



Telecollaboration In Japanese Among Spanish And Finnish Students: Its Potential For Motivation And Mediation

Kyoko Ito-Morales¹ , Rie Fuse² 

Article History:

Received: 17-12-2024

Revision: 26-02-2025

Accepted: 07-03-2025

Publication: 21-03-2025

Cite this article as:

Ito-Morales, K., & Fuse, R. (2025). Telecollaboration In Japanese Among Spanish And Finnish Students: Its Potential For Motivation And Mediation. *Journal of Intercultural Communication*, 25(1), 107-120. doi.org/10.36923/jicc.v25i1.1055

©2025 by author(s). This is an open-access article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License 4.0 International License.

Corresponding Author:

Rie Fuse

Department of Languages,
University of Helsinki, Finland.
Email: rie.fuse@helsinki.fi

Abstract: The practice of telecollaboration has gained traction since the early 2000s as a means of facilitating intercultural communication across distant locations. However, its potential to enhance learning motivation and the acquisition of intercultural mediation competence remains underexplored. This study investigated the motivational components influenced by telecollaboration and examined the potential of lingua franca telecollaboration to foster mediation competence, as outlined in the CEFR Companion Volume. We conducted mixed-method analyses on data from a case study of telecollaboration in 2022 between Spanish and Finnish university students studying Japanese as a foreign language. The results from a t-test using an ARCS six-item questionnaire confirmed a significant increase in students' sense of challenge and a decline in their self-confidence, while changes in other motivational factors were not statistically significant. Furthermore, text analysis and an in-depth descriptive analysis of students' reflection comments revealed that the decrease in self-confidence was caused by differences in language proficiency levels. Additionally, the findings suggest that telecollaboration among students with varying language proficiency levels may facilitate the development and practice of mediation competence, contributing to the co-construction of meaning among intercultural speakers. Thus, the study provides new insights into the central role of self-confidence in motivation and suggests that telecollaboration among students with different language levels is an effective activity for training intercultural mediation strategies.

Keywords: Telecollaboration, Motivation, Lingua Franca, CEFR Companion Volume, Mediation, Japanese language

1. Introduction

Since the beginning of the 21st century, the use of computer technology in foreign language classrooms has developed at a remarkable speed. In particular, the experience of the COVID-19 pandemic has accelerated the shift from physical classroom spaces to online environments (Caudill, 2022). One of the unexpected legacies of the pandemic is our enhanced ability to communicate and connect with individual students in distant locations. Such telecollaboration offers significant benefits for foreign language and cultural learning, as it enables intercultural communication without requiring physical travel.

Telecollaboration has thus become well-known for its effectiveness in language and cultural learning (Godwin-Jones, 2019). It utilizes information and communication technology (ICT) tools in language classes to facilitate communication among distant parties in pursuit of foreign-language and intercultural competence (Guth & Helm, 2010; O'Dowd, 2013). Nevertheless, despite the attention telecollaboration has garnered, studies on motivation in telecollaboration remain rare, necessitating further research (Nishio & Nakatsugawa, 2020). Furthermore, motivation is a complex aspect of human behavior that involves various components (Keller, 2010). As a result, numerous approaches exist within different motivational theories; however, studies examining motivation from a holistic perspective are essential (Keller, 2010). In this sense, Keller's ARCS model (1987, 2010) is useful for analyzing the various aspects of motivation. Despite the rapid development of ICT tools in language education, the role of the 21st-century language teacher remains that of providing inspiring and motivating language experiences (Palmer, 2005). For this reason, it is appropriate to study the influence of telecollaboration on various components of motivation.

Rapid globalization requires language students to develop intercultural communication abilities. As emphasized particularly in the *Common European Framework of Reference Companion Volume* (hereafter, CEFR-CV) (Council of Europe, 2020), globalization has led to a shift in the aims of language education—from the “ideal native speaker” model to the use of languages as a lingua franca, thereby promoting greater intercultural communication (Godwin-Jones, 2019; North, 2022). While studies on lingua franca telecollaboration exist, the overwhelming major-

¹ Department of General Linguistics and Theory of Literature, University of Granada, Spain

² Department of Languages, University of Helsinki, Finland

-rity of research focuses on frequently taught languages, such as English and Spanish. Thus, further research is needed (Godwin-Jones, 2019). Moreover, studies on the role of telecollaboration in promoting intercultural communication do not sufficiently explore the processes and challenges involved in developing intercultural and cultural mediation skills.

This study aims to address the gaps in research on lingua franca telecollaboration and its impact on motivation. Additionally, it seeks to investigate the unexplored potential of telecollaboration, paying particular attention to the development of intercultural communication mediation competence, as highlighted in the CEFR-CV. To achieve this, we examine the experience of telecollaboration between a Spanish and a Finnish university, where Japanese is used as a lingua franca. The objective is to determine whether telecollaboration serves as a motivational activity for learners of Japanese. Furthermore, we investigate the potential of telecollaboration to foster language learners' intercultural and mediation competence. Our research questions (RQs) are as follows: Which motivational factors does lingua franca telecollaboration affect? Which motivational factors does lingua franca telecollaboration not affect? What is the future potential of telecollaboration to foster the intercultural mediation competence of 21st-century language learners?

2. Literature Review

This literature review is structured around the key issues addressed in this study: telecollaboration, motivation, and mediation within telecollaboration, as well as Japanese as a lingua franca. In the following section, we present an extensive review of prior research in these areas.

2.1. Telecollaboration

Telecollaboration is generally understood as a virtual intercultural exchange between people from different countries and cultures, aimed at developing linguistic competence and intercultural awareness (Godwin-Jones, 2019). An increasing number of studies have investigated the effectiveness of telecollaboration and proposed best practices in the foreign language classroom, with a particular focus on linguistic features such as meaning negotiation, peer corrections, and negotiation (e.g., Akiyama, 2017; Canals, 2022), sociocultural norms (e.g., Jin, 2013), and the use of multimodality (e.g., Cappellini et al., 2022). Another common focus of telecollaboration studies is intercultural competence, which is often developed and strengthened by exploring social, historical, religious, or ideological issues through collaborative tasks that encourage exchanges and intercultural dialogues (Godwin-Jones, 2019; O'Dowd, 2013). Some recent examples include Luo and Yang (2022), Toscu and Erten (2020), and Üzümlü et al. (2020). Since the 2010s, some research has been conducted on lingua franca virtual exchanges; however, most studies focus on English as a lingua franca (Godwin-Jones, 2019; Guth & Helm, 2012).

