups were inclined to have more exposure to other varieties of English, the formation of their attitudes was not straightforward. In cases of exposure to other varieties of English, the quality of the exposure appeared to be particularly important. Through exposure, not only global attitudes but also unclear and somewhat less global attitudes were found, as also described in Sections 4.2.4 and 4.2.5. The formation of ambivalent attitudes towards diverse varieties of English might reflect

the participants' uncertainty about the extent to which other varieties of English are treated fairly in the current world, preventing them from valuing those varieties more than native varieties. Although the majority of these participants (*Participants 3*, *6*, *12*, *18*, *19*, *20*, *21, 23*, *24*, and *27*) had some exposure to different varieties of English through multiple means, such as university classes and study abroad, they were unable to recall specific experiences that contributed to their attitudes. For example, *Participant 3* mentioned, 'I think it would be ideal to aim to communicate with each other in our own varieties of English. But I do not believe that the current world has reached that level based on my experiences. Those varieties of English are still devalued. Thus, we may need to become close to being able to speak native varieties so that we can speak out about these ideas'. Similarly, *Participant 21* mentioned the following:

> I believe that we do not have to speak like a native speaker. However, I feel like it is the reality that, if we are able to speak like a native speaker, we are more likely to make a good impression on our interlocutors. In this regard, I cannot help thinking that it may be better to learn native varieties than to learn our own varieties.

Participant 20 was able to identify the source of her view about other varieties; she attributed her attitude formation to one of her university courses, which made her think about the position English varieties that differ from native English varieties occupy:

> I have positive and negative feelings towards the diverse varieties of English. As long as we can communicate with each other, it should be fine. Having heard about the discrimination against non-native English speakers, I have a somewhat negative impression of diverse varieties because of the negative influence.

Some participants in globally oriented focus groups showed clear positive attitudes towards different varieties of English through their experiences in university and high school classes, outside the classroom in Japan, and/or while study abroad. They tended to be actively exposed to the varieties and engaged in successful and memorable conversations, investing effort into understanding their interlocutors' English rather than just listening to these varieties. For example, *Participants 8* and *11* were taking classes that many Chinese students were also attending and were able to have successful interactions with the students in English. Due to these experiences, they became more interested in different varieties of English. *Participant 11* mentioned the following:

> Some of our classmates are Chinese. They can speak English way better than Japanese students do. So, we often communicate in English successfully. I am now interested in learning about different Asian varieties of English other than Japanese English.

Similarly, *Participant 14* attended a high school populated by many Japanese returnees and international students and got used to interacting with people from diverse backgrounds in English. Furthermore, since her major was English, she had abundant opportunities to communicate with students from France, Spain, and China on campus, experience the challenge of understanding their English, and overcome that difficulty in class as well as outside the classroom. Based on these experiences, she expressed the cruciality of being able to comprehend diverse varieties of English.

Other participants formed positive attitudes towards different varieties of English mainly outside the classroom. *Participant 9* mentioned that he was exposed to other varieties of English outside the classroom at an Indian restaurant in Japan. When he spoke with the restaurant owner, who was from India, he was able to communicate with him successfully

regardless of the fact that the owner was speaking an Indian variety of English. The owner did not think that the English he was speaking sounded ‘incorrect’ and spoke his variety with confidence. Most importantly, the participant, as an interlocutor, was able to understand what the owner was saying. This experience led him to believe that it is more than adequate to communicate successfully using your own variety of English. *Participant 5* had been exposed to other varieties of English while sharing accommodation with international students. He said, ‘I have been talking to flatmates from Senegal. It has been so much fun getting to know their culture and the cultural difference between Senegal and Japan, especially the difference in how we perceive the world. The more I speak, the more I want to be able to have conversations with them’.

Study abroad experiences also influenced the participants’ attitudes positively. *Participant 10* experienced meaningful interactions with speakers of other varieties of English through her study abroad experience: ‘When I went to a summer school in the United Kingdom, I spoke with a girl from Romania and other people especially from East European countries. It was very difficult to understand their pronunciation. The girl pronounced the word “pen” like “ben,” and I could not understand the word at all’. This experience made her realise that it was easy to understand the varieties she was studying, in other words, native English. Nevertheless, in reality, she was less likely to encounter that type of pronunciation because she would often communicate with non-native speakers. In order to be able to communicate with everyone in English, she believed that she should prepare for any variety of English. Since then, at her university, she began trying to speak English with Chinese and Korean students in class. Similarly, *Participant 17* was exposed to Singaporean and Vietnamese English through his wine business internships overseas and had difficulty negotiating with speakers of those varieties because of their English pronunciation. Having experienced the need to understand

diverse varieties of English, he noted that exposure to and comprehension of these varieties are vital, at least in business.

One participant revealed strong negative attitudes towards different varieties of English due to their past and present experiences, which was an exceptional case. *Participant 27* had some exposure to different varieties of English and experienced successful communication with speakers from different backgrounds, such as one from Singapore who was a guest at her house. She also studied the concept of World Englishes through her English language teacher training course. However, she had a strong negative attitude towards varieties other than native varieties, especially American English, mainly due to her exposure to American English at home. Her father graduated from a university in the United States, and he spoke American English consistently at home, which contributed to fostering her very strong positive images of American English and its superiority.

While the participants who had abundant exposure to other varieties tended to show somewhat global attitudes, the participants who lacked exposure to other varieties clearly had less global attitudes. *Participants 26*, *28*, *29*, and *30*, all of whom lacked exposure to other varieties, were less globally oriented and were unable to express opinions about other varieties of English.

In order to form global attitudes fully, that is, in order to hold positive attitudes towards different varieties of English, it seemed necessary for students to have memorable personal experiences relating to other varieties of English that trigger their interest in the varieties. Without encountering such triggers, they were more likely to have ambivalent attitudes towards different varieties of English, regardless of the extent of their exposure to the varieties.

5.4.4. Proficiency

In the focus groups, *Participants 12*, *24*, and *30* pointed out that due to lack of proficiency, despite being exposed to diverse English varieties and being able to recognise the differences between them, they failed to understand their interlocutors. Consequently, they were unable to get actively involved in interactions, potentially preventing them from fully forming global orientations. Thus, in order to maximise their chances of benefitting from exposure to different varieties of English, which would, in turn, contribute to positive attitudes towards those varieties as well as the speakers of those varieties, it appeared to be necessary to have enough proficiency to actively participate in the communication.

Conversely, high proficiency might not guarantee positive orientations to different varieties of English. For example, even though *Participant 13* possessed high proficiency and had been exposed to Australian, Chinese, and Korean English, he mentioned that he was unable to recognise different varieties and expressed less global attitudes towards variation in English because he had never had successful encounters with speakers of different varieties of English. Thus, increasing opportunities for such encounters is also important, alongside improving English proficiency.

5.4.5. Language norms

Regardless of their orientations, most participants supported the notion of 'correctness' with regard to the language, which was often associated with conforming to native-speaker norms, as explained in Section 4.2.4. English language education in Japan appeared to have a greater impact on their attitudes than individual exposure to varieties of English. They tended to believe that the English varieties used in textbooks and

university entrance examinations are ‘correct’. Some of them emphasised the importance of studying examination English at elementary and secondary levels. Those varieties of English were mostly assumed to be native varieties, especially American English.

For example, *Participant 7* expressed his strong belief in ‘correctness’ based on the grammar in the textbooks he used to prepare for university entrance examinations. However, at the same time, he was aware of varieties that included Australia, India, and Ethiopia, and he mentioned that Japanese English could be seen as its own variety. He was familiar with the notion of World Englishes and had a very positive view of diverse varieties of English. Similar to *Participant 7*, *Participant 5* was exposed to different varieties of English through study abroad, university accommodation, and university classes and had experienced successful encounters with speakers of those varieties, which led to the formation of global attitudes. However, *Participant 5* emphasised the ‘correctness’ of examination English. Although he had little exposure to diverse English varieties, *Participant 16* echoed the opinion that the English variety used in textbooks and university entrance examinations is ‘correct’.

As also mentioned in Section 4.2.4, *Participants 4*, *9*, *19*, and *21* acknowledged the strong influence of the education system in Japan. At the secondary level in particular, testing contributed to the notion of ‘correctness’ and perfectionism in English, preventing learners from using English freely. Furthermore, *Participant 9* pointed out that there was a tendency for students to seek ‘correctness’ in English in the classroom. All four of these participants recognised the existence of the notion of ‘correctness’ in their current society; nonetheless, they revealed critical attitudes towards it. This might be attributable to a relatively large amount of exposure to varieties of English and the fact that they had memorable personal, though highly speculative, experiences with global English use.

Overall, these attitudes appeared to be independent of exposure to varieties of English and proficiency as well as their orientations. Regardless of exposure to varieties of English, the majority of the focus group participants tended to maintain the notion of 'correctness' in language, which was formed mainly through English language education in Japan.

5.4.6. Other variables affecting attitudes

In the focus groups, two other variables (overseas experiences and study year) were found to influence the participants' attitudes. Whether the participants went abroad or not (overseas experiences) appeared to play an important role in the relationship between exposure to varieties of English and global orientations, since travelling and study abroad were the major elements that afforded them opportunities to encounter global English use with speakers of different varieties of English, as shown in Section 5.4.3. The first-year participants had a tendency to be more globally oriented than the senior students in the focus groups. The first-year students were more likely to accept and even be excited about the possibility of global English use with people from diverse backgrounds. In contrast, senior students were inclined to think more seriously about their future careers and be more aware of the extent to which their English use would be involved. None of the participants who mentioned that they were less likely to use English in the near future (*Participants 19*, *20*, *24*, *25*, *26*, *28*, *27*, *29*, and *30*) was a first-year student, except *Participant 24*, who had already been planning to become an English language teacher.

5.5. Summary

The content that emerged from the focus groups partly supported the relationship between the factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language and their English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of

English. Exposure to native and Japanese varieties of English was positively associated with global attitudes, which supported the quantitative findings.

Regarding the relationship between exposure to other varieties of English and global orientations, a negative association was found in the quantitative analysis, which was partly supported by the qualitative analyses. Based on the focus group findings, the participants' unclear attitudes towards variation in English might be attributable to the fact that a majority of the participants did not have specific memorable encounters with other varieties, which seemed to be vital for the formation of positive attitudes towards diverse varieties. The formation of participants' positive attitudes was inclined to occur through particular personal experiences relating to engagement in successful conversations or meaningful interactions with global English users.

Overall, in relation to exposure to varieties of English (native, Japanese, and other varieties), not only the amount of exposure but also the quality of the interactions with speakers of the variety appeared to be a key for developing positive attitudes towards the variety and its speakers. Such positive interactions could make them realise the current sociolinguistic reality, leading to the acceptance of linguistic diversity in English. In contrast, negative encounters might adversely impact their global orientations, strengthening their existing traditional mindsets.

In order to have successful or meaningful encounters that could foster students' global attitudes, it was necessary to have enough proficiency to facilitate full participation in conversations. This was supported by the findings of both the quantitative and qualitative data. Regarding the *Language norms* construct, no clear association was found either in the questionnaire or focus group results, showing that the notion of 'correctness' and 'standards' operated independently; in other words, regardless of their exposure to

varieties of English, they tended to accept the notion of ‘correctness’ and ‘standards’ largely due to the strong influence of English language education in Japan. The variables further influencing these relationships between the factors and exposure and proficiency, were also identified in the focus group data, such as overseas experiences and study year. The results will be discussed further with references to the literature in the next chapter.

6. DISCUSSION

This chapter discusses the findings in the order of the research questions.

6.1. RQ1. What are the factors that underpin Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language?

a. What factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes are related to the traditional and global orientations based on the GELT framework?

The quantitative data showed that the Japanese university students' attitudes towards English comprised attitudes towards *English use with target communities, Awareness about varieties of English, Multilingualism, Language norms*, and *Preference for native English*. According to the GELT framework (Rose & Galloway, 2019), these factors can be broadly categorised as global (*English use with target communities*, *Awareness about varieties of English*, and *Multilingualism*) and traditional (*Language norms* and *Preference for native English*) orientations. Global and traditional orientations tend to coexist, showing mixed attitudes as also seen in previous studies (Ahn & Kang, 2017; Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017, He & Li, 2009; He & Zhang, 2010; Kirkpatrick & Xu, 2002; Matsuda, 2003; McKenzie & Gilmore, 2017; Ren *et al*., 2016; Sasayama, 2013; Wang, 2013, 2015a; Wang & Jenkins, 2016). Students tended to be aware of and interested in learning and being taught different varieties of English and hold global orientations. On the other hand, they accepted the notion of 'correctness', conforming to native-speaker norms and preferred native English as the pedagogical model, showing traditional orientations.

Based on Galloway and Rose's (2018) and Rose and Galloway's (2019) conceptualisation of the GELT framework, traditional and global orientations are placed on either end of a continuum, ideally moving away from the former and more towards the latter. The results of my study showed that students tended to agree more strongly with globally- than traditionally-oriented items, indicating the possibility of students' attitudinal shifts and openness towards global orientations. The findings also indicated that as their global orientations increased, their positive attitudes towards *Preference for native English* also increased, showing that the relationship between global and traditional orientations are far from straightforward, thus reflecting the complex nature of their attitudes (Galloway & Rose, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2019). The findings also showed that attitudes towards *Language norms* appeared to be independent of other attitudinal constructs, suggesting that regardless of their increasing global orientations, their idea of having a fixed norm persisted, which was also seen in Wang (2013). These results highlight the complexities in the students' attitudes. These aspects of traditional norms should be taken into account for successful curriculum innovation, as they are more likely to be barriers to change in traditional ELT contexts. Each attitudinal construct and the relationships among the constructs are presented below with reference to previous studies.

6.1.1. *English use with target communities*

Most students thought that they were more likely to encounter diverse speakers of English in the course of doing business, studying abroad, travelling the world, and consuming media in the near future. Thus, the *perceived future use* of English was an important element associated with attitudes as identified in Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017). This was also relevant to Dörnyei's (2009) *ideal L2 self*, in that the students in my study saw themselves as members of an imagined L2 (English-speaking) community based on both

native and non-native speakers who use English as a global language. This supports the notion that the target English-speaking community as Anglo-American is no longer associated with current learners (Coetzee-Van Rooy, 2006; Dörnyei *et al.*, 2006; Yashima, 2000, 2002). Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) found that the number of students who thought that they would use English at work with native English speakers was relatively similar to the number who thought that they would use English at work with non-native English speakers. Similarly, most students in this study were more likely to think that they would use English with native and non-native speakers. These findings are different from that in Wang and Jenkins (2016) in which the students mainly planned to use English with native speakers, with fewer than 5% thinking that they would use English with non-native speakers. In Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017), the students indicated that their future English use was mostly in relation to native English speakers and made more negative comments concerning non-native speakers. In contrast, most students in my study mentioned their future English use in a positive light, referring to both native and non-native speakers, and showing more global orientations. If people see a discrepancy between *ideal L2 self* and their current state, they are more likely to be motivated to learn the language (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015); thus, to fill the gap between such students' current language ability and their image of their *ideal L2 selves*, the students in this study tended to be motivated towards developing their ability to speak with diverse speakers of English. The discrepancies in the findings could be the result of the different samples that Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) and I used, as Galloway focused on only one university, whereas my sample was wider. Most participants in Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) were English majors in the third year and had studied abroad, whereas my sample included a wide variety of students. The discrepancies could also be the result of changes in attitudes over time. In the 10 years since Galloway and I collected our data, universities in Japan

have been considerably internationalised and now operate with a focus on attracting students from a diverse range of linguistic backgrounds to learn English (Rose & McKinley, 2018).

This global orientation was also reflected in the students' imagined communities of diverse speakers of English, which were associated with the disciplines of medicine, international organisations, trade, aviation, information technology, and civil services. Some of their *perceived future use* (Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017) of English also included study abroad and travel. The students were interested in foreign and international affairs, going overseas, and being ready to interact with and open to diverse speakers of English; thus, they may have had a high level of *international posture* (Yashima, 2002). Although a few were not clear about their future plans and did not have a strong image of their *ideal L2 self* (Dörnyei, 2009), indicating their not having a vivid and real image of the communities that they would be part of, they felt the increasing need to work with diverse speakers of English in the future. This may be an indication of some Japanese students beginning to see themselves as part of communities where English is used as a global language anywhere, including Japan. As Rose and Galloway (2019) indicated, these attitudes can be attributed to the increasing opportunities for ELF use in domestic settings, which may not have been explained fully by Yashima's (2002) *international posture*.

The students' sense of belonging to communities where English was used as a global language may have been formed especially through the Internet (Arnett, 2002). Some students in this study mentioned that the Internet was a means for them to access information from all over the world. Research has identified a positive impact of informal digital learning activities like interacting with diverse users of English on social media or during digital gameplay, on the students' attitudes towards EIL (Lee & Lee, 2019). Some

students lacked ELF exposure and did not have such a connection with global communities. They thought that their perceived futures would not require English use at all, and had neither an image of their *ideal L2 selves* (Dörnyei, 2009) nor *international posture* (Yashima, 2002). Many such students studied English as part of their obligatory course requirements. As a result, they did not show a desire to develop their ability to speak with diverse speakers of English.

6.1.2. *Awareness about varieties of English*

In addition to being aware of English use with diverse speakers, most students in this study were aware of different varieties of English. There were various degrees of awareness and acceptance as seen in Ahn and Kang (2017), Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017), He and Li (2009), He and Zhang (2010), Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), Lee and Hsieh (2018), Lee and Lee (2019), McKenzie and Gilmore (2017), Ren *et al*. (2016), Sasayama (2013), Wang (2015a), and Wang and Jenkins (2016). In the present study, a few students who had the awareness and greater acceptance of different varieties of English expressed their desire to legitimise the Japanese variety of English. In He and Li (2009) and Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002), even though the students accepted the existence of diverse varieties of English with multiple standards, they tended to be critical of their own variety of English. Similarly, although most students in my study had positive attitudes towards different varieties of English, there were only three who specifically expressed a desire for Japanese English to be considered a legitimate variety. In Sasayama (2013), most students tended to hope for Japanese English to be accepted internationally. The difference between Sasayama (2013) and other studies may be attributable to Sasayama's (2013) self-reported questionnaire items that were written in such a way that students had the potential to respond more agreeably. Items such as 'In international communication,

the Japanese variety of English should be accepted as long as it is intelligible' (Sasayama, 2013, p.273) can be endorsed positively even if one strongly disapproves of the current Japanese variety of English. In other words, even if the students thought that their own variety was far from intelligible and they did not believe that it would become a legitimate variety any time soon, they could still agree with the item.