Stockwell (2010) divides telecollaboration into two main areas: synchronous computer-mediated communication (SCMC) and asynchronous computer-mediated communication (ACMC). SCMC, such as chat, audio conferencing, and videoconferencing, offers a greater range of output than ACMC (Stockwell, 2010), providing opportunities for more playful language use, especially in intercultural communication (Collentine, 2009), and fostering more collaboration and decision-making in group and community building (Branon & Essex, 2001). This is despite the fast response times required in synchronous communication, which can sometimes be mitigated by the multimodal use of ICT (Hampel & Hauck, 2004). On the other hand, ACMC, which includes email, blogs, and mailing lists, allows learners more time for reflection, information gathering, and deeper cognitive processing. Nevertheless, while text-based ACMC telecollaboration has its merits, such as fostering linguistic reflection and awareness of writing development, it can be a rather impersonal form of interaction. Consequently, live oral communication contributes more to building personal relationships and trust (Godwin-Jones, 2019; The EVALUATE Group, 2019). In fact, succeeding in communication is a crucial experience for language learning motivation (Dörnyei, 2001). However, despite the increasing number of studies on the benefits of telecollaboration for linguistic improvement and intercultural competence, little in-depth research exists on whether telecollaboration is an attractive and motivational activity.

2.2. Motivation

Motivation is the driving force behind initiating and sustaining efforts to complete certain activities or tasks (Pintrich, 2003). This is why motivation is crucial for successfully achieving a goal (Atkinson & Reitman, 1956; Deci & Ryan, 2009). In the context of foreign language learning, motivation helps maintain the learning process, which can often be challenging and exhausting (Dörnyei, 2005).

Traditionally, motivation studies have been dominated by the positivist tradition, in which motivation is considered an individual phenomenon (Ushioda, 2003). However, further research has introduced different perspectives, such as the influence of sociocultural contexts, pedagogical strategies, and learner autonomy. Consequently, current mainstream research affirms that "learning is constructive rather than reproductive" (Ushioda, 2003, p. 91). For example, Ushioda (2003) claims that "motivation develops as a result of interactions among persons, tasks, and the larger environmental context" (p. 92). In fact, competence, autonomy, and relatedness are influential factors in motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2009, p. 183). Therefore, instructors can enhance language learning by providing appropriate interpersonal support and stimulating students with new activities and materials to foster motivation (Ushioda, 2003). Providing new experiences to inspire students' curiosity is one of

the key strategies that language educators should strive for (Palmer, 2005). Linnenbrink-Garcia et al. (2016) and Dörnyei (2001) also advise language teachers to offer students opportunities to actively participate in engaging and novel tasks and activities, such as telecollaboration (Lin, 2008).

Keller's ARCS model (1987, 2010), originally designed for task evaluations (Keller, 1979), is a useful tool for measuring motivational activities and is also suitable for assessing foreign language teaching (Kijima & Suzuki, 2003; Lin, 2008; Matsuzaki et al., 2005; Suzuki, 1995). The model is built upon four factors: attention, relevance, confidence, and satisfaction (Keller, 2010). The ARCS model enables teachers to examine whether an activity is sufficiently interesting to hold students' attention, whether it is relevant to the learning process (so that students find value, joy, and challenge in it), whether it strengthens students' self-confidence, and whether it provides a sense of satisfaction that bridges the gap between continuous challenges and motivation (Keller, 2010; Lin, 2008; Suzuki, 1995). The model has been widely accepted as a measurement tool for studying instructional design and the theoretical foundation of motivation (Fang et al., 2023). Successful communication experiences serve as a key source of motivation for foreign language learners (Dörnyei, 2001). However, concerns about who to communicate with and how have become central issues in today's increasingly globalized world.

2.3. Mediation And Japanese As A Lingua Franca In Telecollaboration

In globalized social contexts, communication and meaning-making are no longer limited by territorial boundaries. Consequently, languages are represented as "emergent, dynamic, unpredictable, open-ended and intersubjectively negotiated" matters (Douglas Fir Group, 2016, p. 19). As such, as Ortega (2013) predicted over a decade ago, in the field of foreign language education, the native speaker as a linguistic and cultural model is no longer the ultimate and sole goal to pursue (Byram & Wagner, 2018). Instead, we have entered an era of post-native-speakers (Houghton & Hashimoto, 2018) because, as Godwin-Jones (2019) observes, the ideal native approach "ignores the complex diversity of human society" (p. 16) in the 21st century.

This impulse is well reflected in the CEFR-CV (Council of Europe, 2020). As the world now requires students to be "intercultural speakers" rather than "native speakers" (Corbett, 2021, p. 2), language education increasingly strives to foster competence in the co-construction of meaning (North, 2021) or pluri-linguaging (Piccardo et al., 2019). Further developed, the concept of mediation in the CEFR-CV refers to the ability to bridge gaps in human communication effectively and appropriately (Council of Europe, n.d.). Although no consensus has yet been reached on the assessment of mediation competence (see, e.g., de Jong, 2022; Lenz, 2022; O'Sullivan, 2022), the CEFR-CV defines mediation activities in relation to communication and group work, such as "facilitating collaborative interaction with peers," "collaborating to construct meaning," "managing interaction," "facilitating pluricultural space," "acting as an intermediary," "facilitating communication in delicate situations and disagreements," "linking to previous knowledge," "adapting language," and "breaking down complicated information" (Council of Europe, 2020, p. 90). The assumption here is that the higher a language learner's competence, the stronger their mediation competence will be. Nevertheless, under the post-native-speaker model, both foreign language learners and native speakers are expected to develop intercultural communicative competence and mediation skills to participate in the process of meaning construction (Hino, 2020). Lingua franca studies that emphasize spontaneity and meaning of negotiation (Aoyama, 2020) may provide insights for developing activities to enhance mediation competence.

As far as lingua franca and telecollaboration are concerned, early virtual exchanges were based on tandem-type bilingual practices between L1 speakers and foreign language learners. However, telecollaboration using a lingua franca is gaining popularity. For example, Lenkaitis et al. (2019) used English and Spanish as a lingua franca to promote intercultural virtual dialogues via Zoom among students from Mexico, Poland, Spain, and the USA, raising global citizenship awareness. Additionally, Guarda (2013) implemented English lingua franca telecollaboration between universities in Italy and Austria to develop critical cultural awareness and create a third place and third culture. Nevertheless, research on lingua franca telecollaboration has primarily focused on English as a lingua franca (Godwin-Jones, 2019). Conversely, only a small number of studies exist on telecollaboration using Japanese, either in a tandem style or as a lingua franca (Nishio & Nakatsugawa, 2020). One such study, conducted by Lin (2008), examined Chinese and Japanese tandem telecollaboration among Taiwanese and Japanese university students using Skype. Additionally, Ikeda and Bysouth (2013) explored when international students in a Japanese university used English as a lingua franca and when they preferred to use Japanese as a lingua franca. Despite the challenges to traditional notions of linguistic ownership and the native speaker model in present-day Japan (Haberland, 2020), research on Japanese or other minor languages as a lingua franca in telecollaboration remains extremely limited, even in Asia, let alone in Europe or North America.

Examining research on "Japanese as a lingua franca" reveals that initial studies emerged from reflections on the forced use of Japanese in colonies under Japanese imperialism. However, current research focuses on the use of Japanese by a diverse global population of Japanese speakers in multilingual environments and on meaning negotiation (Aoyama, 2020). Thus, the concept of Japanese as a lingua franca refers to a common language used among individuals with different native languages (Brosch, 2015). Nonetheless, this approach necessitates more empirical research on how non-native Japanese speakers construct and negotiate meaning in Japanese (Aoyama, 2020). Given the criticism of native speakerism in language education, it is essential to highlight instances where

native speaker norms are transcended. In this context, our research contributes a case study of Japanese as a lingua franca in Europe, where participants from two universities were non-native speakers of Japanese.

Since effective lingua franca communication requires mediation (Leung & Jenkins, 2020), the research scope in this area is vast. Additionally, studies on lingua franca that emphasize spontaneity and meaning negotiation (Aoyama, 2020) may offer guidance in developing activities to enhance mediation competence.

In sum, many studies have independently investigated learning motivation and telecollaboration, yet little research has combined these topics. On the one hand, successful communication experiences are essential for maintaining foreign language learners' motivation. However, there is a lack of research on whether telecollaboration represents an attractive and fully motivational activity for students. On the other hand, while research on telecollaboration is increasing and some studies have analyzed lingua franca telecollaboration involving frequently studied languages such as English, empirical studies on the lingua franca use of other languages—particularly less commonly taught languages (LCTLs) like Japanese—remain scarce. Moreover, telecollaboration has been actively studied from the perspectives of linguistic and intercultural competence development. However, the processes of linguistic or intercultural exchange—in other words, mediation strategies—have not been thoroughly explored. Hence, the current study aims to address these theoretical and empirical gaps.

3. Methodology

This research employs a mixed-methods approach, utilizing ARCS model questionnaires for quantitative data and KH Coder for text analysis. This section outlines the study methodology, including details on the participants, procedures, data collection, and data analysis.

3.1. Participants

The telecollaboration participants were 21 students from a state university in Spain and 20 students from a state university in Finland, all enrolled in an advanced Japanese class at their respective universities. In addition to convenience sampling based on the author's affiliations, these two institutions were selected because their students represented an apt group for studying LCTL lingua franca telecollaboration. Nonetheless, due to the sampling method, caution is necessary when generalizing the results. However, given the difficulty of collecting data on LCTL lingua franca telecollaboration, the participant data can still offer valuable insights. The use of student activities as data was explained to the course participants and their informed consent was obtained.

Ultimately, we decided to use only the dataset from the 21 Spanish students, as we were able to collect more detailed data on longitudinal changes from this sample. Additionally, we obtained more in-depth written comments from them on the relationship between different aspects of motivation and communication mediation. These students had minored in Japanese for three years, and their average Japanese competence level was approximately CEFR A2 (equivalent to N4 on the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT)). Nevertheless, there were considerable differences in language proficiency within the class, as some students had traveled to Japan or participated in exchange programs at Japanese universities. The same pattern was observed at the Finnish university, where some students had also been on student exchanges and had lived in Japan for an extended period. In fact, several students had attained JLPT N1 (equivalent to CEFR C1), making them the most advanced Japanese learners in this study. Furthermore, since the Finnish students could major in Japanese, they had studied the language for approximately four years at the time of data collection.

3.2. Procedure

At the beginning of the semester, the Spanish university informed students about the opportunity to telecollaborate with a Finnish university. To accustom the students to the communication activity, part of each session (approximately 30 minutes) was dedicated to practicing oral communication on topics selected from the online Japanese communication learning material *Hirogaru*, created by The Japan Foundation Japanese-Language Institute, Kansai (n.d.). These activities were conducted over six sessions, and the topics are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Overall Schedule of Telecollaboration (Source: elaborated by the authors)

	Week 1	Week 2	Week 3	Week 4	Week 5	Week 6	Week 7
Communication activities (topics)	Sweets	Temples	Music	Sports	Drinks	Anime	
Telecollaboration preparation				Youtube videos	Question list		
ACMC Telecollaboration (Flip)					Self-introduction	Peer comments	
SCMC Telecollaboration (Zoom)							“Why do you study languages?”

Source: elaborated by the authors

As the date of the SCMC telecollaboration approached, the students practiced discussing the session topic (“Why do you study languages?”) with their Spanish classmates. Some YouTube videos were provided by the instructor, and the students created a list of questions based on these videos to use in the SCMC telecollaboration session. Simultaneously, ACMC exchanges were conducted using the video discussion application Flip. Students were asked to upload videos introducing themselves to their assigned groups. Instructors in Spain and Finland created seven groups of 5–7 members based on students’ personal characteristics, hobbies, interests, study majors, and other factors to foster a friendly environment. The purpose of this task was to break the ice within the limited time available, allow students to become acquainted with each other, practice communication skills asynchronously (providing time for preparation and reflection), and motivate them for the telecollaboration session.

The SCMC telecollaboration took place during one hour of class time in Spain and Finland using the Zoom videoconferencing platform. At the beginning of the session, following a brief introduction by instructors from both universities, a volunteer Japanese exchange student in Finland gave a five-minute presentation on “Why I study languages.” Then, students from both countries were divided into seven breakout rooms (corresponding to the same groups allocated for Flip) to converse freely for approximately 45 minutes on the given topic, “Why do you study languages?” Additionally, one Japanese exchange student in Spain or Finland accompanied each group to support the conversation if needed. Since the duration of the SCMC telecollaboration was limited, no specific task (such as a presentation of their conclusions) was assigned. Instead, students were encouraged to pursue the ultimate goal—to “enjoy communicating with group mates in Japanese.”

3.3. Data Collection

To observe potential changes in different motivation factors after the telecollaboration, we used the six-item ARCS motivation model questionnaire (Table 2) created by Matsuzaki et al. (2005), based on Keller’s research (1979, 1987, 2010), and validated for measuring motivational activities by various studies (Kijima & Suzuki, 2003; Lin, 2008; Matsuzaki et al., 2005; Suzuki, 1995). We selected the six-item ARCS questionnaire for several reasons. First, as Fang et al. (2023) observe in their systematic review of the ARCS model in educational research, the questionnaire has been widely used worldwide (notably in Asia) for a considerable period (especially since 2021) and at different levels of education, particularly in higher education. Second, we found the ARCS model well-suited for measuring the various components and stages of motivation. As Keller (2010) states, it allows researchers to investigate motivation in the three stages of telecollaboration activity: inputs, processes, and output (p. 5; see also Suzuki, 1995). This helped us identify which components of motivation were positively affected by telecollaboration.

Third, we opted for the six-item, five-point Likert scale questionnaire in Japanese (Table 2) created by Matsuzaki et al. (2005) instead of the original 36-item version (Keller, 2010) because it has been used in studies in similar settings, such as research on self-directed Japanese learning (though qualitative) (Kijima & Suzuki, 2003), English-language portfolio exercises in Japan (Matsuzaki et al., 2005), and Japanese-Chinese tandem activities (Lin, 2008). The original questionnaire’s reliability has been confirmed by numerous studies (Fang et al., 2023), and the reliability of the Japanese-translated six-item version was also verified by Matsuzaki et al. (2005) and Lin (2008), as well as confirmed with our data (Cronbach’s Alpha = 0.793). Finally, another reason for choosing the six-item questionnaire was to reduce the burden on students. As Baumann and Harvey (2018) note, university students are often fatigued by surveys and questionnaires, resulting in low participation rates and unreliable responses. The six-item questionnaire required no more than three minutes for students to reflect on the activity and contributed to active participation in this study.