The three students in my study who had a strong desire to make the Japanese variety accepted internationally did not think that the variety was socially acceptable at the time, which was in keeping with the students' opinions in Kirkpatrick and Xu (2002). He and Li (2009), He and Zhang (2010), Wang (2015a, 2015b), and Wang and Jenkins (2016) reported that although the students' tolerance towards their own variety had increased, they thought that it had not been fully accepted in society yet. These attitudes seemed connected to their preference for native varieties of English. The persistence of a preference for native-speaker norms appeared to be maintained by non-linguistic factors that permeated society deeply, as described in Section 6.1.5.

Unlike previous studies (Chiba *et al*., 1995; Dalton-Puffer *et al*., 1997; Galloway, 2011), that mainly showed some negative attitudes towards non-native varieties, more positive attitudes were found in more recent work (Ahn & Kang, 2017; Lee & Hsieh, 2018; Lee & Lee, 2019), in which participants rated items highly about accepting non-native varieties. In Chiba *et al*. (1995) and Dalton-Puffer *et al*. (1997), the students struggled with recognising non-native varieties. In Galloway (2011), some students indicated accent unfamiliarity in different varieties. In contrast, Ahn and Kang (2017), Lee and Hsieh (2018), and Lee and Lee (2019) found that their Korean and Taiwanese students had some awareness of different varieties of English and positive attitudes towards them. In my study, most Japanese students were aware of non-native varieties, supporting the

findings of such recent studies. This may indicate increasing familiarity with non-native varieties among more recent samples in the Expanding Circle contexts (Kachru, 1985, 1992), which may have led to a shift in the learners' attitudes towards being more globally oriented.

Among the students who were aware of non-native varieties in my study, as found in Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) and He and Li (2009), some understood the sociolinguistic realities of English use, acknowledging growing opportunities for using the language with non-native speakers. Others mentioned regional and cultural influences around varieties of English. They tended to be aware and accepting of the existence of different varieties, and agreed with the idea of incorporating them into the curriculum. Similar attitudes were reported in Lee and Hsieh (2018) and Lee and Lee (2019), and the students in these studies showed positive attitudes towards including different varieties into their listening materials. Unlike He and Li's (2009) and He and Zhang's (2010) studies, the idea of incorporating students' own varieties into the pedagogical model was not considered in my study. Similarly, the positive views on the regional and cultural influences on the varieties in my study were not mentioned with respect to Japanese varieties of English, which differed from the responses of Chinese and Taiwanese students in Ren *et al.* (2016), Wang (2013, 2015a) showing some awareness of the role of their own varieties in maintaining their culture and identity. The students' lack of awareness of the functions of Japanese English in my study may be attributed to their lack of *linguistic self-confidence* (Clement, 1980; Sampasivam & Clement, 2014), as described in the next section.

Some students in my study showed positive attitudes towards different varieties by evaluating them against native and/or Japanese varieties of English, thus subconsciously accepting the superiority of native English and inferiority of Japanese English. The use of

native English as a yardstick has been found in previous studies (Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Ishikawa, 2017; Matsuda, 2003; Timmis, 2002; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011; Wang, 2015a). In my study, students had positive attitudes towards different varieties of English because they were closer to native varieties. They also thought that the varieties were better than Japanese English. This is similar to Japanese students in previous studies (Chiba *et al*., 1995; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011), who positioned their own variety as lowest in terms of desirability. The students who rated their own varieties of English as the least desirable showed a lack of *linguistic self-confidence* (Clement, 1980; Sampasivam & Clement, 2014). Their own varieties of English were thought of as involving poor English usage in need of improvement, and this indicated the lack of confidence in value such as intelligibility and acceptability of Japanese English. This was also seen in Tokumoto and Shibata (2011) and Wang (2015a). This appeared to be rooted in preferences for native English, which are described in Section 6.1.5.

In McKenzie and Gilmore (2017), some students said that non-native English was easier to understand because non-native speakers speak slowly with use words that are easy to understand, possibly indicating some awareness of pragmatic strategies observed in ELF communication (Cogo, 2009; Cogo & Dewey, 2006). The students in the present study indicated that they had difficulty understanding non-native English, a finding that was also reported in Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017). A few students in my study mentioned that it was their responsibility to understand their interlocutors' non-native English, thus demonstrating greater global orientation.

Although most students were aware of different varieties of English, their degree of awareness varied considerably. Some did not recognise the existence of different varieties

of English at all and were unable to articulate their thoughts on those varieties. This showed that owing to the lack of exposure to and familiarity with the varieties, there was a failure to associate them with any stereotypical characteristics (Dragojevic, 2017) instead of showing negative attitudes towards non-native varieties (Chiba *et al*., 1995; Galloway; 2011, 2013, 2017). This may be because the previous studies investigated English-related major students who had some awareness of English varieties, whereas the students in my study were non-English majors who had low awareness of the varieties in general. These students mostly did not plan to use English in the future. Without an image of their future selves using English (Dörnyei, 2009), they were not motivated to develop their ability to speak with diverse speakers and understand their varieties. This resulted in a failure to form attitudes towards them.

6.1.3. Multilingualism

Most students were aware of the use of English as a tool for communication in addition to their native language, as seen in Matsuda (2003). Some thought that English was becoming an essential language based on their experiences, reflecting their increasing sense of belonging to communities where English is used as a global language, as also mentioned in Section 6.1.1. The study showed a gradual shift in the perception of the varieties of English as a tool for communication, as also seen in Sasayama (2013). In contrast, some students perceived English as a subject and were not sure how it would be useful as a communication tool for them in the future. They thought English would just remain one of their school subjects, which was also seen in Ishikawa (2017), and perceived English as a symbol of academic effort. These negative attitudes may be linked to issues around English language education policies in Japan, which have traditionally positioned English as an academic subject to be mastered as part of overall education.

In Japan, recent education policies have focused heavily on using English as a tool specifically to work in a global context, as Erikawa (2018), LoCastro (1996), and Seargeant (2009) indicated. Participants who agreed with the idea that English is a communication tool in my study had ELF experiences that were not necessarily associated with work. These students' sense of English as a tool developed from their ELF experiences even before they began thinking about their future careers, such as talking to international students at school/university or meeting people while travelling. In contrast, those who mentioned that they were not sure how English would be useful as a future communication tool did not have such ELF experiences and did not plan to use English in the future. Thus, they may have seen the idea of English as a tool for communication as irrelevant without realising that they could encounter non-work related ELF interactions.

6.1.4. Language norms

A strong standard language ideology (Milroy, 1999, 2001; Milroy & Milroy, 1999, 2012; Lippi-Green, 1997) was found in this study, which is similar to the findings of previous studies (Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Ishikawa, 2017; Mckenzie, 2008a, 2008b; Mckenzie & Gilmore, 2017; Sasayama, 2013; Wang, 2013, 2015a; Yook & Lindemann, 2013). For example, McKenzie (2008a, 2008b) and Mckenzie and Gilmore (2017) found that students perceived native varieties (especially American English) more positively with respect to status, and noted that it comprised, for example, 'correct' and 'standard' features. Similarly, in the current study, Standard English was closely related to American English and was seen as the 'correct' variety. Students' comments were mostly associated with English language education, including textbooks and university entrance examinations. This showed the strong influence of education on their attitudes, and the

variety used in the instruction and assessment tended to be perceived as the 'best' and 'most correct way' to speak (Dragojevic, 2017; Wang, 2015b). As in Seidlhofer (2018), the students in my study appeared to equate Standard and native English. Nevertheless, in terms of the whole of English, they tended to include both Standard English and other varieties, indicating that they did not agree with the notion that the whole of English is the possession of native speakers (Seidlhofer, 2018; Widdowson, 1994). In contrast, Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) found that the students strongly believed that English belonged to native speakers. The students in my study showed more global orientations. The discrepancy between Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) and my study in terms of the findings may be the result of changes in the students' attitudes over time or a difference in the samples, as explained in Section 6.1.1.

Most students in my study stated the importance of 'correct' pronunciation, conforming to native-speaker norms as found in previous studies (Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Mckenzie & Gilmore, 2017; Sasayama, 2013; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011). They thought that 'correct' pronunciation was more important than 'correct' grammar, as pronunciation severely affects clear understanding. This was the opposite of the finding among Chinese students, as they tended to accept more relaxed rules of pronunciation and had stricter attitudes towards grammar (He & Li, 2009; He & Zhang, 2010; Wang, 2013, 2015a). This seemed to be partly the result of the English language education system in Japan, where students are asked to focus more on 'correct' grammar (Ishikawa, 2017) than on pronunciation. This may have led them to think that grammar was very important; but their actual use of English for communication may have shown them that greater accuracy was necessary in pronunciation than in grammar. Some students questioned the notion of 'correctness' in English, referring to ELF use, which was also found in Wang (2013). This indicated that some destabilisation of the ideology among Japanese students

was present, and also recognised ELF usage in today's globalised world, as claimed by Jenkins (2007) and Seidlhofer (2011, 2018).

6.1.5. Preference for native English

Most students believed in the importance of 'correct' pronunciation, as they aimed to sound like native speakers as in most previous studies (Ahn & Kang, 2017; He & Li, 2009; He & Zhang, 2010; Ren *et al*., 2016; Sasayama, 2013; Wang, 2013, 2015a, 2015b; Wang & Jenkins, 2016). Those attitudes were associated mainly with the positive image of English-speaking countries, the advantage of speaking native English in business, and the intelligibility of native English. They also preferred native English as the pedagogical model because of the political and economic power of English-speaking countries, as in Sasayama (2013), especially the United States over Japan and the rest of the world. Some also mentioned the efficiency of focusing on taught English and the centrality of American English in the current education system, including university entrance examinations. Most students' comments in my study provided evidence that their preferences for native varieties were strongly driven by non-linguistic forces (e.g. socio-political, economic, and historical), as also seen in Ahn and Kang (2017), Sasayama (2013), Wang (2013, 2015a, 2015b), and Wang and Jenkins (2016). In Wang (2015a), a strong emphasis on conforming to native-speaker norms at work and society prevented the students in China from using varieties other than native English. Wang (2015b) indicated that language education systems, especially testing and university requirements were a driving force of Chinese students' preferences for native English. In Ahn and Kang (2017), a Korean student mentioned the different varieties of English that were used and learned, some of which were influenced by global and local socio-politics.

In the Japanese context, English language education has constantly been affected by the business sector with political and economic agendas, especially adjusting Japan to the US-led economic order (Iwabuchi, 2005). This includes hiring approximately 50% of language instructors for elementary, junior high, and senior high schools from the United States (JET, 2018). Students are exposed to the images of the United States in their English textbooks, which represent the post-war US-Japan relation of power and the US-Japan security alliance since the Cold War (Kubota, 2018; Yamada, 2015), which, in turn, contributes to the status of American English. Students' attitudes have been influenced by the positive image of the United States that has been formed and maintained through the media (Aspinall, 2003; Bayard, Weatherall, Gallois, & Pittam, 2001; Dragojevic, 2017; Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Hagiwara, 2007; Hagiwara *et al.,* 2011; Shibuya *et al.,* 2011). Bayard *et al*. (2001) found that their sample preferred American English, possibly because of the positive image of the United States that has been formed and maintained through the media. Similarly, the attitudes in my study matched the stereotypical media portrayals of English-speaking countries, especially the United States, which are portrayed as being politically, economically, and culturally advantaged. This finding, however, was different from Ladegaard and Sachdev (2006), who discovered that the positive image of American English had little impact on the students' attitudes. The students in their study preferred British English. This may be the result of the use of Standard British English as the model for pronunciation in class in Denmark. In my study, British English was only popular in terms of the students' personal preference. This indicated that, as in Ladegaard and Sachdev (2006), there may be cases in which the impact of the positive image of the variety was not applicable, possibly because of the strong influence of education, using another variety as the pedagogical model in class.

A few students in my study also mentioned that they aimed to learn English to communicate successfully. They also noted that they were neither necessarily conforming to native English nor even positioned against aiming to speak it. These students referred to their ELF encounters, presenting a clear attitude change that moved away from native-speaker norms. Their ELF experiences seemed important in changing their orientations towards more global ones, even challenging the existing norms that were deeply rooted in Japanese society, as described in Section 6.2.

6.1.6. Summary

The findings suggest that attitudes towards English as a global language are underpinned by the macro-sociological indicators that look at prevailing community stereotypes, thoughts, beliefs, preferences, and desires associated with the language, which is in line with the findings of the literature on language attitudes (Baker, 1992; Cargile *et al*., 1994; Garrett, 2010). Almost 20 years after Matsuda (2003) and 10 years after Galloway (2011), native-speaker norms seem pervasive among Japanese students. They consciously or subconsciously see their own variety as something that needs improvement, indicating their lack of *linguistic self-confidence* (Clement, 1980; Sampasivam & Clement, 2014). These attitudes have been constructed in a context that places strong positive images of native English that were created and maintained through media and education. These, in turn, contribute towards the students' ideas of what is desirable and their uncertainties of the extent to which non-conformity to native-speaker norms is acceptable in society. English language education in Japan has been driven by linguistic and non-linguistic forces, such as political, economic, and historical ones. As Kubota (2018) suggested, both types of forces should be considered in order to fill the gap between the current theories supporting dynamic, complex, and fluid English use (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Jenkins,

2015) and practices that still reproduce the superiority of native speakers. Thus, in relation to initiating GE curriculum innovations, although some promising attitudes towards the innovations were indicated, many may oppose the ideas especially at a school-level language curriculum because of how the education system in Japan has been created. Additionally, the problems with the current university entrance examination system that lacks sociolinguistic perspectives of the language (Butler & Iino, 2004; Erikawa, 2018; LoCastro, 1996; Seargeant, 2009) have been a barrier for GE curriculum innovation. At a classroom level, critical approaches to the existing norms from the linguistic and non-linguistic perspectives should be emphasised. Raising Japanese English learners' awareness of GE norms embracing different varieties of English, especially the value of their own variety, and boosting their *linguistic self-confidence,* seems to be the key to accelerating their attitude change. Such GE approaches to language teaching may encounter greater resistance from students who have no desire to use the language in the future. This highlights the importance of a needs analysis before curriculum innovation, as the students' learning context largely influences exactly what they need to be taught (Rose & Galloway, 2019).

As a result of the increasing opportunities for (online) ELF encounters, Japanese students began to develop a sense of being part of globalised communities of English users and to show greater awareness and understanding of and positive attitudes towards different varieties. Many students reported seeing English as a tool for communication with speakers of these diverse varieties. Most of them accepted the notion that English does not belong exclusively to native speakers. Some even cast doubts on conforming to native-speaker norms, arguably showing a more noticeable departure from traditional orientations than some of the previous studies (He & Li, 2009; He & Zhang, 2010; Sasayama, 2013). The increase in the Japanese university students' global orientations

may also be partly attributable to the internationalisation of the higher education sector in Japan, which has contributed to an increase in the number of both foreign and domestic students taking programmes where English is a medium of instruction in order to foster their abilities to deal with globalisation (Rose & McKinley, 2018). Current Japanese university students' attitudes may also indicate a sign of successful implementation of the Top Global University Project to create globally prepared graduates (MEXT, 2014).

6.2. RQ2. What is the relationship, if any, between the factors underpinning Japanese English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language and their English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English?

The Japanese students in my study were exposed mainly to native English and their own varieties of English, especially in class. This is not surprising and corresponds to the data from previous studies conducted in the Expanding Circle contexts, such as Ahn and Kang (2017), Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017), and Wang and Jenkins (2016). This body of evidence shows that, at least in a Japanese context, English use with both native and non-native English speakers is still very limited outside the classroom for university students (Mizuno, 2008; Seargeant, 2011; Terasawa, 2015; Yano, 2011) despite the booming tourism industry comprising 31 million foreign tourists who visit Japan annually (JNTO, 2018a) and the increasing number of international students studying in Japan (JASSO, 2020).

Students who interacted with native speakers tended to develop more positive attitudes towards native English and its speakers, which contributed to their preference for native varieties. This can be explained by their increasing levels of familiarity being linked to more positive attitudes (Chiba *et al.*, 1995; Dalton-Puffer *et al.*, 1997; Galloway, 2013;

2017; Matsuura *et al*., 1994; Mckenzie, 2008a, 2008b). The findings also showed that successful communication with native speakers can lead to increasing students' *linguistic self-confidence* (Clement, 1980; Sampasivam & Clement, 2014), which was also seen in Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) and confidence in the intelligibility of non-native varieties of English. Japanese English, that is, the English spoken by Japanese students and teachers had a positive impact on the former's attitudes towards Japanese varieties of English. Galloway (2011, 2017) also found some positive reactions that included *shared non-nativeness*; that is, the students felt more comfortable using English with their Japanese peers and teachers because of their shared experiences as learners. The students in this study made similar comments and valued their peers and teachers' knowledge based on their learning experiences. Some mentioned that they could learn from their peers because they knew the difficulty involved in learning English. Unlike the students in Galloway (2011, 2017) who were more critical of their Japanese teachers' pronunciation, the students in the current study were more globally oriented and focused more on fluency than on accuracy, thus establishing the English spoken by their Japanese teacher as a model. As mentioned in Sections 6.1.1 and 6.1.4, the discrepancy may be attributable to changes in students' attitudes or the difference between the samples in Galloway (2011; 2013; 2017) and this study.

Both successful and unsuccessful experiences with peers were reported. Some students mentioned that they felt that talking to Japanese classmates in English was unnatural and unhelpful. Similar experiences were reported and described as 'weird' by the students in Ishikawa (2017). Some had unsuccessful experiences with communication using their own varieties, such as being unable to communicate with and getting a negative reaction from their interlocutors, which contributed towards an increasing preference for conforming to native-speaker norms. Such unsuccessful experiences may reinforce the

idea that one's own variety is considered something to be improved (e.g. Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011; Wang, 2015a).