Table 2: 6-item ARCS motivation model questionnaire

ARCS Model	Questionnaires
Attention	The activity was attractive. The activity was interesting.
Relevance	The activity was rewarding. The activity was challenging.
Confidence	The activity strengthened my self-confidence.
Satisfaction	The activity gave me satisfaction.

Source: Matsuzaki et al. (2005, p. 67, author’s translation)

This questionnaire was completed at the end of all six communication activities and the SCMC telecollaboration to allow us to observe potential changes in motivational factors. Moreover, this approach was intended to encourage student involvement and reflection on participation in the activity, ensuring that each student actively engaged in the communication activities. Additionally, we collected short student reflections on the telecollaboration experience in Japanese and Spanish, which were submitted one week after the telecollaboration. Since the reflections in Spanish tended to be more detailed and better expressed, we primarily used them for analysis.

3.4. Data Analysis

We employed a mixed-methods approach using both quantitative and qualitative analyses to explore and explain the research questions (Creswell, 2009; Creswell & Plano Clark, 2018). While the quantitative data provided general-level information on the components of motivation, it could not offer an in-depth understanding of the role of telecollaboration in motivation and other elements. Thus, incorporating a qualitative analysis of students' written reflections enabled us to examine the mechanisms of motivational changes more deeply and explore the broader potential of telecollaboration in fostering intercultural and mediation skills.

RQ1 and RQ2 were studied quantitatively by analyzing descriptive statistics and performing a *t*-test. The qualitative analysis aimed to answer RQ3. We first conducted a metric text analysis using KH Coder to identify factors influencing students' motivation both positively and negatively. KH Coder metric text analysis bridges the gap between quantitative and qualitative analyses (Higuchi, 2017). When applied to free-text comments, it helps identify the "meaningful parts" of responses (Higuchi, 2017) and can be used to explore possible explanations for the data inductively. This technique allowed us not only to confirm our hypotheses but also to investigate contextual factors. In sum, our mixed-methods approach enabled us to capture the overall picture of motivation in telecollaboration and its potential as a vehicle for language learning.

4. Results

We first present the results of our quantitative analyses, which answer RQ1 and RQ2. Then, we provide the findings of the qualitative analyses, including the text analysis using KH Coder and the in-depth descriptive analysis of students' reflections. These analyses respond to RQ3.

4.1. Quantitative Findings

First, we examine the changes in students' motivation from the start of the communication activities until the end of the SCMC telecollaboration. Figure 3 shows the development of mean scores in the six-item ARCS motivation model throughout the study period.

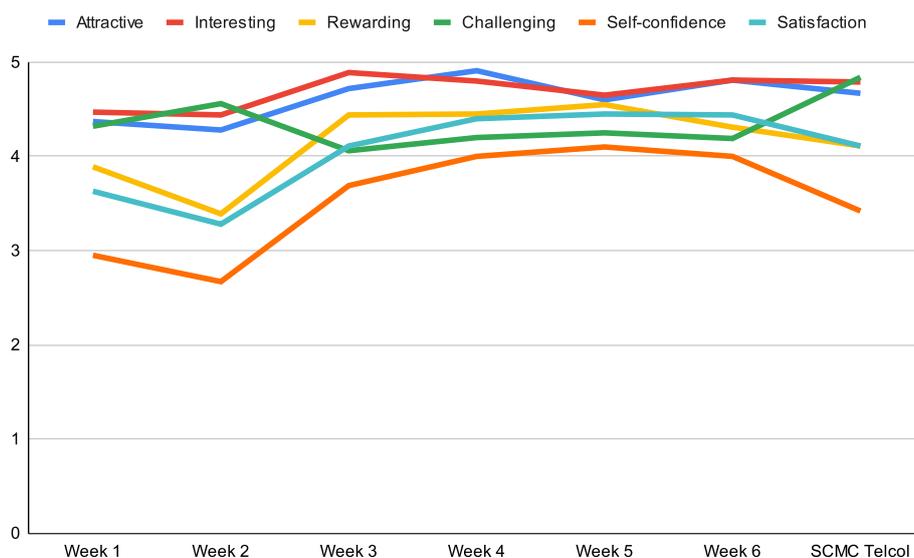


Figure 1: Development of means of the 6-item ARCS motivation model (Note: CMC TelCol = SCMC Telecollaboration)

At first, most students felt that the communication activity was attractive and interesting, although a considerable number found it challenging. However, because they were not yet accustomed to speaking exclusively in Japanese, their estimated self-confidence was low. Consequently, due to the discrepancies between attention, relevance, and confidence, overall satisfaction was not particularly high. Over time, however, students gradually gained confidence through repeated communication activities, as evidenced by the improvement in the self-confidence score. Meanwhile, the sense of challenge faded slightly as self-confidence increased. Attractiveness was influenced somewhat by the topics addressed in the activity, with attractiveness scores rising on days featuring active discussions on subjects such as "sports" and "anime," while students seemed less motivated on days when they discussed more complex topics, such as "temples." Satisfaction scores fluctuated in accordance with self-confidence throughout the period. After the SCMC telecollaboration, students' perceived sense of "challenge" increased again, while self-confidence decreased considerably, although no dramatic declines in students' satisfaction were observed.

To examine the statistical significance of these changes, a dependent *t*-test was performed on the pre-and post-telecollaboration data (Table 3).

- *It would have been good if our partners had lowered their level, used simpler phrases, or spoken more slowly.* (Student I)
- *Our partners didn't try to lower their level to ours.* (Student L)
- *It's better to find partners with the same language level.* (Student J)
- *It's desirable if students from Helsinki use easier Japanese with us.* (Student M)
- *The language level of students from Helsinki is high, and mine is low, which provoked a huge communication gap and made me feel anxious.* (Student B)

However, interpretations of these language-level differences varied among students. The vast majority viewed it as a positive challenge:

- *[This experience] motivated me very much to keep learning and raising my level.* (Student J)
- *For me, instead of demotivation, this experience motivated me to study and work hard on Japanese. Without question, it was absolute satisfaction when I could express what I wanted to say in Japanese in an improvised way!* (Student C)

Nonetheless, one student expressed dissatisfaction:

- *Due to the (level) difference between us, my feeling was one of slight demotivation.* (Student L)

Thus, the primary reason for the decline in self-confidence was the language-level difference. However, as Keller (2010) mentions, self-confidence is an extremely personal matter and should not be generalized. Nevertheless, it is reasonable to conclude that for most students, the telecollaboration challenge stimulated their intrinsic motivation (Ushioda, 2003) to improve their communication skills.

Moreover, the results highlight crucial aspects of motivation and human communication. Motivation is strongly influenced by interpersonal interaction (Ushioda, 2003) and relatedness to others (Deci & Ryan, 2009). Furthermore, human communication is not solely dependent on linguistic competence but also on intercultural understanding (Hino, 2020) and the willingness to co-construct meaning (Council of Europe, 2020). In this sense, lingua franca telecollaboration provides a suitably challenging setting for language students, not only to enhance their linguistic competence but also to develop their communication mediation skills.

Thus, in response to RQ3, telecollaboration appears to be a suitable setting for practicing mediation skills. In the following section, we explore this in greater detail.

5. Discussion

Answering RQ1 and RQ2, our findings suggest that SCMC lingua franca telecollaboration helped facilitate a spirit of challenge among students while, nonetheless, negatively affecting self-confidence. However, the decline in self-confidence did not correspond to a weakening of motivation for most students; rather, it inspired further intrinsic motivation (Ushioda, 2003) to improve their skills. Keller (2010) suggests that to ensure a sense of self-confidence, it is important for students to feel that the situation is under their control. Consequently, it is essential to consider ways to help students feel secure in intercultural communication settings when using a lingua franca. Here, the key seems to be cultivating their intercultural mediation ability (Council of Europe, n.d., 2020; Hino, 2020; North, 2021a). To extend and deepen our discussion on the results and to address RQ3 regarding the potential of telecollaboration in language teaching for diverse modern societies, we now focus on lingua franca SCMC telecollaboration and its ability to cultivate intercultural mediation skills.

Our students from Spain and Finland were enrolled in an advanced Japanese class, although there were notable differences in length of study, prior experiences, and the study plans of each university. Nonetheless, some students had relatively high linguistic competence, acquired through extended stays in Japan, and had even passed official CEFR B2-C1 level exams. However, frustration arose due to differences in language levels and the lack of a friendly, collaborative atmosphere, as expressed in students' written reflections. Clearly, intercultural human communication is not simply a linguistic matter; rather, as the CEFR-CV (Council of Europe, 2020) highlights, smooth and enjoyable communication often requires strong mediation competence.

The CEFR-CV claims that mediation is a crucial competence for 21st-century intercultural speakers because today's intercultural communication is a process of negotiation and co-construction of meaning (Corbett, 2021; Council of Europe, n.d.; Leung & Jenkins, 2020; North, 2021; Piccardo et al., 2019). Thus, the ability to collaborate, interact, and facilitate communication, including a positive attitude toward the conversation environment, is indispensable. The CEFR-CV assumes that the higher a person's linguistic competence, the stronger their mediation competence should be. However, as observed in students' reflections in this study, some students with higher linguistic competence were unable to adapt their language to their peers with lower language skills (Council of Europe, 2020), confirming Hino's (2020) assumption. Moreover, students with lower linguistic competence struggled to employ strategies to ensure understanding, such as making precise requests or using alternative communication methods (Council of Europe, 2020).

Despite progress, Japanese language teaching still primarily focuses on developing linguistic communication competence rather than a real communication or willingness-to-communicate approach (Shinada, 2022). Furthermore, it remains biased toward native-speakerism (Bhattacharya, 2020). In other words, intercultural communication does not solely concern linguistic competence; rather, it extends beyond language use. Thus, the teaching of mediation competence in Japanese language education remains in its infancy (Majima, 2023; Sakurai & Okumura, 2021). Consequently, students in this study were unfamiliar with mediation strategies. Therefore, communication between these non-native speakers was more challenging than communication between learners and L1 speakers, who would likely have been better able to infer unclear meanings or provide necessary support. Similarly, in tandem telecollaboration, students may have been more inclined to use skillful language to compensate for a lack of linguistic knowledge and facilitate communication. In such cases, there would not have been an urgent need for mediation.

Nevertheless, in our case, mediation was crucial for smooth communication, as there was no alternative language to rely on. Moreover, given that the CEFR-CV now explicitly emphasizes the importance of mediation competence, it should be introduced in language classes, students should receive training, and they should have opportunities to practice it. Our study highlighted the limitations of Japanese language teaching concerning mediation, although Sakurai and Okumura (2021) suggest that the role of language teachers is to place students in situations where sociolinguistic and cultural mediation is required. As our study suggests, LCTL lingua franca telecollaboration could serve as an excellent setting for improving this ability and contribute to increasing the variety of mediation training activities, which remain scarce (Fernández Álvarez & García Hernández, 2024).

Therefore, in response to RQ3, lingua franca telecollaboration has the potential to enhance today's language classroom by providing a setting to practice and improve mediation skills. As one student remarked:

It was a more realistic way of practicing my Japanese skills, since there were no other ways of understanding but to communicate in Japanese because there were no other common languages. (Student C.)

This indicates that lingua franca telecollaboration places students in a situation with no easy exit; instead, they must co-construct meaning by utilizing all available skills and tools, including mediation competencies, to communicate. Improvements in mediation competence are necessary for students at all language levels. Those with higher linguistic competence must learn to adapt their language use, facilitate communication, and play the role of intermediary, evolving into what Sakurai and Okumura (2021) call an “independent mediator” (p. 165). In contrast, lower-level students, in addition to improving their language skills, should acquire strategies to seek support from group members or employ alternative means to be understood, such as using multimodal tools, thus becoming a “basic mediator” (Sakurai & Okumura, 2021, p. 165). In any case, all students should strive to create a friendly and communicative atmosphere. In this sense, differences in language levels need not be viewed as a problem; rather, they present an opportunity for students to develop their mediation skills.

It is crucial to remember that the ultimate goal of today's multicultural communication is mutual respect and understanding, the achievement of co-constructed meaning, and the enjoyment of communication. Telecollaboration holds the potential to enhance mediation competence.

From a practical perspective, telecollaboration may not be necessary if a lingua franca environment is otherwise available. Nonetheless, creating such contexts within the constraints of university syllabi is challenging; therefore, lingua franca telecollaboration provides a valuable opportunity to motivate students and cultivate mediation competence.

On the other hand, some technical issues arose during this experience. Perhaps most importantly, a stable internet connection was a prerequisite for smooth conversation. Additionally, assigning group tasks might have helped students collaborate more effectively and experience a stronger sense of group belonging. Finally, extending the duration of ACMC and SCMC telecollaboration would have been desirable, as it could have provided students with more opportunities for interaction.

6. Limitations And Future Research Directions

This study had some limitations that should be considered when planning future research. First, the study sample was small; therefore, the results are difficult to generalize. Nonetheless, ensuring adequate sample sizes is challenging, as the number of Japanese learners is relatively small compared to more commonly taught languages. However, future studies should focus on a more diverse participant group in terms of number, age, and education level. Clearly, more data is required on the use of minor languages as a lingua franca, as they are well suited for creating a sense of challenge and promoting the use of intercultural mediation skills. In this sense, the use of Japanese as a lingua franca may not be the central issue; rather, the broader topic of interest is the use of LCTLs as a lingua franca. Studies in this area can help redress the imbalance in a field dominated by research on English as a lingua franca in telecollaboration and contribute to the development of multilingualism.