Some ELF experiences around encounters with varieties other than native and Japanese ones were also reported in Wang and Jenkins (2016), Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017), and Lee and Lee (2019). Those studies found a link between ELF experiences and language attitudes. For example, Wang and Jenkins (2016) found a positive impact of ELF experiences on attitudes in terms of the intelligibility of varieties of English, and indicated that the participants' experiences with non-native speakers contributed towards their globally oriented attitudes. My study arrived at similar findings. In contrast, ELF experiences with non-native speakers may have also had negative impacts on the students' attitudes as the quantitative and qualitative data found a negative association between exposure to other varieties of English and globally oriented attitudes. This was compatible with the findings of Hagiwara (2007), Hagiwara *et al.* (2011), and Shibuya *et al.* (2011), which showed that Japanese people had some interactions with people from Asian countries and they showed negative attitudes towards such interactions. The experiences also contributed to their positive attitudes towards the positive image of the United States. These can be attributed to the relatively low degrees of exposure for Japanese students to other varieties of English in general, which may have caused the lack of opportunities to actively engage in ELF interactions. Even though they had some exposure to other varieties of English and gained ELF experiences, those experiences may not necessarily have been sufficiently successful or meaningful to have had a positive impact on globally oriented attitudes and may have strengthened traditional orientations. Similar effects were reported in Galloway and Rose (2014): the students' exposure to different varieties through listening journals contributed towards increasing their traditional orientations in some cases, where unfamiliar varieties were evaluated as

‘strange’ by some students. On the difficulty involved in initiating changes in students’ attitudes to be more globally oriented, Sasayama (2013) and Wang (2013, 2015a) revealed that the participants found themselves in a dilemma between their acceptance of ELF use and what they believed was socially acceptable: that is, conforming to native-speaker norms. My study also revealed the students’ uncertainty around the acceptability of ELF use in society. As mentioned in Park and Wee (2011) and Wang (2013), this can be interpreted via Bourdieu’s (1991) notion that linguistic actions occur in the linguistic market where relative values of linguistic resources are ideologically constructed through practice, which can be understood with the notion of *habitus*, which refers to dispositions created through a social process, leading to socially appropriate behaviour that contributes to the structure of the linguistic market (Bourdieu, 1991). Based on this, the high value of native English and the uncertainty around the value of varieties other than native English in the current linguistic market has been formed and maintained mainly through media and education. To change what students believe is socially acceptable, drastic changes are first necessary in media and education, such as incorporating more successful ELF interactions into media and education. Thus, although challenging, the findings in my study supported that implementing innovative GE-informed pedagogic actions (e.g. Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2017; Sung, 2015, 2018) appear to be a good starting point for change. Students’ attitudes can also be transformed through other social experiences like ELF encounters outside the classroom.

My study highlighted the students’ prolonged ELF experiences as important catalysts for change. These positive and personal experiences changed the students’ attitudes and challenged their perceived societal norms, indicating the impact of personal experience on attitude, as suggested in Dalton-Puffer *et al*. (1997), Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017), Wang (2013), and Wang and Jenkins (2016), especially through face-to-face or potentially

mediated interactions (Lee & Lee, 2019; Dragojevic, 2017) with diverse speakers of English. Thus, each student's successful ELF experiences led to increased intelligibility and greater acceptability of diverse varieties, including their own varieties in society. Experiences, including having successful conversations with confident ELF speakers, are more likely to be the key to initiate change.

As suggested in Galloway (2011, 2013, 2017) and McKenzie (2008a, 2008b), proficiency can also be associated with students' attitudes towards varieties of English. The quantitative data in my study showed a positive relationship between proficiency and globally oriented attitudes. The qualitative data explored this relationship further and found that proficiency played an important role in increasing opportunities to participate actively in ELF exchanges. Previous studies highlighted the potential impact of gender (He & Li, 2009; Kirkpartrick & Xu, 2002, McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b) and overseas experiences (Dalton-Puffer *et al*., 1997; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b) on students' language attitudes. The present findings also identified that the students' language attitudes were affected by multiple factors like overseas experiences and study year, which were context-specific. For example, the senior-year students tended to show less globally oriented attitudes as they had already decided on their future jobs. Many assumed that they were less likely to use English in the near future and were more focused on educational outcomes. Finally, although in my study, the study major (science or non-science) did not seem to influence the participants' attitudes, as suggested in Sections 6.1.1 and 6.1.4 and Lee and Lee (2019), it appears that a study major (English or non-English) can have an impact on learners' attitudes.

6.2.1. Summary

This study highlighted the Japanese students’ lack of exposure to diverse varieties of English other than native and Japanese ones, and the negative impact of exposure to other varieties on student attitudes. This reveals the difficulty encountered in influencing a change in the current students’ attitudes, which are deeply rooted in society.

Exposure to native and non-native varieties appeared to contribute towards students’ globally oriented attitudes—thus, global usage for this population of students is associated with both types of English varieties. The study found that insufficiently successful or unsuccessful ELF experiences, especially with speakers of English varieties other than native ones may contribute negatively towards the students’ global orientations and positively towards their traditional orientations. This appears to reflect the students’ traditional mindsets; that is, conforming to native-speaker norms has a higher value than ELF use in society. Some reported that they had experienced successful or meaningful ELF interactions that led to changes in their attitudes. All those experiences tended to be positive and personal, and increased the intelligibility of different English varieties and boosted their *linguistic self-confidence* (Clement, 1980; Sampasivam & Clement, 2014) as legitimate speakers. They engaged in conversations with confident ELF speakers and witnessed the reality that ELF use is socially acceptable. Those experiences appeared to be a strong driving force for the students to challenge their perceived sociolinguistic realities, which were strongly influenced by the media and education. This shows that GE-informed curriculum innovations play an important role in changing the students’ attitudes. Teachers who implement GE-informed pedagogic actions should not merely provide students with ELF opportunities, but should examine the impact of ELF experiences on students’ globally oriented attitudes. These implications are presented in

more detail together with limitations in the final chapter, alongside recommendations for future research.

7. CONCLUSION

This chapter presents a summary of the aims and main results of the study. It also provides an overview of how the results have contributed to the field and addresses limitations. Finally, it offers pedagogical implications and suggestions for future research.

7.1. Summary of the aims and main results of the study

This study aimed to understand English language learners' attitudes towards English in response to the calls for a paradigm shift in ELT that reflects diverse, fluid, and dynamic use of the language in the 21st century. A more detailed investigation was carried out by improving rigour especially in quantitative methods. The GEO-Q was developed after a careful evaluation of the reliability and validity of the measurement, based on the GELT framework (Galloway & Rose, 2015, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2019) informing curriculum innovation. The questionnaire was distributed to 660 English language learners in Japan, where learners were likely to be more inclined to conforming to native-speaker norms. Focus groups were conducted to explore their attitudes and the process of attitude formation.

The results, using EFA, revealed latent variables among the Japanese university students' attitudes, which included *English use with target communities, Awareness about varieties of English*, *Multilingualism*, *Language norms*, and *Preference for native English*. Most students had positive attitudes towards the items related to global orientations in the GELT framework (Galloway & Rose, 2015, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2019), which included possessing the image of *ideal L2 selves* (Dörnyei, 2009); that is, being part of an English-speaking community that comprises native and non-native speakers. Global orientations also included recognising the importance of being aware of and learning

about different varieties of English and being aware of the value of speaking other languages in addition to English. In my study, Japanese students showed positive attitudes towards items pertaining to global orientations, providing evidence that there has been a shift in the learners' attitudes in a Japanese context towards being more globally oriented, as was also found in Korean and Taiwanese contexts (Ahn & Kang, 2017; Lee & Hsieh, 2018; Lee & Lee, 2019). Traditional orientations were also found, which included believing in the importance of 'correctness' and being taught standard varieties of English in class and contained an idea of conforming to native-speaker norms and superiority. These findings surrounding traditional orientations resonated with previous studies (e.g. Galloway, 2011, 2013, 2017; Timmis, 2002). Some departures from traditional orientations were also seen, questioning the notions of 'correctness' as found in Wang (2013). As reported in previous research (e.g. Ahn & Kang, 2017; Sasayama, 2013), students in my study had both global and traditional orientations. My study explored the relationship between those orientations in detail and revealed that the more globally oriented they became, the greater their preference towards some part of traditional orientations (*Preference for native English*), reflecting the complexity of the students' attitudes as neither black nor white, but a mixture of both. Thus, to initiate GE-informed curriculum innovations, these traditional orientations should be dealt with more critically, such as by incorporating more activities that challenge the notions of 'correctness' and native-speaker norms throughout the curriculum.

The focus group interviews uncovered the complexity of attitudes and explored such mixed globally- and traditionally-oriented attitude formations. Some students showed positive attitudes towards different varieties of English and preferred conforming to native-speaker norms, possibly because of their attitudes towards different varieties of English. Some had a positive image of those varieties as they were close to native ones

and saw them as ‘better’ than the Japanese varieties. They held somewhat traditional orientations that treated native and Japanese varieties as yardsticks; this was also found in previous studies (e.g. Galloway, 2013; 2017; Matsuda, 2003; Tokumoto & Shibata, 2011). Most students believed that the Japanese varieties needed improvement, failed to see the function or value of their own varieties, and lacked *linguistic self-confidence* (Clement, 1980; Sampasivam & Clement, 2014). Mixed attitudes may also be attributable to the learners’ beliefs on the importance of aiming to speak like a native speaker. Such attitudes towards native English seemed to be formed through mainly non-linguistic factors like the positive image of the United States and/or the United Kingdom and the advantages of speaking native English, especially in business (e.g. Ahn & Kang, 2017; Sasayama, 2013). The strong influence of the United States on society formed and maintained through media and education that includes university entrance examinations (Aspinall, 2006; Bayard *et al*., 2001; Dragojevic, 2017) may explain how some globally oriented students also showed preferences towards being taught native English. My study showed that no matter how globally oriented learners are, they can retain traditional orientations partly because of strong non-linguistic forces (Kubota, 2018). Thus, to move away from traditional orientations completely, students’ *linguistic self-confidence* (Clement, 1980; Sampasivam & Clement, 2014) and perceptions of society strongly influenced by the United States need to change. This may not be easily achieved since, as mentioned in Hagiwara (2007), underlying conditions, such as Japan’s dependence on the United States politically, economically, and militarily, appeared to affect Japanese university students’ ideas about the country and their language. Thus, such complex matters also should be accounted for the successful GE curriculum innovations.

This study also explored the relationships among the students’ attitudinal constructs, English language proficiency, and exposure to varieties of English while controlling for

confounding variables. The results of the structural equation modelling showed that the students' English language proficiency and exposure to varieties of English played an important role in their global orientations, as reported in previous studies (e.g. Wang & Jenkins, 2016; McKenzie, 2008a, 2008b). Greater exposure to native and Japanese varieties of English predicted an increase in *English use with target communities*, *Awareness about varieties of English*, and *Preference for Native English*. Increasing exposure to other varieties of English predicted a decrease in *Awareness about varieties of English*. Proficiency also predicted an increase in *English use with target communities* and *Awareness about varieties of English*.

The focus group interviews in my study mostly supported the results. The results were also in accordance with previous studies (e.g. Wang, 2013, 2015a) in terms of exposure to varieties of English other than native and Japanese ones. Successful personal experiences with those varieties were essential in order to overcome the students' strong beliefs in the dominance of native-speaker norms and their uncertainty in the acceptance of other English varieties, including their own. My study found that insufficiently successful or unsuccessful ELF experiences may lead to a decrease in the students' global orientations or even cause them to resort to more traditional orientations, thus strengthening their existing beliefs in the importance of conforming to native English.

7.2. Limitations

Before moving on to the implications of this study, the limitations of the findings should be considered. First, although my study has covered many aspects of the GELT framework (Galloway & Rose, 2015, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2019), it did not focus on materials and teachers, which are also important factors that influence learners' attitudes. This was because the attitudinal factors elicited during the EFA did not include items

pertaining to materials and teachers. While it was speculated that participants held diverse attitudes towards items pertaining to both, they could have been investigated in greater qualitative depth.

Second, owing to some violation of construct validity in the GEO model with regard to *Awareness about varieties of English* and *Preference for native English*, there is a need to revise some items that constitute these constructs. The item that described learners' positive views on being taught American/British English in listening and speaking classes was loaded onto the construct of *Preference for native English* and *Awareness about varieties of English*. As *Awareness about varieties of English* includes items associated with native English, the construct may overlap with *Preference for native English*. Similar items pertaining to learners' positive views on being taught native English-speaking cultures were found in the construct of *Awareness about varieties of English* and *English use with target communities*. These views pertain to both target interlocutors and varieties. Thus, caution should be exercised in interpreting the GEO model.

Third, regarding variables affecting attitudes, a positive relationship was found between proficiency and global orientations, supporting the idea that the skills measured by the TOEIC may be relevant to English usage in contemporary global contexts (ETS, 2019). Nevertheless, the qualitative results found some evidence against this positive relationship; finding that high proficiency did not necessarily lead to a positive orientation towards different varieties of English. Furthermore, given the limitations of using TOEIC scores as a proficiency measure described in Chapter 3, more alternative proficiency measures should have been included. Although the major (science or non-science) in my study did not seem to affect the participants' attitudes, whether or not their major was

English may have had an influence on their attitudes. Thus, the results that involved proficiency and study major may need to be interpreted with caution.

Lastly, in addition to the methodological limitations already outlined in Chapter 3, there was an additional limitation pertaining to the focus group interviews. It was speculated that the students may not have been aware of some of their attitudes towards English as a global language, leading to their being unable to articulate their thoughts and feelings. In my study, some focus group participants who did not have exposure to different varieties of English were not aware of them. Therefore, they failed to associate the different varieties with any stereotypes. Hence, focus group discussions may not have been the best research method for such participants.

7.3. Pedagogical implications

Based on the attitudes towards English as a global language found in this study, some implications were identified for the successful implementation of GELT (Galloway & Rose, 2015, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2019). First, some students who thought that their perceived future did not involve English use were not motivated to speak English with speakers from different backgrounds or to learn about different varieties of English. Rather, they perceived learning English as an academic subject, possibly leading many to react negatively to GELT. Thus, the GELT approach may not be suitable for students who have no plan to use English for communication in the future, but just need it to pass their subjects/tests. A detailed needs analysis would be highly recommended to see if this is the case, paying attention to the possibility of their non-work related ELF encounters, especially in a Japanese context.

Second, most students lacked *linguistic self-confidence* (Clement, 1980; Sampasivam & Clement, 2014) and supported the notion of 'correctness'. This notion was associated with the positive image of native English in education and media, leading to uncertainties around the acceptability of alternative English norms. Thus, owing to the pervasiveness of native-speaker norms over global ones, teachers who implement GELT must always bear in mind that they face the danger of inducing the opposite effect; that is, perpetuating these existing views on the varieties of English. Mere exposure to diverse varieties of English may not be enough and may even confirm the idea that varieties other than native English are less desirable in society. Classroom-based studies on innovative GE-informed pedagogic actions have been on the rise (Galloway, 2011; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2017; Sung, 2015, 2018), successfully raising awareness on the diversity of English and its users and the preconceived notions regarding the language. Nonetheless, there is a possibility that those students' traditional mindsets have not been changed completely. To ensure effective GE-informed curriculum innovations, my study highlighted the importance of fostering an understanding and appreciation of global norms and of demystifying and taking on more critical approaches to traditional norms, thus considering its pervasive nature. For example, increasing the number of GE-informed activities such as the one in Rose and Galloway (2017), which involved asking Japanese university students to debate the Speak Good English Movement in Singapore, may effectively help students challenge existing stereotypes, standards, and norms regarding the language. Activities involving confident Japanese ELF speakers may be beneficial as they can boost Japanese students' confidence in their own variety and contribute towards their vivid image of their *ideal L2 selves* (Dörnyei, 2009).

Third, the students' lack of opportunities for exposure to diverse varieties of English outside the classroom may make GELT less effective because having successful,

meaningful, and personal ELF experiences with speakers of diverse varieties plays a crucial role in drastically changing students' traditional mindsets, as found in my study. To increase the students' opportunities for encountering speakers of different varieties of English, teachers can make use of digital media (e.g. telecollaboration with the use of videoconferencing, Skype, and chat) and even online video games that enable students to experience real-life ELF interactions with competent ELF speakers the world over (e.g. Kohn, 2015; Lee & Lee, 2019). My findings support the idea that online ELF encounters can have a positive impact on students' global orientation, thus highlighting the importance of the role of digital media as a valuable learning tool for learners in the Expanding Circle contexts to engage in ELF experiences in real life.

7.4. Suggestions for future research

Considering the challenges that traditional attitudes pose to GELT, it is important to conduct more research on the impact of classroom interventions on student attitudes. We need more research from teachers who are interested in Global Englishes in the form of action or classroom-based research on the implementation of GELT using their own classrooms. This form of investigation can shed light on whether GELT activities contribute towards specific students' attitudes positively. Although there has been an increase in the number of studies that involve action or classroom-based research (e.g. Baker, 2012; Galloway, 2013; Galloway & Rose, 2014, 2018; Hoffstaedter & Kohn, 2015; Kohn & Hoffstaedter, 2015; Rose & Galloway, 2017; Sung, 2015; 2018; Vettorel, 2013), more information is clearly needed. These studies focused on classroom activities such as discussions, presentations, debates, and telecollaboration exchanges, and activities outside the classroom, such as listening journals, English communication with students from different backgrounds, online discussions, and telecollaboration exchanges

from home. Various research instruments such as reflection papers, questionnaires, interviews, observations, and participants' comments, were used to investigate the influence of the activities on learners' attitudes, but were rarely the one-shot study designs that were able to provide strong evidence of attitude change.

Although all activities provided evidence of contributing positively towards raising awareness of GE, the validity and reliability of the research instruments were of questionable rigour in terms of measuring attitudes. This was also the conclusion of a recent systematic review of GE and language teaching (Rose, McKinley, & Galloway, 2020). The review discovered that the studies on classroom innovations did not report a clear research design and lacked a thorough description of the research process, making it difficult to confirm the validity and reliability of the data analysis, and interpretation of the data. They were also predominantly qualitative methods that did not provide replicable measures of attitudes to use across studies. Most studies were cross-sectional, and data were collected only after implementing the innovative activities in a one-shot retrospective research design. Thus, the review concluded that 'future studies need to match this pedagogical contribution with research rigour, using robust data collection procedures to create a body of indisputable findings of proposals in action' (Rose *et al.*, 2020). The GEO-Q may be used as one of the first validated research tools that can contribute to more robust data collection in order to examine the impact of GELT on learners' attitudes. The instrument can be used for both cross-sectional and longitudinal studies to measure attitudes before and after an intervention. Most teachers either do not have time to carry out research or do not know how to do so (Rose *et al.*, 2020). Thus, a collaboration between researchers and teachers is strongly recommended. Teachers should be able to play an active role in research projects by providing their pedagogical

and context-specific knowledge, whereas researchers can offer their methodological knowledge that includes data analysis through the GEO-Q.

For such successful collaborative GE research mentioned above, some modifications to the GEO-Q may be required, as seen in Section 7.2. Two items having cross-loadings of less than .15 difference from an item with the highest factor loading were especially problematic (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006). One of the items came under the *Awareness about varieties of English* factor, namely 'Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures'. The other research item came under the *Preference for Native English* factor, namely 'Good English listening and speaking instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English'. As the content of both constructs overlapped as mentioned in Section 7.2, 'I want my English teachers to introduce students to both native and diverse English-speaking cultures' can be used to replace the former item ('Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures'), and 'I do not necessarily want to be taught to use any specific varieties of English in listening and speaking instruction' can be added so that those items may be loaded on to *Awareness about varieties of English* and the former item ('Good English listening and speaking instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English') may be loaded on to *Preference for Native English*. Furthermore, as described in Section 7.2, the use of various alternative proficiency measures is recommended.

Any modifications to the GEO-Q should be examined through factor and reliability analysis before it is used in attitudinal research. The GEO-Q has been validated only with Japanese university students, and whether it would work for populations other than this group remains unknown. If the GEO-Q is validated in multiple contexts, it would be

possible to make findings in each context robust and to draw comparisons on the learners' attitudes towards English as a global language while also controlling for context-specific variables. This would contribute to our understanding of learners' attitudes from a broader perspective. If there are any similarities or differences, it would be possible for researchers and teachers in different contexts to share information with each other, which can inform them of the most effective GE innovations to make changes to learners' attitudes.

Qualitative data should also be collected from populations other than Japanese university students in future research. As one of the methodological limitations (see Chapter 3) of my study was the lack of interactions during the focus group, taking an extra step like practising to get participants actively involved in discussions is highly recommended. As mentioned in Section 7.2, focus groups may not be the best approach for students who had no exposure to and were not aware of different varieties of English. Thus, to investigate such students, individual interviews would be more adaptable to each participant's contexts and experiences. Finally, as mentioned in Section 7.2, my study, including the Japanese version of the GEO-Q, did not cover all aspects of the GELT framework (Galloway & Rose, 2015, 2018; Rose & Galloway, 2019). Thus, students' attitudes towards other aspects like teachers and materials, should be investigated quantitatively and qualitatively with the development of validated research tools.

7.5. Conclusion

Although this study has several limitations and caution should be exercised in interpreting its findings, the results have made important contributions to knowledge in the field of GE and language learners' attitudes. This is one of the first studies to construct a questionnaire in order to take an exploratory look at the complex structure of attitudes

towards English as a global language through rigorous quantitative and qualitative analyses based on the GELT framework (Galloway & Rose, 2015, 2018; Rose and Galloway, 2019), capturing both traditional and global orientations and providing insights on curriculum innovation. Additional quantitative analyses (confirmatory factor analysis and structural equation modelling) confirmed the attitude structure, thus enabling the rigorous examination of the relationships between the attitude structure and factors affecting attitudes by controlling for confounding variables in the model. The qualitative data also provided evidence to support the quantitative findings. This study helped uncover English language learners' attitudes towards English as a global language, and revealed how we should promote GE innovations for a much-needed paradigm shift in the 21st century.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Characteristics of the participants' universities

Characteristics of the participants' universities to which the researcher reached out

General information about Universities (undergraduate) 1-37 Number of women within total shown in parentheses	University type	University location	Study major	Pilot study percentage of respondents (%) (N=345)	Main study percentage of respondents (%) (N=660)
1. The university has 9 faculties with a total of around 20,000 (7,700) students, 800 of whom are foreign.	Private	Rural	Humanities Social science Science Engineering Health	12.2	8.8
2. The university has 8 faculties with a total of around 6,000 (1500) students, 30 of whom are foreign.	Private	Rural	Humanities Social science	_	2.7
3. The university has 2 faculties with a total of around 2,200 female students, 22 of whom are foreign.	Private	Rural	Humanities Health	_	.3
4. The university has 11 faculties with a total of around 20,000 (10,500) students, 600 of whom are foreign. This university has been selected for the Top Global University Project.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social science Science Arts	_	3.3
5. The university has 7 faculties with a total of around 13,200 (4,300) students, 230 of whom are foreign.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social science Science Engineering	_	2.6
6. The university has 5 faculties with a total of around 10,000 students, 800 of whom are foreign.	Private	Urban	Humanities Engineering	_	.5
7. The university has 10 faculties with a total of around 41,000 (15,600) students, 2500 of whom are foreign. This university has been selected for the Top Global University Project.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Health Pedagogy	_	1.2
8. The university has 10 faculties with a total of around 11,000 (4,000) students, 150 of whom are foreign.	Private	Rural	Humanities Social Science Health	_	.6
9. The university has 13 faculties with a total of around 29,000 (12,000) students, 400 of whom are foreign.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Health	_	2.4
10. The university has 14 faculties with a total of around 31,000 (13,000) students, 1,500 of whom are foreign. This university has been selected for the Top Global University Project.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Health	_	10.0
11. The university has 10 faculties with a total of around 31,000 (11,000) students, 1,700 of whom are foreign. This university has been selected for the Top Global University Project.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Agriculture	_	11.4
12. The university has 8 faculties with a total of around 8,700 (2.900) students, 16 of whom are foreign.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social Science Engineering Pedagogy Arts	_	3.9
13. The university has 10 faculties with a total of around 29,000 (11,000) students, 500 of whom are foreign. This university has been selected for the Top Global University Project.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Health	_	4.8

Characteristics of the participants' universities to which the researcher reached out (Continued)

General information about Universities (undergraduate) 1-37 Number of women within total shown in parentheses	University type	University location	Study major	Pilot study percentage of respondents (%) (N=345)	Main study percentage of respondents (%) (N=660)
14. The university has 8 faculties with a total of around 11,000 (3,500) students, 300 of whom are foreign.	National	Rural	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Pedagogy Health Agriculture Arts	_	19.7
15. The university has 1 faculty (Education) with a total of around 1,100 (600) students, 3 of whom are foreign.	National	Rural	Pedagogy	.9	1.5
16. The university has 1 faculty (Commerce) with a total of around 2,300 (900) students, 50 of whom are foreign.	National	Rural	Social Science	_	.5
17. The university has 6 faculties with a total of around 6,000 (2,500) students, 90 of whom are foreign.	National	Rural	Humanities Engineering Pedagogy Health Agriculture	_	.2
18. The university has 10 faculties with a total of around 10,000 (4,000) students, 200 of whom are foreign.	National	Rural	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Pedagogy Health Agriculture	5.5	5.5
19. The university has 9 faculties with a total of around 10,000 (4,000) students, 314 of whom are foreign. This university has been selected for the Top Global University Project.	National	Rural	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Pedagogy Health Arts	44.1	15.5
20. The university has 2 faculties with a total of around 1,100 (800) students, 6 of whom are foreign.	Public	Rural	Social Science Health	.6	1.1
21. The university has 1 faculty (Foreign languages) with a total of around 2,100 (1,400) students, 30 of whom are foreign.	Public	Rural	Humanities	_	2.1
22. The university has 3 faculties with a total of around 2,500 (1,000) students, 30 of whom are foreign.	Private	Urban	Social Science Health	.9	.2
23. The university has 2 faculties with a total of around 3,800 (1,200) students, 65 of whom are foreign.	National	Private	Engineering Agriculture	_	.9
24. The university has 3 faculties with a total of around 1,400 (700) students.	Public	Rural	Social Science Health	_	.5
25. The university has 5 faculties with a total of around 9,000 (5,400) students, 700 of whom are foreign.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social Science Health Arts	.6	No response
26. The university has 9 faculties with a total of around 10,000 (3,000) students, 600 of whom are foreign.	National	Rural	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Pedagogy Health Agriculture	1.4	No response
27. The university has 9 faculties with a total of around 6,500 (2,000) students, 100 of whom are foreign.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social Science	.6	No response

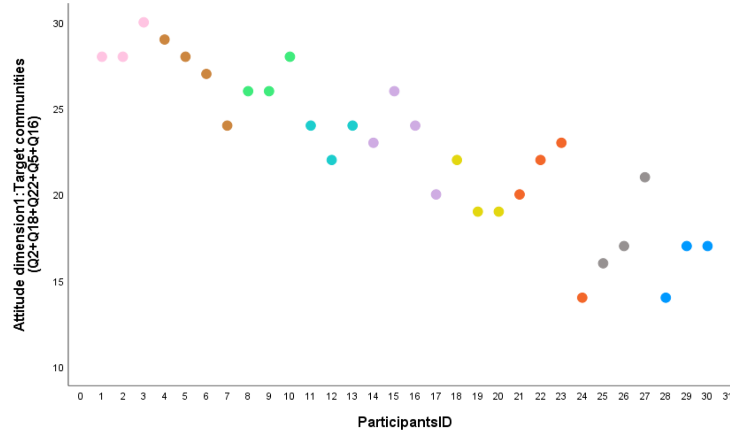
Characteristics of the participants' universities to which the researcher reached out (Continued)

General information about Universities (undergraduate) 1-37 Number of women within total shown in parentheses	University type	University location	Study major	Pilot study percentage of respondents (%) (N=345)	Main study percentage of respondents (%) (N=660)
28. The university has 7 faculties with a total of around 17,000 (5,000) students, 300 of whom are foreign.	Private	Rural	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering	.3	No response
29. The university has 7 faculties with a total of around 6,400 female students, 2 of whom are foreign.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social Science Health Arts	1.4	No response
30. The university has 4 faculties with a total of around 2,500 (NA) students, NA of whom are foreign.	Private	Rural	Humanities Social Science Health	24.1	No response
31. The university has 7 faculties with a total of around 8,600 (4600) students, 30 of whom are foreign.	Private	Rural	Humanities Social Science Pedagogy Health	.3	No response
32. The university has 7 faculties with a total of around 9,000 (1,000) students, (NA) of whom are foreign.	Private	Urban	Science Engineering	7.2	No response
33. The university has 1 faculty with a total of around 3,000 (2,000) students, 162 of whom are foreign. This university has been selected for the Top Global University Project.	Private	Urban	Liberal Arts	Not used	Not used
34. The university has 10 faculty with a total of around 14,000 (2,700) students, 500 of whom are foreign. This university has been selected for the Top Global University Project.	National	Urban	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Pedagogy Health Agriculture	Not used	Not used
35. The university has 9 faculties with a total of around 12,600 (7,500) students, 2,700 of whom are foreign. This university has been selected for the Top Global University Project.	Private	Urban	Humanities Social Science Engineering	Not used	Not used
36. The university has 12 faculties with a total of around 10,700 (4,000) students, 300 of whom are foreign. This university has been selected for the Top Global University Project.	National	Rural	Humanities Social Science Science Engineering Pedagogy Health	No response	No response
37. The university has 10 faculties with a total of around 7,500 (3,500) students, 30 of whom are foreign.	Private	Rural	Social Science Science Engineering Pedagogy Health	No response	No response

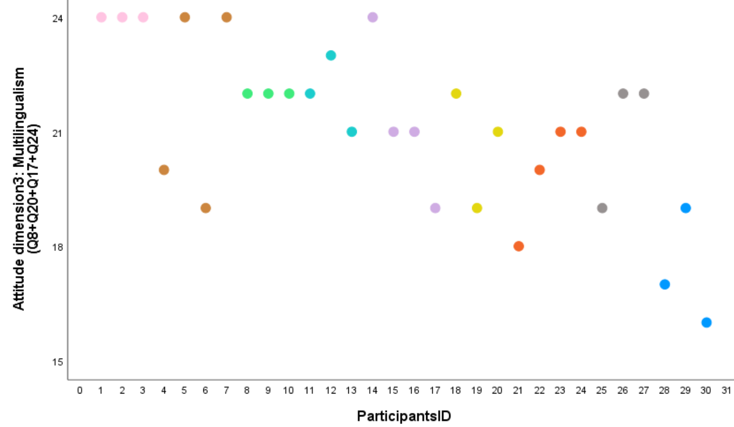
APPENDIX B: Focus group participants' attitudinal factors

The graph focus group participants' attitudinal factors
(Pink: Group A; Brown: Group B; Light green: Group C; Dark green: Group D; Purple: Group E; Yellow: Group F; Orange: Group G: Gary: Group H; Blue Group I)

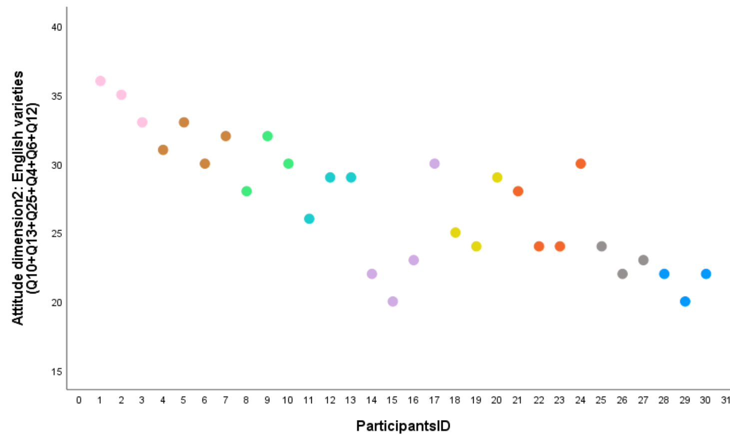
Attitudinal factor1: Target communities



Attitudinal factor2: Varieties of English

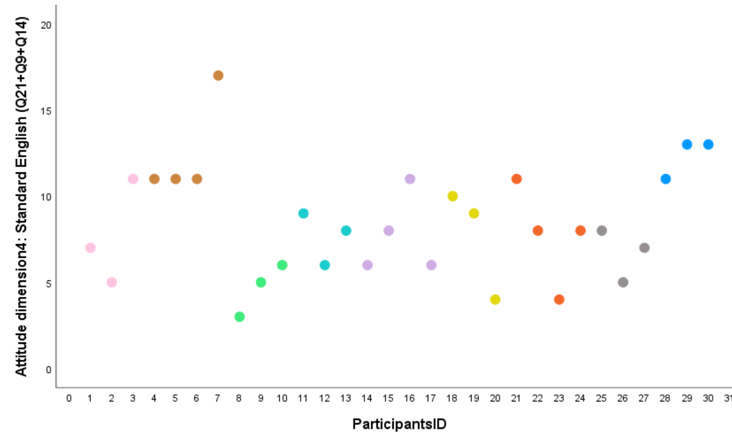


Attitudinal factor3: Multilingualism

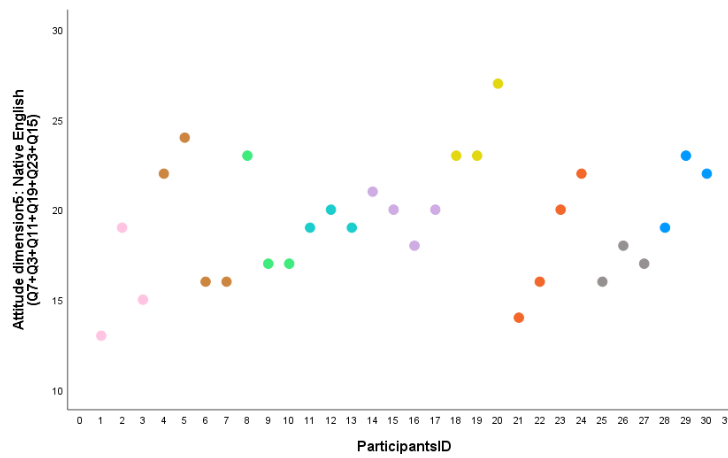


The graph focus group participants' attitudinal factors
(Pink: Group A; Brown: Group B; Light green: Group C; Dark green: Group D; Purple: Group E; Yellow: Group F; Orange: Group G: Gary: Group H; Blue Group I) (Continued)

Attitudinal factor4: Standard English



Attitudinal factor5: Native English



APPENDIX C: Demographic information of focus group participants

Demographic information of focus group participants (A~D)

Characteristics	Attitudinal Factors								University	University type	University location	Selected for the Top Global University project	English language exposure			Proficiency	Study abroad experience	Gender	Study major	Study year	Age
Group	Participant	1.Target communities (Q2,18,22,5,16)	2.English varieties (Q10,13,25,4,6,12)	3.Multilingualism(Q8,20,17,24)	Total (Factors 1+2+3)	4.Standard English (Q21,9,14)	5.Native English(Q7,3, 11,19,23,15)	Total (Factors 4+5)					Exposure to native English varieties (EQ1,2,3,4)	Exposure to Japanese English varieties (EQ5,6,7,8)	Exposure to other English varieties (EQ9,10,11,12)						
A	**1**	28	36	24	88	7	13	20	14	National	Rural	No	17	16	17	450	No	M	Textile Science and Technology	2	20
	2	28	35	24	87	5	19	24	15	National	Rural	No	11	15	4	430	No	M	Japanese Language Education	1	18
	3	30	33	24	87	11	15	26	10	Private	Urban	Yes	18	16	14	465	Yes	F	Information Science	1	19
B	**4**	29	31	20	80	11	22	33	21	Public	Rural	No	24	18	18	685	No	F	International Relations	3	21
	5	28	33	24	85	11	24	35	18	National	Rural	No	24	15	14	NA	Yes	M	Humanities	1	18
	6	27	30	19	76	11	16	27	7	Private	Urban	Yes	13	14	9	885	No	F	Literature	1	20
	7	24	32	24	80	17	16	33	19	National	Rural	Yes	14	22	8	NA	Yes	M	International Studies	1	18
C	**8**	26	28	22	76	3	23	26	1	Private	Rural	No	14	14	13	NA	No	F	English Language	2	19
	9	26	32	22	80	5	17	22	19	National	Rural	Yes	21	14	19	NA	Yes	M	Sociology	1	19
	10	28	30	22	80	6	17	23	13	Private	Urban	Yes	22	19	19	NA	Yes	F	Humanities	1	18
D	**11**	24	26	22	72	9	19	28	18	National	Rural	No	18	17	9	NA	No	F	Dentistry	1	19
	12	22	29	23	74	6	20	26	7	Private	Urban	Yes	14	11	7	NA	Yes	F	Culture, Media and Society	1	18
	13	24	29	21	74	8	19	27	18	National	Rural	No	22	16	17	865	Yes	M	Medicine	1	18

Demographic information of focus group participants (E~I)