A further limitation lies in our data collection methods, as we used only a six-item questionnaire. In future research, we could administer the original ARCS 36-item instrument, which would provide far more in-depth information on the mechanisms of motivation. We may also employ semi-structured interviews for a more

comprehensive qualitative analysis. Furthermore, we were unable to examine the effect of ACMC telecollaboration on motivation and mediation in-depth due to the limited scope of the study. It would be worthwhile to separately explore the roles of ACMC and SCMC telecollaboration to identify the effects of each method on different factors in the ARCS motivation model.

Finally, although the present study explored the components of motivation affected by telecollaboration and indicated the potential of lingua franca telecollaboration to foster mediation skills, we have yet to validate this conclusion with empirical data. More research on mediation training and practices, in general, is much needed because, despite the incorporation of this concept into the CEFR-CV, issues surrounding mediation—from its very definition to its assessment measures—remain insufficiently explored. This study confirmed the centrality of mediation in achieving better communication between intercultural speakers, thereby justifying the emphasis placed on mediation competence. Therefore, active debates on the theoretical dimensions of mediation research, as well as practical studies on mediation learning and teaching strategies, concrete activities, and assessment methods (if mediation should be evaluated), are necessary for future studies.

7. Conclusions

This study examined the potential of telecollaboration to improve student motivation and intercultural mediation competence. The findings confirmed that lingua franca telecollaboration inspired a sense of challenge among learners when communicating with their peers (RQ1), thereby motivating them positively. At the same time, differences in language proficiency led to a decrease in self-confidence (RQ2), although this also served to re-motivate students to improve their communication skills. Furthermore, the findings highlighted the crucial role of mediation skills in enhancing intercultural communication and co-construction of meaning, demonstrating the potential of lingua franca telecollaboration in this context (RQ3).

Learners of foreign languages live in a dynamic, intercultural, globalized, and uncertain world. They are future intercultural speakers; thus, the active use of a lingua franca is justified. Such language use transcends communication between L1 speakers and language learners and extends to the “co-construction of meaning” among speakers of different languages and competence levels. The complexity of intercultural dialogue requires not only linguistic skills but also strong mediation competence. Although it is challenging to provide realistic, face-to-face, synchronous intercultural communication environments, such settings are ideal for practicing intercultural communication strategies. This study demonstrated that improvements in ICT infrastructure enable us to utilize telecollaboration for language learners from different countries.

We recommend developing networks of educational institutions interested in telecollaboration to motivate students and foster intercultural mediation skills. We encourage lingua franca telecollaboration exchanges among students with diverse linguistic levels to enhance their mediation competence. Additionally, more research is needed on explicit mediation strategies, which are not even mentioned in the CEFR-CV. For example, multimodal communication could play a significant role in strengthening mediation. Likewise, language learning curricula should place greater emphasis on mediation strategies, particularly communicative mediation.

On the other hand, many of today’s students are digital natives who are continuously exposed to advanced ICT environments and are familiar with digital tools, which facilitates the telecollaboration experience and enhances motivation. This engagement with ICT can help students overcome the challenges inherent in telecommunication and increase their self-confidence in an intercultural communication context. Such experiences of success will sustain their intrinsic motivation and willingness to communicate with people from different cultures.

Lingua franca telecollaboration encompasses all these needs and requirements of contemporary language education. Therefore, it is a powerful and multifaceted tool that warrants extensive research, particularly in relation to motivation and mediation. Studies focused on the practical aspects of communication mediation strategies, as well as findings on concrete activities that motivate students, are highly encouraged to further improve research on motivation and mediation.

Acknowledgement Statement: The authors wish to express their gratitude to all the participants in this study.

Conflicts of interest: The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal relationships that could have influenced this work.

Authors’ contribution Statement: Author 1 contributed to the conceptualization, methodology, data collection, data curation, formal analysis, and writing—original draft, and visualization. Author 2 contributed to the conceptualization, data collection, and writing—review, and editing.

Funding Statements: This study was funded by the Vice-Rectorate for Research and Knowledge Transfer, University of Granada, under Grant number PPJIA2022-11. Open access was funded by the Helsinki University Library.

Data availability: Data are available upon request. Please contact the authors for any additional information on data access or usage.

Disclaimer: The views and opinions expressed in this article are those of the authors and contributors and do not necessarily reflect JICC's or the editors' official policy or position. All liability for harm done to individuals or property as a result of any ideas, methods, instructions, or products mentioned in the content is expressly disclaimed.