Characteristics	Attitudinal Factors								University	University type	University location	Selected for Top Global University project	English language exposure			Proficiency	Study abroad experience	Gender	Study major	Study year	Age
Group	Participant	1.Target communities (Q2,18,22,5,16)	2.English varieties (Q10,13,25,4,6,12)	3.Multilingualism(Q8,20,17,24)	Total (Factors 1+2+3)	4.Standard English (Q21,9,14)	5.Native English (Q7, 3, 11, 19, 23, 15)	Total (Factors 4+5)					Exposure to native English varieties (EQ1,2,3,4)	Exposure to Japanese English varieties (EQ5,6,7,8)	Exposure to other English varieties (EQ9,10,11,12)						
E	**14**	23	22	24	69	6	21	27	5	Private	Urban	No	23	10	11	545	Yes	F	British and American Literature	2	19
	15	26	20	21	67	8	20	28	18	National	Rural	No	13	10	5	545	No	F	Humanities	3	20
	16	24	23	21	68	11	18	29	18	National	Rural		10	8	4	NA	No	M	Humanities	1	18
	17	20	30	19	69	6	20	26	17	National	Rural	No	13	13	8	620	Yes	M	Economics	3	20
F	**18**	22	25	22	69	10	23	33	13	Private	Urban	Yes	14	12	7	NA	No	M	Humanities	1	19
	19	19	24	19	62	9	23	32	18	National	Rural	No	15	14	8	730	No	M	Humanities	4	22
	20	19	29	21	69	4	27	31	21	Public	Rural	No	11	8	5	NA	No	F	International Relations	3	20
G	**21**	20	28	18	66	11	14	25	21	Public	Rural	No	12	12	10	700	Yes	F	International Relations	3	20
	22	22	24	20	66	8	16	24	18	National	Rural	No	14	14	6	710	Yes	F	Creative Studies	2	19
	23	23	24	21	68	4	20	24	14	National	Rural	No	15	12	4	NA	No	F	Medicine	1	19
	24	14	30	21	65	8	22	30	15	National	Rural	No	16	13	21	NA	No	F	Japanese Language Education	1	18
H	**25**	16	24	19	59	8	16	24	6	Private	Urban	No	19	17	11	555	Yes	F	British and America Literature	2	19
	26	17	22	22	61	5	18	23	14	National	Rural	No	8	9	4	700	No	M	Textile Science and Technology	2	19
	27	21	23	22	66	7	17	24	4	Private	Urban	Yes	12	13	8	765	No	F	Intercultural Communication	2	19
I	**28**	14	22	17	53	11	19	30	1	Private	Rural	No	8	8	4	NA	No	M	Economic law	2	19
	29	17	20	19	56	13	23	36	14	National	Rural	No	12	12	12	565	No	M	Medicine	2	20
	30	17	22	16	55	13	22	35	10	Private	Urban	Yes	13	14	11	570	Yes	M	Information Science	2	19

APPENDIX D: The Global Englishes Orientation Questionnaire

Global Englishes Orientation Questionnaire

Page 1: Global Englishes Orientation Questionnaire

Global Englishes Orientation Questionnaire

Hello! We are researchers at the Department of Education, University of Oxford. We're interested in your attitudes to the use of English around the world, and we are inviting you to participate in our study, which aims to explore attitudes of English language learners.

You are invited to participate in this study because your school has agreed to help with our research. All English language learners have been invited to participate, but your participation is voluntary.

If you agree to be in the study, you will be invited to complete a questionnaire about your attitudes towards learning English. This will take a maximum of 15 minutes to complete and your answers will be kept a secret. You can access the questionnaire on the next page, via the link below.

Participating in the study will have no effect on your course or marks. All the information you provide will be kept on a secure, password-controlled computer. The questionnaire is anonymous, which means the researchers will not record your name or any personal information.

This project has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the University of Oxford Central University Research Ethics Committee.

If you have any questions, please contact us by phone: +44 (0) 1865 274 024 or e-mail:

- Heath Rose: heath.rose@education.ox.ac.uk
- Jess Briggs: jess.briggs@education.ox.ac.uk
- Natsuno Funada: natsuno.funada@education.ox.ac.uk
- Anya Montakantiwong: anuchaya.montakantiwong@education.ox.ac.uk

Page 2: Your opinions on learning and using English

1. Please indicate to what extent you agree with each of these statements by using the following scale.

1 = Strongly Disagree
2 = Disagree
3 = Neither agree or disagree
4 = Agree
5 = Strongly Agree

	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Neither agree or disagree 4 = Agree 5 = Strongly Agree * Required					Was this question difficult to understand or to answer? (if yes, please tick)
	1	2	3	4	5	Yes
1. I am learning English because I want to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.						
2. A fluent second language speaker of English speaks with a native accent.						
3. There is no difference between fluent speakers of English and native speakers of English.						
4. The true owners of English are from America.						
5. The good English teacher provides opportunities for learners to learn about different English varieties.						
6. Interacting with monolingual speakers of English is more helpful than interacting with multilingual speakers of English.						
7. When I think of an English speaker, I imagine a speaker from a native English speaking country.						
8. Clear pronunciation is more important than a native-like accent.						
9. It is better to not say anything in the language until I can say it correctly.						
10. I wish English were my native/first language.						
11. The true owners of English are from England.						
12. I want to sound more like a native speaker than a fluent second language speaker of English.						
13. I would like to use English to live/study/work in an English-only community.						
14. A fluent second language speaker of English doesn't need to mimic a native accent.						
15. I am learning English because I want to communicate with non-native speakers of English.						
16. Making friends with multilingual speakers helps to improve my English more than making friends with monolingual speakers.						
17. I prefer to mix English with other languages when possible.						
18. Native speakers of English are the best teachers of English.						
19. I would like to use English to live/study/work in a multilingual community.						
20. Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English language classes.						
21. Correct English grammar is required for successful communication.						
22. Learning the culture of native English speaking countries improves my English.						
23. Class materials should include speakers who have a range of accents in English.						
24. English is owned by both first and second users of the language.						
25. The true owners of English are everyone who uses English.						
26. Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.						
27. Learners should master their first/native language(s), before learning English.						

28. Interacting with native speakers helps to improve my English more than interacting with other learners of English.						
39. Tests of English should focus on how well a learner can communicate, rather than on how accurate their language is.						
30. English varieties such as British and American English are more correct than English varieties such as Indian or Singaporean English.						
31. The goal of learning the English language is to speak with a native-like accent.						
32. Good English language instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English.						
33. Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures.						
34. Exposure to different English varieties in an English class is important to improve my English.						
35. Class time should be devoted to learning the language system (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling and syntax) of standard varieties of English only.						
36. Being a native speaker is not an important characteristic of a good English teacher.						
37. It is more important for teachers to have clear pronunciation than a native-like accent.						
38. There is little benefit for students who have mastered American or British English to learn more about (or be made aware of) other varieties of English.						
39. Studying different varieties of English is more beneficial than studying one type of English.						
40. The role of the teacher is to help students develop native-like proficiency.						
41. I am learning English because I want to know about various English speaking communities.						
42. English is one of my languages.						
43. I am learning English because I want to communicate with native speakers of English.						
44. Learning American or British English provides better educational and professional opportunities than learning other varieties of English.						
45. Classes should teach students how to communicate correctly, rather than focusing on language accuracy.						
46. As long as it is understood, incorrect English is acceptable.						
47. Awareness of different English varieties will enable me to learn about a greater range of English speakers.						
48. Commonly used English grammar should appear in textbooks, even if it is grammatically incorrect.						
49. Using English with non-native speakers is a good practice.						
50. It will be useful for me to have both my native/first language and English in the future.						
51. English language programs should provide students with opportunities to practice the language with speakers from different language backgrounds, both in school and beyond.						
52. It is important to speak other languages in addition to English.						
53. When speaking English with a multilingual speaker, I prefer to use only English.						
54. People in native English-speaking countries speak correct English.						
55. Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English conversation classes.						
56. Non-native spoken English is inferior to native spoken English.						
57. My native/first language is a useful resource for learning English.						

Page 3: About you

Some final questions about you

Finally, can you answer some questions about yourself?

2. How old are you? *Optional*

Please enter a whole number (integer).
Your answer should be no more than 2 characters long.

3. Are you...?

4. What is your nationality? (e.g. Japanese; Thai; Italian)

5. What is your primary country of residence (i.e. where do you live most of the time)?

6. What is/are your native language(s) (i.e. your first language/mother tongue)?

7. What other language(s) do you speak (i.e. second/additional languages)?

8. Have you spent time in a foreign country? If so, answer the questions below (with your longest expereince first):

	Where did you go? (e.g. USA; Germany)	What was the purpose of your travel? (e.g. study; tourism)	How long did you stay?
Experience 1			
Experience 2			
Experience 3			
Experience 4			
Experience 5			

Page 4: Your language experiences

If you could answer a few more questions, it would help us to know more about your language experiences and your language proficiency

9. Think about your current and past experiences in using English. Consider how you use English with your friends, teachers, classmates and other people in your life. Are these statement true of how you use English, or are they untrue (incorrect) of you?

	1 = this is very untrue of me 2 = this is untrue of me 3 = this is somewhat untrue of me 4 = this is somewhat true of me 5 = this is true of me 6 = this is very true of me					
	1 = very untrue of me	2	3	4	5	6 = very true of me
I speak English with native English-speakers.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I speak English with non-native English-speakers, who can speak my native language.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I speak English with non-native English-speakers, who cannot speak my native language.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I listen to English spoken by native English-speakers.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I listen to English spoken by non-native English-speakers, who can speak my native language.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I listen to English spoken by non-native English-speakers, who cannot speak my native language.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I listen to English songs/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos from native English-speaking countries.	○	○	○	○	○	○
I listen to English songs/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos from non-native English-speaking countries.	○	○	○	○	○	○

10. What is your level or English? (Use the sample test scores and descriptions in the table below to help you decide)

- ○ C2 Very advanced
- ○ C1 Advanced
- ○ B2 Upper Intermediate
- ○ B1 Intermediate
- ○ A Basic

LEVEL DESCRIPTION

C2. Can understand with ease virtually everything heard or read. Can summarise information from different spoken and written sources, reconstructing arguments and accounts in a coherent presentation. Can express him/herself spontaneously, very fluently and precisely, differentiating finer shades of Proficient meaning even in more complex situations.

C2

Example test scores:

- IELTS: 8.0-9.0;
- TOEFL (iBT) 110+;
- TOEFL (paper test) 641+;
- TOEIC 970+;
- Cambridge Exam CPE

C1. Can understand a wide range of demanding, longer texts, and recognise implicit meaning. Can express him/herself fluently and spontaneously without much obvious searching for expressions. Can use language flexibly and effectively for social, academic and professional purposes. Can produce clear, well-structured, detailed text on complex subjects, showing controlled use of organisational patterns, connectors and cohesive devices.

C1 Example Test Scores:

- IELTS 6.5-8.0
- TOEFL (iBT) 96-110
- TOEFL (paper test) 627-640
- TOEIC 910-970
- Cambridge Exams CAE

B2. Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialisation. Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party. Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a topical issue giving the advantages and Independent disadvantages of various options.

B2 Example Test Scores:

- IELTS 5.0-6.5;
- TOEFL (iBT) 73-95;
- TOEFL (paper test) 543-626;
- TOEIC 710-910;
- Cambridge Exams FCE

B1. Can understand the main points of clear standard input on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc. Can deal with most situations likely to arise whilst travelling in an area where the language is spoken. Can produce simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. Can describe experiences and events, dreams, hopes and ambitions and briefly give reasons and explanations for opinions and plans.

B1 Example Test Scores:

- IELTS 4.0-5.0;
- TOEFL (iBT) 42-71;
- TOEFL (paper test) 460-542;
- TOEIC 505-705;
- Cambridge Exam PET

A. Can understand sentences and frequently used expressions related to areas of most immediate relevance (e.g. very basic personal and family information, shopping, local geography, employment). Can communicate in simple and routine tasks requiring a simple and direct exchange of information on familiar and routine matters. Can describe in simple terms aspects of his/her background, immediate environment and matters in areas of immediate Basic need.

A Example Test Scores:

- IELTS 3.5 or lower
- TOEFL (iBT) 41 or lower
- TOEFL (paper test) 336 or lower
- TOEIC 500 or lower
- Cambridge Exam KET

Page 5: Thank you for completing this questionnaire!

We would like to thank you very much for helping us.

Your answers will help us to understand more about people's attitudes towards using English as a global language. We really appreciate your help!

Your answers were transmitted, you may close the browser window or tab now.

APPENDIX E: Pre-piloting and piloting with non-Japanese learners

1. Pre-piloting and piloting with non-Japanese learners

The pre-piloting and piloting of the GEO-Q with non-Japanese learners are described in detail below.

1.1. Pre-piloting with non-Japanese learners (April 2017)

In order to check that the items for piloting were clear to potential learners, the English version of the 57-item attitudinal questionnaire was pre-piloted with English language learners in Oxford. The researcher contacted heads of private English language institutions in Oxford. One of them agreed to allow recruiting their students for the pre-pilot study. The researcher visited the institution for pre-piloting, which involved the researcher explaining the aim of the study and sitting with a range of English language learners, who filled out the questionnaire using a laptop at the institution and were interviewed afterwards. These learners were asked to highlight any questions which were unclear or difficult to understand. Each session was conducted in English and lasted for 30 minutes, and 12 English language learners from various countries, with an average of 26.08 years (*SD* = 7.15), took part in the study. Although the participants' characteristics were different from the target population, especially in terms of their language learning experiences and age, this pilot study was conducted to take into account various English language learners' perspectives. The results of the pre-pilot were discussed with the expert panel, and the following conclusions and adaptations were drawn:

(a) The English language version of the questionnaire required a minimum of a B1 Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) level or higher. This indicated that the questionnaire for the main study should be in the

students' first language (L1) to ensure comprehensibility across the full range of language proficiency.

(b) Five items were modified due to poor comprehensibility, which was conceptually (rather than linguistically) problematic.

(c) The wording of four items was adapted based on feedback to enhance the comprehensibility of the constructs being tested.

1.2. Piloting with non-Japanese learners (May 2017)

1.2.1. Procedure and participants

A pilot exercise was undertaken online with a general population of non-Japanese language background students. A non-Japanese population was used in order not to reduce the potential population of participants for the main study and also to allow potential future use with English language learner participants in multiple contexts. The questionnaire included the attitudinal items and some factual questions, such as age, gender, nationality, primary country of residence, native languages, additional languages, time spent in a foreign country, exposure to varieties of English items, and a self-rated proficiency item that illustrated the levels of proficiency described in the CEFR in order to check whether the sample was relatively close to the population. Some factual questions were different from the ones used in the Japanese context due to the inclusion of multiple contexts. For example, self-rated proficiency was used because no standardised exams were appropriate in the contexts. The questionnaire was distributed through email, containing an embedded link to open the electronic consent via a secure, web-based survey platform. The first page of the questionnaire included a brief written explanation of the purpose of the research in general and the questionnaire specifically.

The emails were sent out to English language teachers all over the world by using the connections held by all the members of the expert panel. The distribution of the questionnaire was at the discretion of the teachers. Some forwarded the email to their students. Others devoted class time for the questionnaire in order to make sure that all of their students completed it. Since this was one of the pilot studies for the development of the questionnaire, the responses data were used for analysis, as the respondents met the following criteria, which was relatively close to the characteristics of the target population of my study: (a) age of 18 to 21 years, (b) identifying their gender as female or male, (c) belonging to the Expanding Circle contexts, and (d) having post B1-level proficiency. The questionnaire also included some factual questions, such as age, gender, nationality, primary country of residence, native languages, additional languages, time spent in a foreign country, exposure to varieties of English, and English language proficiency. As a result, responses completed by 204 English language learners who were based mainly in Thailand and South Korea (117 female, 75 male, and 12 who did not respond with an average age of 21 years) were used as the data for analysis.

1.2.2. Data analysis

The completed response data were exported securely to Excel, and were then prepared for statistical analysis. For example, some data, such as university name and study major, were coded into numbers, and blanks were replaced with 0. They were then copied into IBM SPSS Statistics 25 for analysis.

In terms of the attitude measurement, as mentioned previously, attitudes were conceptualised as unobservable latent constructs that were identified and measured through instruments (Eagly & Chaiken 1993; Hinkin, 1995; Oskamp & Schultz, 2005; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). In order to explore the quality of the instrument that

consisted of the 57 attitudinal items, it was especially crucial to check the internal consistency reliability and construct validity (e.g. Kline, 1993). Reliability is concerned with the ability of an instrument to measure a construct consistently (DeVellis, 2003). In this study, Cronbach's (1951) coefficient alpha was used to measure the strength of that consistency; in other words, how closely related a set of items were as a group. A Cronbach's alpha score of > .7 was considered acceptable (e.g. Kline, 1999; Nunnally, 1978), though smaller scores have also been accepted for instruments measuring psychological constructs or abilities (Kline, 1999).

Construct validity refers to the extent to which an instrument captures a specific theoretical construct or trait (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). In this study, this meant whether the GEO-Q measures what it is supposed to measure: the factors of attitudes towards English as a global language. EFA was used to determine if any latent factors would emerge, and these factors underlying the newly developed attitude measurement would correspond with the constructs included in the GELT framework. EFA is based on the Common Factor Model, proposing that each observed response is influenced partially by common underlying factors and partially by unique underlying factors (DeCoster, 1998). EFA examines the pattern of correlations between the observed measures. Measures that are highly correlated (either positively or negatively) are likely influenced by the same factors, while those that are relatively uncorrelated are likely influenced by different factors. By exploring which items most strongly represented each factor in the current dataset, EFA also reduces the number of items per construct.

The factual questions also were analysed through descriptive statistics to check if there were any issues in answering them. The internal consistency of the exposure to varieties of English measure was checked as described previously.

1.2.3. Findings

(a) Data Screening

The data were screened for univariate outliers. Three out-of-range values, due to administrative errors, were identified and recoded as missing data.

(b) Descriptive statistics (Attitude measure)

Since a Likert scale was used, a number was assigned to each label (*strongly disagree* = 1; *disagree* = 2; *neutral* = 3; *agree* = 4; *strongly agree* = 5). Based on the data on the questionnaires completed by the students, the results of descriptive statistics, such as means, and standard deviations, for each questionnaire item were computed. All questionnaire items are shown in Table 1.

Table 1
Piloting with non-Japanese learners: Descriptive statistics (Attitude measure) (N=204)

Items	Mean	*SD*
Q50_It will be useful for me to have both my native/first language and English in the future.	4.09	0.96
Q51_English language programs should provide students with opportunities to practise the language with speakers from different language backgrounds, both in school and beyond.	3.99	0.90
Q5_The good English teacher provides opportunities for learners to learn about different English varieties.	3.98	0.88
Q1_I am learning English because I want to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.	3.87	1.01
Q26_Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.	3.86	0.91
Q43_I am learning English because I want to communicate with native speakers of English.	3.85	1.05
Q19_I would like to use English to live/study/work in a multilingual community.	3.82	0.99
Q22_Learning the culture of native English-speaking countries improves my English.	3.82	0.87
Q8_Clear pronunciation is more important than a native-like accent.	3.80	0.98
Q52_It is important to speak other languages in addition to English.	3.80	0.89
Q47_Awareness of different English varieties will enable me to learn about a greater range of English speakers.	3.78	0.81
Q45_Classes should teach students how to communicate correctly, rather than focusing on language accuracy.	3.77	0.90
Q42_English is one of my languages.	3.76	1.08
Q37_It is more important for teachers to have clear pronunciation than a native-like accent.	3.73	1.01
Q16_Making friends with multilingual speakers help to improve my English more than making friends with monolingual speakers.	3.73	0.96

Table 1
Piloting with non-Japanese learners: Descriptive statistics (Attitude measure) (N=204) (Continued)

Items	Mean	*SD*
Q39_Studying different varieties of English is more beneficial than studying one type of English.	3.71	0.93
Q29_Tests of English should focus on how well a learner can communicate, rather than on how accurate their language is.	3.68	0.95
Q25_The true owners of English are everyone who uses English.	3.66	1.10
Q24_English is owned by both first and second users of the language.	3.65	0.95
Q49_Using English with non-native speakers is a good practice.	3.65	0.88
Q34_Exposure to different English varieties in an English class is important to improve my English.	3.65	0.93
Q23_Class materials should include speakers who have a range of accents in English.	3.61	0.91
Q7_When I think of an English speaker, I imagine a speaker from a native English-speaking country.	3.61	1.01
Q12_I want to sound more like a native speaker than a fluent second language speaker of English.	3.56	1.10
Q44_Learning American or British English provides better educational and professional opportunities than learning other varieties of English.	3.53	0.99
Q33_Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures.	3.53	0.90
Q41_ I am learning English because I want to know about various English-speaking communities.	3.50	1.06
Q46_As long as it is understood, incorrect English is acceptable.	3.49	0.95
Q36_Being a native speaker is not an important characteristic of a good English teacher.	3.47	1.03
Q28_Interacting with native speakers helps to improve my English more than interacting with other learners of English.	3.47	0.96
Q53_When speaking English with a multilingual speaker, I prefer to use only English.	3.47	0.98
Q40_The role of the teacher is to help students develop native-like proficiency.	3.41	0.94
Q15_I am learning English because I want to communicate with non-native speakers of English.	3.39	1.03
Q14_A fluent second language speaker of English doesn’t need to mimic a native accent.	3.38	0.90
Q57_My native/first language is a useful resource for learning English.	3.38	1.03
Q32_Good English language instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English.	3.36	0.93
Q30_English varieties such as British and American English are more correct than English varieties such as Indian or Singaporean English.	3.36	0.99
Q13_I would like to use English to live/study/work in an English-only community.	3.33	1.16
Q2_A fluent second language speaker of English speaks with a native accent.	3.32	1.02
Q48_Commonly used English grammar should appear in textbooks, even if it is grammatically incorrect.	3.28	1.08
Q38_There is little benefit for students who have mastered American or British English to learn more about (or be made aware of) other varieties of English.	3.26	0.99
Q18_Native speakers of English are the best teachers of English.	3.26	1.08
Q35_Class time should be devoted to learning the language system (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling and syntax) of standard varieties of English only.	3.23	1.01
Q21_Correct English grammar is required for successful communication.	3.22	1.10
Q27_Learners should master their first/native language(s), before learning English.	3.20	1.17
Q10_I wish English were my native/first language.	3.18	1.27
Q11_The true owners of English are from England.	3.14	1.18
Q31_The goal of learning the English language is to speak with a native-like accent.	3.08	1.10
Q17_I prefer to mix English with other languages when possible.	3.01	1.07

Table 1
Piloting with non-Japanese learners: Descriptive statistics (Attitude measure) (N=204) (Continued)

Items	Mean	*SD*
Q54_People in native English-speaking countries speak correct English.	2.92	1.09
Q6_Interacting with monolingual speakers of English is more helpful than interacting with multilingual speakers of English.	2.92	1.07
Q55_Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English conversation classes.	2.88	1.11
Q20_Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English language classes.	2.83	1.21
Q3_There is no difference between fluent speakers of English and native speakers of English.	2.75	1.12
Q56_Non-native spoken English is inferior to native spoken English.	2.73	1.11
Q9_It is better to not say anything in the language until I can say it correctly.	2.25	1.22
Q4_The true owners of English are from America.	2.24	1.16

The items on which the students agreed most strongly (items with a mean of 3.95 or higher) addressed global orientations. The students had positive attitudes towards speaking their native language and English and including different English varieties inside and outside the classroom. In contrast, the items the respondents agreed with the least (items with a mean of 2.74 or lower) were related to traditional orientations: the students appeared to have negative attitudes towards American ownership of English, 'correctness' in a language, and non-native English inferiority.

(c) Factor analysis (Attitude measure)

EFA was conducted to determine what attitudinal factors would emerge from the questionnaire data. Since the data were relatively normally distributed, EFA using the maximum likelihood method was conducted on the 57 items with orthogonal rotation (varimax). The maximum likelihood method was used because Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, and Strahan (1999) and Osborne (2014) argued that if data are relatively normally distributed, the maximum likelihood estimate is the most suitable choice. The orthogonal rotation method was used since the oblique rotation method (e.g. direct oblimin or promax) failed to obtain a simple structure, following Kline's (2002) relatively

flexible definition: ‘that each factor should have a few high loadings with the rest of the loadings being zero or close to zero’ (p. 65).

Variables that have a large number of low correlation coefficients ($r = \pm.30$) were checked by referring to the correlation matrix, as they indicate a lack of patterned relationships. Similarly, variables that have correlations above $r = \pm.90$ were checked. As a follow-up, the determinant score was checked, and the value was .000352, above the rule of thumb (.00001; Field, 2009). The current data thus were deemed to have patterned relationships among the variables. Bartlett’s test of sphericity [χ^2 (1596) = 4830.587, $p < .001$] also indicated that correlations between items were sufficiently large for EFA. The Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin (KMO) measure verified the sampling adequacy for the analysis, KMO = .83, and all KMO values for individual items except Q17 (.56) were > .62, which was well above the acceptable limit of .5 (Field, 2009).

An initial analysis was run to obtain eigenvalues for each factor in the data. Sixteen factors had eigenvalues over Kaiser’s criterion of 1 and in combination explained 64.98 % of the variance. The scree plot showed inflexions (Cattell, 1966) that would justify retaining three factors. Given the relatively small sample size and the convergence of the scree plot, three factors were retained in the analysis. The percentage of the non-redundant residuals was checked by referring to the reproduced correlation matrix to determine whether a model was a good fit (having less than 50 % of the non-redundant residuals with absolute values that are greater than .05; Yong & Pearce, 2013), which held true for the current data. The reproduced correlation matrix and the original correlation coefficients matrix were also compared to check whether the model was a good fit (having small residuals between the two matrices; Yong & Pearce, 2013), which also held true for the data. The items that loaded on the same factors with an absolute

value greater than .40 were set for interpretation (Field, 2009) and suggested that Factor 1 represented *Global orientations* (16 items), Factor 2 represented *Traditional orientations* (8 items), and Factor 3 represented *Standard English* (4 items) addressed in the GELT framework.

To check the internal consistency of the questionnaire items, reliability analyses were conducted. For each factor Cronbach's results were as follows: *Global orientations*, $\alpha = .91$; *Traditional orientations*, $\alpha = .81$; and *Standard English*, $\alpha = .61$. According to Kline's (1999) criteria, all the factors had acceptable reliability $> .7$ with the exception of *Standard English*. Thus, in consideration of the small number of items loading onto this factor, and its low alpha statistic, *Standard English* was removed from the final analysis (see Table 2 for a list of these two factors, the items which loaded on each factor, and the reliability coefficient for each factor). The two factors are elaborated upon below.

Factor 1: *Global orientations*

Factor 1 obtained appreciative loadings from 16 items. This factor included items indicative of an interest in and recognition of the benefits and importance of different varieties of English, speakers of these varieties, different English-speaking communities, and learning and being taught about them. It also included items that involved beliefs about the importance of being multilingual and a desire to be a member of multilingual communities. Items related to the importance of clear pronunciation rather than native-like accents and a sense of ownership of English were also loaded.

Factor 2: *Traditional orientations*

Factor 2 was determined by appreciative loadings from eight items. The items included in this factor reflected positive views about American and British English acting as the

teaching models in classrooms; learning about the cultures associated with these varieties of English; beliefs about the importance and benefits of learning these varieties; and a desire for native-like fluency and accent, along with being a member of monolingual communities. Items relating to native-speaker superiority were also included.

Table 2
Results of exploratory factor and reliability analyses of the pilot study with the general population for the attitude measure[a]

Items	factor loadings	
	1	2
Factor 1: 1 Global orientations (α= .91)		
Q51_English language programs should provide students with opportunities to practise the language with speakers from different language backgrounds, both in school and beyond.	.788	
Q39_Studying different varieties of English is more beneficial than studying one type of English.	.734	
Q34_Exposure to different English varieties in an English class is important to improve my English.	.715	
Q50_It will be useful for me to have both my native/first language and English in the future.	.681	
Q5_The good English teacher provides opportunities for learners to learn about different English varieties.	.621	
Q47_Awareness of different English varieties will enable me to learn about a greater range of English speakers.	.611	
Q26_Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.	.602	
Q19 _I would like to use English to live/study/work in a multilingual community.	.595	
Q52_It is important to speak other languages in addition to English.	.565	
Q8_Clear pronunciation is more important than a native-like accent.	.561	
Q42_English is one of my languages.	.551	
Q37_It is more important for teachers to have clear pronunciation than a native-like accent.	.549	
Q41_I am learning English because I want to know about various English-speaking communities.	.483	
Q23_Class materials should include speakers who have a range of accents in English.	.471	
Q1 _I am learning English because I want to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.	.429	
Q24_English is owned by both first and second users of the language.	.425	
Factor 2: Traditional orientations (α= .81)		
Q32_Good English language instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English.		.723
Q3_ The goal of learning the English language is to speak with a native-like accent.		.699
Q44_Learning American or British English provides better educational and professional opportunities than learning other varieties of English.		.596
Q30_English varieties such as British and American English are more correct than English varieties such as Indian or Singaporean English.		.544
Q40_The role of the teacher is to help students develop native-like proficiency.		.532
Q2_A fluent second language speaker of English speaks with a native accent.		.515
Q13_I would like to use English to live/study/work in an English-only community.		.462
Q33_Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures.		.461

a. Note: Only loadings of ± .40 or greater are included in this solution.

Thus, the findings showed that pilot participants' attitudes were consistent across all areas, including English varieties as well as English and its learning and teaching. Additionally, global and traditional orientations were addressed clearly. Overall, the piloted statistical analysis yielded the factors of the learners' attitudes successfully. This gave the researcher confidence in moving forward to prepare for the data collection in Japan. Nevertheless, although the results of the statistical analysis corresponded with the GELT framework, it failed to investigate the attitudinal factors in detail, such as attitudes towards target interlocutors and language norms. This might have been attributed to the limitations of this pilot study. The sample size was not sufficient for multidimensional scales constructed out of the 57-questionnaire item pool. According to the rule of thumb, minimum sample sizes in absolute numbers (N) were that any $N > 200$ offered adequate statistical power for data analysis (Hoe, 2008; Singh *et al*., 2016). The same N was also proposed by Comrey (1988) as generally adequate for a measure having up to 40 items. A minimum sample size of 300 respondents also was suggested (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013). Additionally, the sample could be quite different from the target (Japanese) population, although the sample met the criteria proposed above and was considered as close to the Japanese population. Thus, in order to see the possibility of the effect of context differences on attitudes, independent-samples t-tests were conducted.

(d) Independent-samples t-tests (Attitude measure)

Independent-samples t-tests were run to determine if there were differences in attitudes (responses to the global orientation items and the traditional orientation items) between different nationality populations (Thailand and South Korea). This would help determine whether the preliminary version of the attitudinal questionnaire should be piloted with the Japanese population. If significant differences in attitudes between different nationality

populations are found, there is a possibility that the Japanese population may have different attitudes compared to the other nationality populations. The global and traditional orientation item scores for each group were normally distributed as assessed by the Shapiro-Wilk test ($p > .05$; the global orientation items: Thailand $p = .09$, Korea $p = .97$; the traditional orientation items: Thailand $p = .19$, Korea $p = .18$). Homogeneity of variance was not violated, as assessed by Levene's test for equality of variances ($p > .05$; Global orientations $p = .32$; Traditional orientations $p = .08$).

On average, the participants in Thailand rated the global orientation items higher than participants in Korea. This difference was significant ($p < .001$); moreover, it represented a large-sized effect $r = .54$ according to Cohen's (1988) criteria. The participants in Thailand also rated the traditional orientation items higher than participants in Korea. However, this difference was not significant ($p > .05$). The results were not definitive due to the lack of detailed information about the participants, such as university types and locations, study majors, and year of study (which were collected in the main study). Yet, taking into consideration the relatively small sample size and significant difference in the global orientations between the two different Expanding Circle contexts, the preliminary version of the GEO-Q was piloted again with a sufficient number of the Japanese population. The results of the t-tests are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3
Results of t-tests and descriptive statistics: Global orientations and Traditional orientations by nationality (Thailand and Korea)

Orientations	Group						95% CI for Mean Difference	*t*	*df*
	Thailand			Korea					
	M	*SD*	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*N*			
Global orientations	.51	.74	94	-.40	.67	90	-1.12, -.71	-8.74	182
Traditional orientations	.01	.99	94	-.01	.81	90	-.29, .24	-.16	182

APPENDIX F: Piloting with Japanese learners (Descriptive statistics)

Piloting with Japanese learners: Descriptive statistics (Attitude measure)

Items	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Q50_It will be useful for me to have both my native/first language and English in the future.	4.94	1.15	-1.39	2.16
Q26_Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.	4.74	1.11	-1.13	1.74
Q34_Exposure to different English varieties in an English class is important to improve my English.	4.60	1.14	-0.82	0.67
Q25_The true owners of English are everyone who uses English.	4.55	1.47	-0.99	0.15
Q5_The good English teacher provides opportunities for learners to learn about different English varieties.	4.47	1.15	-0.63	0.42
Q51_English language programs should provide students with opportunities to practise the language with speakers from different language backgrounds, both in school and beyond.	4.45	1.13	-0.71	0.94
*Q45_Classes should teach students how to communicate correctly, rather than focusing on language accuracy.	4.42	1.07	-0.57	0.70
*Q27_Learners should master their first/native language(s), before learning English.	4.40	1.36	-0.68	-0.19
Q47_Awareness of different English varieties will enable me to learn about a greater range of English speakers.	4.38	1.11	-0.61	0.64
Q52_It is important to speak other languages in addition to English.	4.35	1.20	-0.53	0.01
Q22_Learning the culture of native English-speaking countries improves my English.	4.20	1.09	-0.34	0.03
*Q49_Using English with non-native speakers is a good practice.	4.19	1.11	-0.37	0.25
*Q46_As long as it is understood, incorrect English is acceptable.	4.19	1.18	-0.32	-0.21
*Q24_English is owned by both first and second users of the language.	4.17	1.47	-0.56	-0.56
*Q36_Being a native speaker is not an important characteristic of a good English teacher.	4.15	1.28	-0.59	0.06
*Q39_Studying different varieties of English is more beneficial than studying one type of English.	4.14	1.23	-0.41	0.01
Q57_My native/first language is a useful resource for learning English.	4.11	1.39	-0.56	-0.30
*Q29_Tests of English should focus on how well a learner can communicate, rather than on how accurate their language is.	4.06	1.21	-0.36	-0.11
*Q7_When I think of an English speaker, I imagine a speaker from a native English-speaking country.	4.06	1.40	-0.55	-0.53
*Q6_Interacting with monolingual speakers of English is more helpful than interacting with multilingual speakers of English.	4.04	1.17	-0.20	-0.16
*Q16_Making friends with multilingual speakers helps to improve my English more than making friends with monolingual speakers.	3.97	1.23	-0.24	-0.30
*Q21_Correct English grammar is required for successful communication.	3.89	1.23	-0.38	-0.21
*Q10_I wish English were my native/first language.	3.82	1.64	-0.27	-1.08
Q33_Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures.	3.81	1.19	-0.33	-0.05
Q43_I am learning English because I want to communicate with native speakers of English.	3.77	1.45	-0.21	-0.85
*Q2_A fluent second language speaker of English speaks with a native accent.	3.77	1.32	-0.23	-0.59
*Q48_Commonly used English grammar should appear in textbooks, even if it is grammatically incorrect.	3.76	1.30	-0.23	-0.43
*Q44_Learning American or British English provides better educational and professional opportunities than learning other varieties of English.	3.73	1.26	-0.15	-0.37
*Q37_It is more important for teachers to have clear pronunciation than a native-like accent.	3.72	1.16	-0.11	-0.25
*Q23_Class materials should include speakers who have a range of accents in English.	3.67	1.29	-0.12	-0.44

Piloting with Japanese learners: Descriptive statistics (Attitude measure) (Continued)

Items	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
*Q28_Interacting with native speakers helps to improve my English more than interacting with other learners of English.	3.65	1.16	-0.06	-0.18
*Q8_Clear pronunciation is more important than a native-like accent.	3.64	1.24	0.10	-0.48
*Q19_I would like to use English to live/study/work in a multilingual community.	3.59	1.35	-0.15	-0.60
Q41_I am learning English because I want to know about various English-speaking communities.	3.57	1.39	-0.09	-0.72
*Q53_When speaking English with a multilingual speaker, I prefer to use only English.	3.41	1.18	0.22	-0.16
Q40_The role of the teacher is to help students develop native-like proficiency.	3.41	1.20	0.07	-0.19
Q32_Good English language instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English.	3.35	1.22	-0.03	-0.19
*Q13_I would like to use English to live/study/work in an English-only community.	3.31	1.49	0.10	-0.86
Q15_I am learning English because I want to communicate with non-native speakers of English.	3.31	1.38	0.12	-0.71
Q1_I am learning English because I want to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.	3.28	1.36	0.05	-0.70
Q42_English is one of my languages.	3.26	1.48	0.17	-0.83
Q31_The goal of learning the English language is to speak with a native-like accent.	3.19	1.26	0.19	-0.45
*Q14_A fluent second language speaker of English doesn't need to mimic a native accent.	3.19	1.24	0.29	-0.27
Q55_Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English conversation classes.	3.09	1.29	0.20	-0.38
Q30_English varieties such as British and American English are more correct than English varieties such as Indian or Singaporean English.	3.06	1.32	0.19	-0.54
*Q54_People in native English-speaking countries speak correct English.	3.01	1.19	0.40	-0.14
*Q17_I prefer to mix English with other languages when possible.	2.99	1.24	0.30	-0.35
Q35_Class time should be devoted to learning the language system (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling and syntax) of standard varieties of English only.	2.96	1.33	0.41	-0.38
*Q3_There is no difference between fluent speakers of English and native speakers of English.	2.90	1.26	0.56	-0.10
*Q18_Native speakers of English are the best teachers of English.	2.88	1.27	0.45	-0.23
Q20_Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English language classes.	2.87	1.28	0.31	-0.47
*Q12_I want to sound more like a native speaker than a fluent second language speaker of English.	2.87	1.34	0.56	-0.20
Q56_Non-native spoken English is inferior to native spoken English.	2.75	1.29	0.40	-0.37
Q38_There is little benefit for students who have mastered American or British English to learn more about (or be made aware of) other varieties of English.	2.60	1.22	0.55	0.01
*Q11_The true owners of English are from England.	2.11	1.28	1.12	0.67
*Q9_It is better to not say anything in the language until I can say it correctly.	2.08	1.13	1.03	0.79
*Q4_The true owners of English are from America.	1.87	1.19	1.66	2.51

*Items deleted using EFA

APPENDIX G: The final Japanese version of the Global Englishes Orientation Questionnaire (English & Japanese)

The final Japanese version of the Global Englishes Orientation Questionnaire (English)

英語に対する態度に関する調査 English version

Page 1: 英語に対する態度に関する調査

Global Englishes Orientation Questionnaire

Hello! I am Natsuno Funada, a researcher at the Department of Education, University of Oxford. I am interested in your attitudes to the use of English around the world, and we are inviting you to participate in our study, which aims to explore attitudes of university students in Japan.