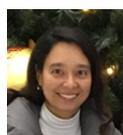
References

- Akiyama, Y. (2017). Learner beliefs and corrective feedback in telecollaboration: A longitudinal investigation. *System*, 64, 58–73. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2016.12.007>
- Aoyama, R. (2020). "Ringa furanka to shite no nihongo" no kako to mirai: Chūgoku shanghai deno nihongo kyōiku siyō wo rei ni shite [Japanese language education as lingua franca: The case of Japanese language education and use in Shanghai, China]. In R. Aoyama, T. Akashi, & S. Li (Eds.), *Ringa franca to shite no nihongo: tagengo tabunka kyōzon no tame ni nihongo kyōiku o saikō suru* [Japanese as lingua franca: Rethinking Japanese language education for multilingual and multicultural coexistence] (pp. 171–194). Akashi Shoten.
- Atkinson, J. W., & Reitman, W. R. (1956). Performance as a function of motive strength and expectancy of goal-attainment. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 53, 361–366. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0043477>
- Baumann, C., & Harvey, M. (2018). Competitiveness vis-à-vis motivation and personality as drivers of academic performance: Introducing the MCP model. *International Journal of Educational Management*, 32(1), 185–202. <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJEM-10-2017-0263>
- Bhattacharya, M. (2020). Language ideology and its manifestation: Exploring implications for Japanese language teaching. *Japanese Language and Literature*, 54(2), 305–316. <https://doi.org/10.5195/jll.2020.137>
- Branon, R. F., & Essex, C. (2001). Synchronous and asynchronous communication tools in distance education: A survey of instructors. *TechTrends*, 45(1), 36–42. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02763377>
- Brosch, C. (2015). On the conceptual history of the term lingua franca. *Apples: Journal of Applied Language Studies*, 9(1), 71–85. <https://doi.org/10.17011/apples/2015090104>
- Byram, M., & Wagner, M. (2018). Making a difference: Language teaching for intercultural and international dialogue. *Foreign Language Annals*, 51, 140–151. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12319>
- Canals, L. (2022). The role of the language of interaction and translanguaging on attention to interactional feedback in virtual exchanges. *System*, 105, 1–10. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2022.102721>
- Cappellini, M., Holt, B., & Hsu, Y.-Y. (2022). Multimodal alignment in telecollaboration: A methodological exploration. *System*, 110, 1–15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2022.102931>
- Caudill, J. G. (2022). For-profit online performance through the COVID-19 pandemic. *Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration*, 25(3), 1–9.
- Collentine, K. (2009). Learner use of holistic language units in multimodal, task-based synchronous computer-mediated communication. *Language Learning & Technology*, 13(2), 68–87. <http://dx.doi.org/10125/44181>
- Corbett, J. (2021). Revisiting mediation: Implications for intercultural language education. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 21(1), 8–23. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2020.1833897>
- Council of Europe. (2020). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Companion volume*. Council of Europe. <https://rm.coe.int/common-european-framework-of-reference-for-languages-learning-teaching/16809ea0d4>
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. Sage.
- Creswell, J. W., & Plano Clark, V. L. (2018). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research* (3rd ed.). Sage.
- Council of Europe. (n.d.). *Mediation* [Video]. <https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages>
- Council of Europe. (n.d.). *Mediation* [Video]. Retrieved from <https://www.coe.int/en/web/common-european-framework-reference-languages>
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2009). Self-determination theory: A macrotheory of human motivation, development, and health. *Canadian Psychology*, 49(3), 182–185. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0012801>
- de Jong, J. H. A. L. (2022). The action-oriented approach and language testing: A critical view. In D. Little & N. Figueras (Eds.), *Reflecting on the common European framework of reference for languages and its companion volume* (pp. 53–63). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/LITTLE0190>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational strategies in the language classroom*. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9780511667343>
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781410613349>
- Douglas Fir Group. (2016). A transdisciplinary framework for SLA in a multilingual world. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100(S1), 19–47. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12301>
- Fang, X., Ng, D. T. K., Leung, J. K. L., & Xu, H. (2023). The applications of the ARCS model in instructional design, theoretical framework, and measurement tool: A systematic review of empirical studies. *Interactive Learning Environments*, 32(10), 5919–5946. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10494820.2023.2240867>
- Fernández Álvarez, M., & García Hernández, S. (2024). Teachers' perceptions of linguistic mediation in the curriculum for advanced English in Madrid secondary schools. *Language Teaching Research*, 28(2), 389–412. <https://doi.org/10.1177/13621688211005602>
- Godwin-Jones, R. (2019). Telecollaboration as an approach to develop intercultural communication competence. *Language Learning and Technology*, 23(3), 8–28. <http://hdl.handle.net/10125/44691>

- Guarda, M. (2013). *Negotiating a transcultural place in an English as a lingua franca telecollaboration exchange: A mixed methods approach to the analysis of intercultural communicative competence and third space in an online community of practice* [Doctoral dissertation, Università degli Studi di Padova]. <https://hdl.handle.net/11577/3422575>
- Guth, S., & Helm, F. (Eds.). (2010). *Telecollaboration 2.0: Language, literacies, and intercultural learning in the 21st century*. Peter Lang. <https://doi.org/10.3726/978-3-0351-0013-6>
- Guth, S., & Helm, F. (2012). Developing multiliteracies in ELT through telecollaboration. *ELT Journal*, 66(1), 42–51. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccr027>
- Haberland, H. (2020). Nihongo ga kokusai gengo ni Naru koto no eikyō: dai ni gengo matawa ringa furanka to shite [The impact of Japanese becoming an international language: As a second language or lingua franca]. In R. Aoyama, T. Akashi, & S. Li (Eds.), *Ringa franca to shite no nihongo: tagengo tabunka kyōzon no tame ni nihongo kyōiku o saikō suru* [Japanese as lingua franca: Rethinking Japanese language education for multilingual and multicultural coexistence] (pp. 133–147). Akashi Shoten.
- Hampel, R., & Hauck, M. (2004). Towards an effective use of audio conferencing in distance language courses. *Language Learning & Technology*, 8(1), 66–82. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/25230>
- Higuchi, K. (2017). Keiryō tekisuto bunseki oyobi KH Coder no riyō jōkyō to tenbō [New quantitative text analysis method and KH Coder software]. *Japanese Sociological Review*, 68(3), 334–350. <https://doi.org/10.4057/jsr.68.334>
- Hino, N. (2020). Gengo shiyōsha wo bogowasha no kihan kara kaihō suru gengokyōiku [Language education that frees language users from the norms of native speakers]. In R. Aoyama, T. Akashi, & S. Li (Eds.), *Ringa franca to shite no nihongo: tagengo tabunka kyōzon no tame ni nihongo kyōiku o saikō suru* [Japanese as lingua franca: Rethinking Japanese language education for multilingual and multicultural coexistence] (pp. 149–169). Akashi Shoten.
- Houghton, S. A., & Hashimoto, K. (Eds.). (2018). *Towards post-native-speakerism: Dynamics and shifts*. Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-10-7162-1>
- Jin, L. (2013). Language development and scaffolding in a Sino-American telecollaborative project. *Language Learning & Technology*, 17(2), 193–219. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1257/44330>
- Ikeda, K., & Bysouth, D. (2013). Japanese and English as lingua francas: Language choices for international students in contemporary Japan. In H. Haberland, D. Løsmann, & B. Preisler (Eds.), *Language alternation, language choice, and language encounter in international tertiary education* (pp. 31–52). Springer. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-007-6476-7_2
- Keller, J. M. (1979). Motivation and instructional design: A theoretical perspective. *Journal of Instructional Development*, 2(4), 26–34. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02904345>
- Keller, J. M. (1987). Development and use of the ARCS model of instructional design. *Journal of Instructional Development*, 10(2), 2–10. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02905780>
- Keller, J. M. (2010). *Motivational design for learning and performance: The ARCS model approach*. Springer. <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4419-1250-3>
- Kijima, H., & Suzuki, Y. (2003). Dokushū ni yoru nihongo gakushū no shien: Sono hōsaku to ARCS dōkizuke moderu ni yoru hyōka [Support for learning Japanese by self-learning: Its tactic and evaluation by ARCS motivational model]. *Japanese Journal of Educational Technology*, 27(3), 347–356. https://doi.org/10.15077/jmet.27.3_347
- Lenkaitis, C. A., Loranc-Paszylk, B., & Hilliker, S. M. (2019). Global awareness and global identity development among foreign language learners: The impact of virtual exchanges. *MEXTESOL Journal*, 43(4), 1–11.
- Lenz, P. (2022). Some thoughts about the testing of mediation. In D. Little & N. Figueras (Eds.), *Reflecting on the common European framework of reference for languages and its companion volume* (pp. 113–121). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/LITTLE0190>
- Leung, C., & Jenkins, J. (2020). Mediating communication: ELF and flexible multilingualism perspectives on the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages. *Australians Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 3(1), 26–41. <https://doi.org/10.29140/ajal.v3n1.285>
- Lin, C. (2008). Nicchū enkaku kyōdō jyūgyō ni okeru gogaku kyōiku no jissen to sono hyōka [Implementation and evaluation of language education through Japanese Chinese collaborative distance learning lessons]. *Area and Cultural Studies Tokyo University of Foreign Studies*, 76, 191–212. <http://hdl.handle.net/10108/45212>
- Linnenbrink-Garcia, L., Patall, E. A., & Pekrun, R. (2016). Adaptive motivation and emotion in education: Research and principles for instructional design. *Policy Insights from the Behavioral and Brain Sciences*, 3(2), 228–236. <https://doi.org/10.1177/23727322166644450>
- Luo, H., & Yang, C. (2022). Pedagogical benefits of Chinese-American virtual exchange: A study of student perceptions. *ReCALL*, 34(1), 37–50. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344021000203>
- Majima, J. (2023). Nihon no gaikokugo kyōiku eno "CEFR-CV (CEFR hoiban)" no inpakuto [Effects of the "CEFR-CV (companion volume)" on foreign language teaching in Japan]. *Deutschunterricht in Japan*, 27, 4–24. https://doi.org/10.24670/deutschunterricht.27.0_4
- Matsuzaki, K., Nakayama, M., & Hojo, R. (2005). Pōtoforio kanfarensu no shoshiki kanryakuka ni kansuru kentō [Consideration on the style simplification of portfolio conference]. *Japanese Journal for Educational Technology*, 29(suppl.), 65–68. <https://doi.org/10.15077/jjet.KJ00004286931>