You are invited to participate in this study because your institution has agreed to help with our research. All university students in Japan have been invited to participate, but your participation is voluntary.

If you agree to be in the study, you will be invited to complete a questionnaire about your attitudes towards learning English. This will take a maximum of 20 minutes to complete and your answers will be kept a secret. You can access the questionnaire on the next page, via the link below.

Participating in the study will have no effect on your course or marks. All the information you provide will be kept on a secure, password-controlled computer. The questionnaire is anonymous, which means the researchers will not record your name or any personal information.

This project has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the University of Oxford Central University Research Ethics Committee.

If you have any questions, please contact us by e-mail: natsuno.funada@education.ox.ac.uk

Page 2: Your opinions on learning and using English

Please indicate to what extent you agree with each of these statements by using the following scale. 1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Somewhat Disagree 4 = Somewhat Agree 5 = Agree 6 = Strongly Agree

	1 = Strongly Disagree 2 = Disagree 3 = Somewhat Disagree 4 = Somewhat Agree 5 = Agree 6 = Strongly Agree					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. My native/first language is a useful resource for learning English.	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. I am learning English because I want to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. The goal of learning the English language is to speak with a native-like accent.	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. The good English teacher provides opportunities for learners to learn about different English varieties.	○	○	○	○	○	○
5. I am learning English because I want to communicate with native speakers of English.	○	○	○	○	○	○
6. Awareness of different English varieties will enable me to learn about a greater range of English speakers.	○	○	○	○	○	○
7. In terms of grammar and pronunciation, English varieties such as British and American English are more correct than English varieties such as Indian and Singaporean English.	○	○	○	○	○	○
8. English is owned by not only users of English as their native/first language but also everyone who uses English.		○	○	○	○	○
9. Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
10. Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.	○	○	○	○	○	○
11. Good English language instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English.	○	○	○	○	○	○
12. Exposure to different English varieties in an English class is important to improve my English.	○	○	○	○	○	○
13. Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures.	○	○	○	○	○	○
14. Class time should be devoted to learning the language system (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling and syntax) of standard varieties of English only.	○	○	○	○	○	○
15. There is little benefit for students who have mastered American or British English to learn more about (or be made aware of) other varieties of English.	○	○	○	○	○	○
16. English is one of my languages I can use.	○	○	○	○	○	○
17. English language programs should provide students with opportunities to practice the language with speakers from different language backgrounds, both in school and beyond.	○	○	○	○	○	○
18. I am learning English because I want to know about various English-speaking communities.	○	○	○	○	○	○
19. Non-native spoken English is inferior to native spoken English.	○	○	○	○	○	○
20. It will be useful for me to have both my native/first language and English in the future.	○	○	○	○	○	○
21. Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English conversation classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
22. I am learning English because I want to communicate with non-native speakers of English.	○	○	○	○	○	○
23. The role of the teacher is to help students develop native-like proficiency.	○	○	○	○	○	○
24. It is important to speak other languages in addition to English.	○	○	○	○	○	○
25. Learning the culture of native English-speaking countries improves my English.	○	○	○	○	○	○

Page 3: Your language experiences

Think about your current and past experiences in using English. Consider how you use English with your friends, teachers, classmates and other people in your life. Are these statement true of how you use English, or are they untrue (incorrect) of you?

	1 = this is very untrue of me 2 = this is untrue of me 3 = this is somewhat untrue of me 4 = this is somewhat true of me 5 = this is true of me 6 = this is very true of me					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. I often listen/listened to native-speaker English[songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] in listening/speaking classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. I often listen/listened to native-speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] outside the classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. I often have/had conversations in English with native English-speakers in listening/speaking classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. I often have/had conversations in English with native English-speakers outside the classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
5. I often listen/listened to English[songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] spoken by Japanese speakers in listening/speaking classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
6. I often listen/listened to English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] spoken by Japanese speakers outside the classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
7. I often have/had conversations in English with Japanese speakers in listening/speaking classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
8. I often have/had conversations in English with Japanese speakers outside the classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
9. I often listen/listened to non-native (other than Japanese speakers) speaker English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] in listening/speaking classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
10. I often listen/listened to non-native speaker (other than Japanese speakers) English [songs/movies/radio programmes/TV/podcasts/online videos/other people's conversations in English] outside the classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
11. I often have/had conversations in English with non-native English-speakers other than Japanese speakers in listening/speaking classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○
12. I often have/had conversations in English with non-native English-speakers other than Japanese speakers outside the classes.	○	○	○	○	○	○

How long have you studied English?

Have you ever been to foreign countries for the purpose of learning English? 1 = Yes/ 2 = No

	Where did you go?	How long did you stay?	day(s); week(s); month(s); year(s)	What year did you come back to Japan?
experience 1	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
experience 2	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
experience 3	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
experience 4	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
experience 5	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select

If so, answer the questions below (with your longest experience first):

Other than the experience mentioned in Question 4, have you ever lived in foreign countries longer than one month? 1 = Yes / 2 = No

If so, answer the questions below (with your longest experience first):

	Where did you go?	The purpose of your visit	How long did you stay?	month(s); year(s)	What year did you come back to Japan?
experience 1	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
experience 2	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
experience 3	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
experience 4	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
experience 5	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select

How many foreign countries have you visited in your life?

Where did you mainly learn English?

Page 4: About you

What is the name of your university?

Degree level

Year of study

Major

Are you…?: 1 = Male / 2 = Female / 3 = Others

How old are you?

What is your nationality?: 1 = Japanese / 2 = Others

What is/are your native language(s)?: 1 = Japanese only / 2 = Others

Page 5: What English language tests did you take within the past 5 years?

TOEIC Total Score

EIKEN Grade

TOEFL Total Score

IELTS Total Score

Page 6: About a group interview

You are invited to participate in a follow-up group interview (online) to ask you a bit more about your attitudes to the use of English around the world, but your participation is voluntary.

If you agree to be in the study, you will be invited to attend an online group interview about your attitudes towards learning English via email. This will take a maximum of 90 minutes to share your ideas and your answers will be kept a secret.

Participating in the study will have no effect on your course or marks. All the information you provide will be kept on a secure, password-controlled computer. The interview is anonymous, which means the researchers will not record your name or any personal information except e-mail address.

Would you like to take part in a group interview? 1 = Yes / 2 = No

If so, please write your email address below.

Page 7: Thank you for completing this questionnaire!

I would like to thank you very much for helping us.

Your answers will help me to understand more about people's attitudes towards using English as a global language. I really appreciate your help!

Your answers were transmitted, you may close the browser window or tab now.

英語に対する態度に関する調査 Japanese version

Page 1: 英語に対する態度に関する調査

英語に対する態度に関する調査

これは日本の大学の学生のみなさんの英語に対する態度を調査するものです。所要時間は約20分です。

この調査はオックスフォード大学大学院教育学研究科の学生、船田 なつのが行います。

調査への参加は自由です。途中辞退や参加の有無は成績には全く影響はありません。

個人情報を含む収集データは調査員が安全に回収し分析目的のためだけに使用され、その記録は安全な場所に保管されます。

調査は学術雑誌等に掲載及び学会で発表される場合がありますが、個人情報が公開されることはありません。

この調査は the University of Oxford Central University Research Ethics Committeeに評価を受けています。

ご連絡の際は natsuno.funada@education.ox.ac.ukにお願い致します。

以上の説明をよく読み、調査に参加していただける場合、次のページからはじまるアンケートにご回答ください。

Page 2: 英語学習及び使用について（少し時間がかかるかもしれませんが、率直な意見を聞かせてもらえると大変助かります。正解・不正解はありません。英語教育改善のため、ご協力どうかよろしくお願いします。）

以下の文(Q1~Q25)にと　の程度同意するか、1から6のと　れか一つを選んでください。*携帯をご使用の場合は、上記の'This part of the survey uses a table of questions, view as separate questions instead?'をクリックしてください。よりアンケートに回答しやすくなります。元に戻す場合は再度クリックしてください。

1 = 全くそう思わない 2 = そう思わない 3 = あまりそう思わない 4 = 少しそう思う 5 = そう思う 6 = 非常にそう思う

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. 自分の母語(第一言語)は、英語を学ぶために役立つリソースだ。	○	○	○	○	○	○
2. 他の文化のグループ活動にもっと自由に参加したいので、英語を学んでいる。	○	○	○	○	○	○
3. 英語学習の目標は、ネイティブのようなアクセントで話すことだ。	○	○	○	○	○	○
4. 優秀な英語の教師は、学習者に世界中で話されている様々な英語について学ぶ機会を与える。	○	○	○	○	○	○
5. 英語のネイティブスピーカーとコミュニケーションしたいので、英語を学んでいる。	○	○	○	○	○	○
6. 世界中で話されている様々な英語を知っていることで、それを話す世界中の様々な英語話者について学ぶことができる。	○	○	○	○	○	○
7. イギリス英語やアメリカ英語等の発音や文法は、インド英語やシンガポール英語等の英語の発音や文法より正しい。	○	○	○	○	○	○
8. 英語は英語圏の人々だけのものではなく、英語を使う全ての人のものだ。	○	○	○	○	○	○
9. 英語の授業では、文法的に正しい英語のみ教えられるほうが良い。	○	○	○	○	○	○
10. 世界中で話されている様々な英語を知っていると、良い仕事に就くのに役立つ。	○	○	○	○	○	○
11. 優秀なリスニングやスピーキングの指導は、学生をアメリカ英語やイギリス英語が使えるようにすることに重点を置く。	○	○	○	○	○	○
12. リスニングやスピーキングの授業で世界中で話されている様々な英語に触れることは、自分の英語力を上達させるのに重要だ。	○	○	○	○	○	○
13. 優秀な英語の教師は、学生にネイティブの英語が話されている国々や地域の文化を紹介する。	○	○	○	○	○	○
14. 授業時間は、標準英語の言語体系(発音、語彙、文法、スペル、構文)を学ぶためだけに当てられるほうが良い。	○	○	○	○	○	○
15. アメリカ英語またはイギリス英語を十分に習得した学生にとって、その他の英語を学ぶ(知っている)ことはあまりためにならない。	○	○	○	○	○	○
16. 英語は自分の使える言語の一つだ。	○	○	○	○	○	○
17. 英語のプログラムは、学生に学校内外で世界中の様々な英語話者と英語を練習する機会を与えたほうが良い。	○	○	○	○	○	○
18. 様々な世界中の、英語が話されているコミュニティーについて知りたいので英語を学んでいる。	○	○	○	○	○	○
19. ネイティブの英語より、それ(ネイティブ)以外の英語のほうが劣っている。	○	○	○	○	○	○
20. 自分の母語(第一言語)と英語両方身についていると、将来役立つ。	○	○	○	○	○	○
21. 英会話の授業では、文法的に正しい英語のみ教えられたほうが良い。	○	○	○	○	○	○
22. 英語のネイティブスピーカーではない人々とコミュニケーションをとりたいので、英語を学んでいる。	○	○	○	○	○	○
23. 教師の役割は、学生がネイティブのような英語力を身につけるのを助けることだ。	○	○	○	○	○	○
24. 英語に加えて他の言語を話すことは、重要だ。	○	○	○	○	○	○
25. ネイティブの英語を話す国々の文化を学ぶことは、自分の英語力を上達させる。	○	○	○	○	○	○

Page 3: これまでの英語学習及び使用について（こちらもよろしくお願いします。次のページからは皆さんの所属等を聞く簡単なものになります。）

これまでの英語使用及び学習経験をもとに、皆さんが英語の授業内・外でネイティブスピーカーの英語、日本人の英語及びそれ (英語のネイティブスピーカー及び日本人)以外の英語 にどのくらい触れたかを調査しています。以下の文(Q1–Q12)がどの程度自分に当てはまるか1から6のどれか一つを選んでください。

	1 = 全く当てはまらない 2 =当てはまらない 3 = あまり当てはまらない 4 = 少し当てはまる 5 = 当てはまる 6 = 非常に当てはまる					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
1. 英語の授業 (特にリスニングやスピーキング) で、ネイティブスピーカーの話す英語を【例：教科書の付属教材/歌/映画/ラジオ/テレビ/ポッドキャスト/インターネット動画/他の人々の英語での会話で】よく聴く/聴いた。						
2. 授業外で、ネイティブスピーカーの話す英語を【例：教科書の付属教材/歌/映画/ラジオ/テレビ/ポッドキャスト/インターネット動画/他の人々の英語での会話で】よく聴く/聴いた。						
3. 英語の授業 (特にリスニングやスピーキング) で、ネイティブスピーカーと英語でよく会話する/会話した。						
4. 授業外で、ネイティブスピーカーと英語でよく会話する/会話した。						
5. 英語の授業 (特にリスニングやスピーキング) で、日本人の話す英語を【例：教科書の付属教材/歌/映画/ラジオ/テレビ/ポッドキャスト/インターネット動画/他の人々の英語での会話で】よく聴く/聴いた。						
6. 授業外で、日本人の話す英語を【例：教科書の付属教材/歌/映画/ラジオ/テレビ/ポッドキャスト/インターネット動画/他の人々の英語での会話で】よく聴く/聴いた。						
7. 英語の授業 (特にリスニングやスピーキング) で、日本人と英語でよく会話する/会話した。						
8. 授業外で、日本人と英語でよく会話する/会話した。						
9. 英語の授業 (特にリスニングやスピーキング) で、上記以外 (英語のネイティブスピーカー及び日本人以外) の話す英語を【例 :教科書の付属教材/歌/映画/ラジオ/テレビ/ポッドキャスト/インターネット動画/他の人々の英語での会話で】よく聴く/聴いた。						
10. 授業外で、上記以外 (英語のネイティブスピーカー及び日本人以外) の話す英語を【例：教科書の付属教材/歌/映画/ラジオ/テレビ/ポッドキャスト/インターネット動画/他の人々の英語での会話で】よく聴く/聴いた。						
11. 英語の授業 (特にリスニングやスピーキング) で、上記以外 (英語のネイティブスピーカー及び日本人以外) と英語でよく会話する/会話した。						
12. 授業外で、上記以外 (英語のネイティブスピーカー及び日本人以外) と英語でよく会話する/会話した。						

これまで英語を何年勉強しましたか。

これまで英語力の向上の目的を含めて海外留学をした事がありますか？1 = はい / 2 = いいえ

1＝はい と答えた場合、留学期間が長い順に以下の質問に答えてください。

	どこに行きましたか？	どのくらい滞在しましたか。	日、週間、月、年の期間の単位をつけて答えてください。	帰国したのはいつですか？
経験1	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
経験2	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
経験3	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
経験4	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
経験5	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select

上記以外でこれまで海外に一ヶ月以上滞在したことがありますか？ 1＝はい / 2＝いいえ

1＝はい と答えた場合、滞在期間が長い順に以下の質問に答えてください。

	どこに行きましたか？	滞在目的は？	どのくらい滞在しましたか。	月、年の期間の単位をつけて答えてください。	帰国したのはいつですか？
経験1	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
経験2	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
経験3	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
経験4	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select
経験5	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select	Please select

これまで合計で何カ国に行ったことがありますか（日本を除く）？

主に(一番)自身の英語習得に影響しているのは、*上記選択肢1~14のうちどれですか？

Page 4: あなたに関する質問 (質問はあと２ページです！)

大学名 (日本語でご記入願います。)

課程

学年

学部・学科の分類: 1 = 人文科学 例)文学、語学、歴史学、地理学、心理学、哲学、文化学 / 2 = 社会科学 例)法律学、政治学、国際関係学、経済学、商学、社会学 / 3 = 自然科学 例)数学、物理学、化学、生物学、地学、機械工学、電気・電子工学、情報工学、建築学・土木工学、材料工学・資源工学、航空・宇宙工学、 医学、歯学、薬学、看護学・保健衛生学、農学、獣医・畜産学 / 4 = 総合 例)教育学、人間科学、スポーツ科学、環境学、情報学、福祉学、家政学・生活科学、芸術学、教養学/ 5 = その他

性別: 1 = 男 / 2 = 女 / 3 = 回答しない

年齢

国籍: 1 = 日本 / 2 = それ以外

母語: 1 = 日本語のみ / 2 = それ以外

Page 5: 過去5年以内受けた英語のテストに関して (質問は次のページで最後です！)

過去5年以内受けた英語のテストに関して、下記にご記入ください。

TOEIC Listening & Reading 合計スコア (過去5年以内に一度も受けていない場合 = 0)

英検級: 1 = 英検1級 / 2 = 英検準1級 / 3 = 英検2級 / 4 = 英検準2級 / 5 = 英検3級 / 6 = 英検4級 / 7 = 英検5級 / 0 = 過去５年以内に一度も受けていない

TOEFL合計スコア (過去5年以内に一度も受けていない場合 = 0)

IELTS合計スコア (過去5年以内に一度も受けていない場合 = 0)

Page 6: オンライングループインタビュー参加に関して

今回のグループインタビューは、英語に関する話題に対する皆さんの率直な思いを共有していただくもので、所要時間は約60分~90分で、日本語で行われます。事前知識は全く必要なく、どなたでもご参加いただけます。

インタビューはオンラインで、私が行い、スケジュールが決まり次第、リンクをお送りするので所定の時間にリンクにアクセスしていただき、ご参加いただくものです。大体1グループ3~4名くらいを考えていますので、1人で常に話さなければならないということはありませんのでご安心ください。インターネットに接続可能な環境にであればどこにいてもご参加いただけます！

時間は可能な限り調整しますので、是非ご協力いただけると大変助かります。英語に特に興味がない方でも気軽にご参加いただけます。カジュアルな雰囲気で楽しくできるよう頑張りますので、調査への参加は自由ですが、ご協力どうかよろしくお願いします m(_ _)m

英語に関する態度についてのオンライングループインタビューに参加していただけますか。1 = はい、参加します / 2 = いいえ、参加しません

1 = はい、参加します、ご参加いただける場合、下記によく使うメールアドレスをご記入ください。（学校のメールアドレスでなくても構いません。調査員から後ほどご連絡させていただきますので、ご確認だけお願いします。）

Page 7: アンケートは以上です。

アンケートにご協力いただきありがとうございました☺！

APPENDIX H: Focus group discussion guide (English & Japanese)

Focus Group Discussion Guide (English)

Thank you all very much for participating in this focus group. I understand that it is an extremely busy time of year and I am very grateful.

This study is part of my DPhil study. I will give you a series of quotes and issues I would like you to discuss. There are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. I am interested in your personal opinion about English and English language learning and teaching. Please give your answers sincerely as much as possible, in order to improve the quality of my research, ultimately contributing to current English language education in Japan.

The session will be recorded, because I wish to avoid missing any of your comments. The session will last for approximately ninety minutes. The contents of the discussion are confidential. Information identifying the respondent will not be disclosed under any circumstances.

Please speak as much as you like on each topic and don't be afraid to be honest and disagree with each other.

1. What do you prefer to be called?
2. Please describe your past English language learning experience.
    a. How long have you studied English？
    b. Where have you studied?
    c. If you have studied or travelled abroad, tell me about it.
    d. How do you use English now? And with whom do you use English?

3. Many students use English in different ways and have different ideas about how they will use English and the circumstances in which they will use it. What about you? How will you use English in the future?

4. In Japan, everyone is taught English as part of the curriculum at least once in their life. Many people have different attitudes towards English. How do you perceive the study of English?

5. I have heard that everyone here has been exposed to English. Do you have a role model, especially in terms of listening and speaking English? If so, tell me about it in detail.

6. What aspects of English do you pay attention to when you think of a model of the English language?

7. Have you heard an alternative English to that which you wish to speak? If so, tell me about it.

8. Among the English usage you mentioned, which would you prefer to learn in the classroom?

9. The issues of expecting near-native proficiency have been heavily discussed in previous studies, and it has been suggested that students should not be expected to reach native-level, but to aim for intelligibility; that is, being understood by as many people as possible. Some people say English language learners should aim to sound like a native speaker, but other people say students should retain their own accent if they can be understood. What do you think about this? What is your aim regarding listening and speaking English?

10. Finally, could you tell me your views about current English language education in Japan and how it might be improved?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE DISCUSSION!

この度はフォーカスグループに参加して頂きまして、ありがとうございます。この研究は大学での私の博士課程の研究の一環として行っております。これから質問をさせていただきますが、できればディスカッションの形で行うことができればと思っております。“正しい”や“間違っている”等は全くありません。皆さんの今日の英語に対する態度に関してもう少し皆さんのご意見伺うことができればと思っております。研究の質及び日本の英語教育の向上のため、他の方の意見も参考に、率直な意見を聞かせてもらえるととても嬉しいです。ビデオを撮らせていただきますが、絶対に公開されません。

1. 呼ばれたいお名前をお願いします。

2. 主な英語学習経験をお願いします。

    a. どのくらい英語を勉強していますか。
    b. どこで主に英語を勉強しましたか？
    c. もし海外経験があれば教えていただけますか？
    d. 今どのように英語に触れていますか。

3. 将来英語を使おうと思っていますか。その場合、どのように？

4. 多くの日本人は英語を一生懸命学習していますが、みんなは英語をどのようなものとして捉えていますか？

5. 今知っている英語の種類の中で、リスニング・スピーキングで一番自分がお手本にしたいと思っているものはありますか？その場合、どの英語だと思う？（詳しく教えてもらえると助かります。）

6. それをお手本として英語を学習する際、その英語のどの部分に着目して正しいと判断しますか？

7. その他の英語は聞いたことがありますか？それに関してはどう思う？

8. リスニング・スピーキングの授業で習いたい英語とは？

9. 英語学習者はネイティブ・スピーカーのように話せるようになることを目標にするべきであるとよく言われているが、ある人々はまたもし生徒が理解されうるなら 彼らは彼ら自身の文法、発音等の使い方を保つべきだと言う人もいる。このことについてと皆さんはどう思いますか？ 英語をどのくらい使えるようになりたいですか？

10. 現在の英語教育についてどう思いますか？アドバイスがあるとしたら？

ご参加いただき誠にありがとうございました！

APPENDIX I: The groupings of the data and creating of concepts (focus group data)

Groupings of participants' attitudes in focus group data and creating concepts pertaining to Factor 1

Group	A			B				C			D			E				F			G				H			I		
Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
Situations where the participants thought that they would use English with both native speakers and non-native speakers																														
Business	✓		✓			✓		✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓							
Study abroad					✓					✓												✓								
Travel				✓					✓																					
Media		✓					✓														✓									
Situations where the participants thought that they would not use English with either native speakers or non-native speakers																														
Business (D)																			✓	✓				✓						
TOEIC																										✓		✓	✓	✓
Situations where the participants thought that they would use English with Japanese speakers																														
Teaching																									✓		✓			

Groupings of participants' attitudes in focus group data and creating concepts pertaining to Factor 2

Group	A			B				C			D			E				F			G				H			I		
Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
Exposure to diverse varieties of English																														
Yes	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓			
Openness to diverse varieties of English																														
Sociolinguistic reality			✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓				✓							✓				✓					
Regional influence	✓				✓	✓										✓	✓													
Yardstick											✓				✓			✓	✓	✓		✓		✓			✓			
Just being aware		✓										✓	✓																	
No idea																							✓			✓		✓	✓	✓
Teaching diverse varieties of English in the classroom																														
All levels	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓				✓	✓			✓			✓								✓					
Only tertiary					✓		✓									✓														

Groupings of participants' attitudes in focus group data and creating concepts pertaining to Factor 3

Group	A			B				C			D			E				F			G				H			I		
Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
English as a tool																														
Connecting with people	✓	✓		✓	✓			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓			
Getting access to knowledge											✓		✓																	
Essential			✓			✓	✓	✓							✓	✓	✓												✓	
Subject												✓														✓		✓	✓	✓

Groupings of participants' attitudes in focus group data and creating concepts pertaining to Factor 4

Group	A			B				C			D			E				F			G				H			I		
Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
grammar																														
Important							✓																							
pronunciation																														
Important	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓				✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓			✓	✓		✓	✓	✓
Fluency																														
Important								✓	✓	✓					✓									✓	✓	✓	✓			
Questioning 'correctness'																														
Notion																					✓		✓							
classroom			✓						✓	✓				✓																
Testing				✓															✓											

Groupings of participants' attitudes in focus group data and creating concepts pertaining to Factor 5

Group	A			B				C			D			E				F			G				H			I		
Participants	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30
Aiming to speak native English																														
Advancement	✓	✓	✓			✓					✓	✓	✓		✓		✓								✓		✓	✓	✓	✓
Advantage						✓		✓										✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓						
Comprehensibility	✓	✓				✓	✓							✓		✓	✓							✓		✓				
Embarrassment				✓				✓																						
Varieties not specified					✓												✓		✓	✓				✓		✓				
Criticising			✓	✓	✓	✓					✓						✓				✓	✓								
Teaching native English in the classroom																														
Power																			✓	✓						✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Effectiveness					✓										✓									✓						
Testing													✓			✓	✓					✓								
Origin																		✓					✓			✓		✓	✓	✓
Practicality																				✓	✓									
Questioning													✓									✓	✓							

APPENDIX J: Focus group consent forms (English & Japanese)

Focus Group consent form (English)

UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD
15 Norham Gardens, Oxford OX2 6PY
Tel: +44(0)1865 274024 Fax: +44(0)1865 274027
general.enquiries@education.ox.ac.uk

1. **Study title**

An attitudinal study of English language learners towards English as a global language in a Japanese context.

2. **Background of the study**

The study examines the Japanese university students' attitudes towards varieties of English and factors affecting the attitudes. The research is conducted by the researcher: Natsuno Funada, who is currently a postgraduate student at the University of Oxford.

3. **Why have I been invited to take part?**

You have been invited because you are a student in Japanese tertiary education and because you are learning English as a foreign language.

4. **Do I have to take part?**

You may choose whether or not to participate and, if you agree, you may withdraw from the study and your data from the study without penalty at any time by advising the researcher of this decision. There is no academic penalty for non-participation or withdrawal.

5. **What will happen in the study?**

If you are happy to take part in the study, you will be required to do the following activity:

- A focus group session (90 minutes)

6. Are there any potential risks in taking part?

I will keep the data according to the data protection guidelines and store them in a safe place. The raw, anonymised data will be securely kept in a password-protected data file for three years and then erased.

7. What happens to the research data provided?

I will ensure the security of the data by storing the same storage device. In interviews, a recorder will be used. The data in the recorder will be transferred via my laptop and stored in the device. I will keep a record of storing each data. Participation is confidential. Your identity will not be revealed. In the interview, the researcher will ask participants for their permission to use direct quotes.

8. Will the research be published?

If you agree to participate in this project, the research will be written up as a thesis. On successful submission of the thesis, it will be deposited both in print and online in the University archives, to facilitate its use in future research. The findings may also be used as the basis for published articles in peer-reviewed, open access and restricted access journals.

9. Who has reviewed this project?

The study will be reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, my supervisor and the University of Oxford Central University Research Ethics Committee. After the investigation is complete, you will be notified of the results and feedback and informed if the research is published by the researcher.

10. Whom do I contact if I have a concern about the study or I wish to complain?

If you have a concern about any aspect of this project, please speak to the relevant researcher (+078-49-810-687 and natsuno.funada@education.ox.ac.uk) or supervisor, Dr Heath Rose (+018-65-274-033 and heath.rose@education.ox.ac.uk) who will do his/her best to answer your query. The researcher should acknowledge your concern within 10 working days and give you an indication of how he/she intends to deal with it. If you remain unhappy or wish to make a formal complaint, please contact the chair of the Research Ethics Committee at the University of

Oxford (see the contact details below), who will seek to resolve the matter in a reasonably expeditious manner:

- Chair, Social Sciences & Humanities Inter-Divisional Research Ethics Committee; Email: ethics@socsci.ox.ac.uk; Address: Research Services, University of Oxford, Wellington Square, Oxford OX1 2JD

Please confirm by putting an "X" in the end box that you agree with each of the statements below.

1. I have read the information sheet, have asked questions and received satisfactory answers. ☐
2. I understand that this project has been reviewed by, and received ethics clearance through, the University of Oxford Central University Research Ethics Committee. ☐
3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw myself or my data at any time, without giving any reason, and without any academic penalty. ☐
4. I understand who will have access to the personal data provided. ☐
5. I understand how personal data will be stored. ☐
6. I understand how the research will be written up and published. ☐
7. I understand how to raise concerns or make a complaint. ☐
8. I consent to be recorded. ☐
9. I understand that recordings will be used in research outputs such as academic conferences, journal publications, or research archives. ☐
10. I agree to take part in the study. ☐

Please sign your name in full.

Signature: Date:

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調査内容詳細および同意書

1. 題名

学生の英語への態度に関する調査

2. 調査目的

この調査は最近の日本の大学生の英語への態度を把握しようとするものです。みなさんの英語への関心を高め、今後の日本の大学英語教育に貢献することを目標としています。調査員は船田なつの、オックスフォード教育学部の大学院生です。

3. 参加理由

最近の日本の大学の英語クラスに在籍し、日本語を第一言語とする学生の皆さんを調査の対象としているためです。

4. 参加義務

調査への参加は自由です。もし回答の難しい質問等があれば答えていただく必要はありません。途中辞退や参加の有無は成績には全く影響はありません。

5. 参加内容

参加していただける場合、以下の調査に参加いただきます。

- フォーカスグループ (約 90 分)

6. 調査に伴う危険

個人情報は非公開でで安全な場所に保管されます。

7.個人情報及び収集データの扱いについて

収集データは調査員が安全に回収し分析目的のためだけに使用され、その記録は

安全な場所に保管されます。調査報告にデータを引用する場合には調査員は参加者に許可を求めます。

8.学術雑誌掲載及び学会発表について

調査は学術雑誌等に掲載及び学会で発表される場合がありますが、個人情報が公開されることはありません。

9.調査評価

この調査は調査員の指導教授そして the University of Oxford Central University Research Ethics Committeeにより評価されます。調査終了後、調査員が調査結果を参加者に報告致します。

10.調査に関する質問や問題等の連絡方法

調査に関する質問等がございましたら、調査員(+078-49-810-687 and natsuno.funada@education.ox.ac.uk)に、調査に問題等がございましたら、指導教授Dr Heath Rose (+018-65-274-033 and heath.rose@education.ox.ac.uk)にご連絡ください。質問等を受け取り次第、調査員が10日以内に返信し解決策を提示致します。もし調査員及び指導教授の返答にご不満がございましたら、the Social Sciences & Humanities Inter-Divisional Research Ethics Committee (ethics@socsci.ox.ac.uk)までご連絡ください。

以下の項目に同意する場合、右のボックスにチェックを願います。

1. 調査に関する書類を読み、質問をして満足する回答を得ることができた。 ☐
2. 調査内容を理解している。 ☐
3. 参加は自らの意思であり、データに関する権利を有し、参加は成績等に影響はないことを理解している。 ☐
4. 個人情報開示に関する扱いを理解している。 ☐
5. 個人情報保管に関する扱いを理解している。 ☐
6. 調査に関する学実雑誌掲載等について理解している。 ☐
7. 調査に関する質問や問題等の連絡方法を理解している。 ☐
8. 調査の際の録音及び録画を了承する。 ☐
9. 調査での収録の調査報告での使用を了承する。 ☐
10. 調査に参加に同意する。 ☐

以下に署名および日付の記入を願います。

署名：　　　　　　　　　　　　　日付：

APPENDIX K: Main study with Japanese learners (Descriptive statistics)

Main study with Japanese learners: Descriptive statistics (Attitude measure)

Items	Mean	*SD*	Skewness	Kurtosis
Q20_It will be useful for me to have both my native/first language and English in the future.	5.25	1.07	-1.80	3.66
Q8_English is owned by not only users of English as their native/first language but also everyone who uses English	5.14	1.10	-1.60	2.84
Q10_Awareness of different English varieties can help me get a good job.	4.71	1.17	-1.01	0.87
Q12_Exposure to different English varieties in English listening and speaking classes is important to improve my English.	4.71	1.11	-0.88	0.74
Q17_English language programs should provide students with opportunities to practise the language with speakers from different language backgrounds.	4.70	1.10	-0.83	0.80
Q24_It is important to speak other languages in addition to English.	4.57	1.21	-0.67	0.09
Q25_Learning the culture of native English-speaking countries improves my English.	4.49	1.17	-0.66	0.36
Q5_I am learning English because I want to communicate with native speakers of English.	4.28	1.38	-0.56	-0.43
Q13_Good English teachers introduce students to native English-speaking cultures.	4.27	1.20	-0.52	0.01
Q6_Awareness of different English varieties will enable me to learn about a greater range of English speakers.	4.23	1.21	-0.52	0.02
Q4_The good English teacher provides opportunities for learners to learn about different English varieties.	4.08	1.22	-0.53	-0.02
Q3_The goal of learning the English language is to speak with a native-like accent.	3.99	1.36	-0.31	-0.63
Q11_Good English listening and speaking instruction focuses on preparing students to use American/British English.	3.93	1.18	-0.38	-0.17
Q22_I am learning English because I want to communicate with non-native speakers of English.	3.90	1.31	-0.23	-0.54
Q18_I am learning English because I want to know about various English-speaking communities.	3.86	1.35	-0.21	-0.69
*Q1_My native/first language is a useful resource for learning English.	3.84	1.52	-0.22	-0.98
Q2_I am learning English because I want to participate more freely in the activities of other cultural groups.	3.83	1.32	-0.26	-0.61
Q23_The role of the teacher is to help students develop native-like proficiency.	3.81	1.19	-0.20	-0.23
Q16_English is one of my languages.	3.54	1.40	-0.12	-0.66
Q7_In terms of grammar and pronunciation, English varieties such as British and American English are more correct than English varieties such as Indian or Singaporean English.	3.45	1.42	-0.06	-0.76
Q9_Correct English grammar is required for successful communication.	2.96	1.30	0.31	-0.52
Q21_Only grammatically correct English should be taught in English conversation classes.	2.90	1.27	0.36	-0.39
Q19_Non-native spoken English is inferior to native spoken English.	2.89	1.36	0.30	-0.62
Q14_Class time should be devoted to learning the language system (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, spelling and syntax) of standard varieties of English only.	2.73	1.24	0.46	-0.26
Q15_There is little benefit for students who have mastered American or British English to learn more about (or be made aware of) other varieties of English.	2.59	1.21	0.57	-0.05

*Items deleted using EFA