- Nishio, T., & Nakatsugawa, M. (2020). 'Successful' participation in intercultural exchange: Tensions in America-Japanese telecollaboration. *Language Learning & Technology*, 24(1), 154–169. <https://doi.org/10.125/44714>
- North, B. (2021). The CEFR companion volume: What's new and what might it imply for teaching/learning and for assessment? *CEFR Journal Research and Practice*, 4, 5–24. <https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTSIG.CEFR4-1>
- North, B. (2022). The CEFR companion volume project: What has been achieved. In D. Little & N. Figueras (Eds.), *Reflecting on the common European framework of reference for languages and its companion volume* (pp. 34–46). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/LITTLE0190>
- O'Dowd, R. (2013). Telecollaboration and CALL. In M. Thomas, H. Reinders, & M. Warschauer (Eds.), *Contemporary computer-assisted language learning*. Bloomsbury. Retrieved from <https://ebookcentral.proquest.com>
- Ortega, L. (2013). SLA for the 21st century: Disciplinary progress, transdisciplinary relevance, and the bi/multilingual turn. *Language Learning*, 63(Suppl. 1), 1–24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00735.x>
- O'Sullivan, B. (2022). Making the CEFR work: Considerations for a future roadmap. In D. Little & N. Figueras (Eds.), *Reflecting on the common European framework of reference for languages and its companion volume* (pp. 187–202). Multilingual Matters. <https://doi.org/10.21832/LITTLE0190>
- Palmer, D. (2005). Motivational view of constructivist-informed teaching. *International Journal of Science Education*, 27(15), 1853–1881. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09500690500339654>
- Piccardo, E., North, B., & Goodier, T. (2019). Broadening the scope of language education: Mediation, plurilingualism, and collaborative learning: The CEFR companion volume. *Journal of e-Learning and Knowledge Society*, 15(1), 17–36. <https://doi.org/10.20368/1971-8829/1612>
- Pintrich, P. R. (2003). A motivational science perspective on the role of student motivation in learning and teaching contexts. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 95(4), 667–686. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.95.4.667>
- Sakurai, N., & Okumura, M. (2021). CEFR companion volume with new descriptors ni okeru "chūkai" ni kansuru kōsatsu [Study on "mediation" in the CEFR companion volume with new descriptors]. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching*, 178, 154–169. https://doi.org/10.20721/nihongokyoiku.178.0_154
- Shinada, J. (2022). Nihongo kyōiku no genba de motomerareru taiōryoku [The essential role of Japanese language education in meeting the needs of learners' workplace conditions]. *Journal of Japanese Language Teaching*, 181, 51–65. https://doi.org/10.20721/nihongokyoiku.181.0_51
- Stockwell, G. (2010). Effects of multimodality in computer-mediated communication tasks. In M. Thomas & H. Reinders (Eds.), *Task-based language learning and teaching with technology*. Bloomsbury. Retrieved from <https://ebookcentral.proquest.com>
- Suzuki, K. (1995). "Miryoku aru kyōzai" sekkei, kaihatsu no wakugumi ni tsuite: ARCS dōkizuke moderu wo chūshin ni [On the framework of designing and developing "appealing instruction": The ARCS motivation model]. *Japanese Journal of Educational Media Research*, 1(1), 50–61. https://doi.org/10.24458/jaems.1.1_50
- The EVALUATE Group. (2019). *Executive summary - the key findings from the EVALUATE European policy experiment project on the impact of virtual exchange on initial teacher education*. Research-publishing.net. <https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2019.30.9782490057344>
- The Japan Foundation Japanese-Language Institute, Kansai. (n.d.). *Hirogaru* [Expand] [Video]. Retrieved from <https://hirogaru-nihongo.jp/>
- Toscu, S., & Erten, Í. H. (2020). Developing intercultural communicative competence by means of telecollaboration. *Education and Information Technologies*, 25, 4517–4534. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10639-020-10174-8>
- Ushioda, E. (2003). Motivation as a socially mediated process. In D. Little, J. Ridley, & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Learner autonomy in the foreign language classroom: Learner, teacher, curriculum, and assessment* (pp. 90–103). Authentik.
- Üzüm, B., Akagöglü, S., & Tazan, B. (2020). Using telecollaboration to promote intercultural competence in teacher training classrooms in Turkey and the USA. *ReCALL*, 32(2), 162–177. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344019000235>

About The Author(s).



Kyoko Ito-Morales is a Full-time Associate Professor at the University of Granada. She obtained a PhD in social science (University of Granada, Spain), an MA in Human Rights (Essex University, UK), and a BA in Liberal Arts (International Christian University, Japan). Her research interests are Japanese society and politics, human rights in Asia, and the teaching of Japanese as a foreign language and its culture.



Rie Fuse serves as a lecturer in the Department of Languages at the University of Helsinki, Finland. She earned her PhD in Cultural Studies from the University of Tampere (currently Tampere University), Finland. Her primary research interests encompass media and consumer culture in Japan, Japanese language education, as well as language and identity.

Appendix

今日のコミュニケーション活動を振り返って

Reflexión de la actividad comunicativa de hoy

名前: _____

1. 魅力的だった (*atractiva*)
【(いいえ)・1・2・3・4・5(はい)】
2. おもしろかった (*interesante*)
【(いいえ)・1・2・3・4・5(はい)】
3. やりがいがあった (*provechosa*)
【(いいえ)・1・2・3・4・5(はい)】
4. チャレンジ精神がくすぐられた (*desafiante*)
【(いいえ)・1・2・3・4・5(はい)】
5. 自分に自信がついた (*autoconfianza*)
【(いいえ)・1・2・3・4・5(はい)】
6. 満足感が得られた (*satisfactoria*)
【(いいえ)・1・2・3・4・5(はい)】

コメント: