EVALUATING INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE USING MEDIATED SELF-REFLECTION IN TEACHING ENGLISH TO SPEAKERS OF OTHER LANGUAGES

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A Thesis
Presented to the
Faculty of
California State University,
San Bernardino

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Master of Arts
in
Education:
Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages

by
Hessah Khaled Alzimami

December 2016
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Approved by:

Dr. Lynne T. Diaz-Rico, First Reader
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ABSTRACT

In a globalized world, teaching English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL) requires mastery of intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Deploying ICC has many benefits, especially with teaching and learning English, because it is a preeminent necessity for intercultural communication today. In ESL and EFL contexts at college and university levels, learners and instructors interface with other learners and instructors who have various languages and cultures, so there is a need for implementing ICC, because it encourages instructors and learners to communicate effectively with others using both their native and target languages, as well as their native and target cultures. Hence, there is a need for ICC, mediational tools, such as translanguage pedagogy, as well as use of a peer-coaching process. Also, there is a need to evaluate ICC use through various kinds of assessment, such as self-assessment (which includes self-reflection), identity assessment, formative assessment, and summative assessment.

In order to find the validity of various aspects of ICC, the mediational tools, the peer-coaching process, various kinds of assessment, and self-reflection, the researcher used a mixed-method study that contained quantitative and qualitative data. The study was conducted over the summer of 2016, and the participants were graduate students in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) program at California State University, San Bernardino (CSUSB). This thesis validates aspects of ICC, mediational tools, and
assessments, as well as the importance of self-reflection in evaluating and improving individuals’ ICC.
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CHAPTER ONE
INTRODUCTION

Background of the Thesis

The Role of English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Language has a prominent status in all societies and in all developed and developing countries, as a means of human communication. In many countries, people speak more than one language. In the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, for example, Arabic is the official language in the country, and English is the second language that many speak. The English language has a prominent role in various sectors in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

First, English plays an important role in the education system. Al-Seghayer (2012) pointed out, “It is the main and sole foreign language taught in Saudi Arabian public schools” (p. 1). Previously, students in Saudi Arabia studied English beginning in the seventh grade. Then, some educators insisted that English should be offered as a compulsory class beginning in the primary grades. Therefore, the Ministry of Education decided to teach English beginning in grade four.

Also, scholarships are given to many students for studying English abroad. King Abdullah Bin Abdul-Aziz created the King Abdullah Program for studying English. This program chooses those students who have achieved bachelor’s degrees and master’s degrees with excellent grades to send abroad to study English and complete their studies at a foreign university.
A second sector advancing the use of English is its prominent presence in the media in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Rahman and Alhaisoni (2013) stated, “The English language is playing an important role in both electronic and print media in Saudi Arabia” (p. 114). The country has many TV stations, and one of these stations has all-English content. Also, Saudi Arabia has a radio station that features many English-language programs.

Finally, English has a big role in the employment system in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Al-Seghayer (2012) asserted, “Competence in and knowledge of English opens doors for Saudi citizens and gives the rank-and file employees, the cogs of private commerce and industry, greater access to promotion and advancement” (p. 2). The country has many private companies that have been established by foreigners who speak English professionally, and they demand employees who speak and write English. Therefore, not only is English important in the education system and in advancing media, but it also is important to employment in Saudi Arabia.

The Social Context of English Learning in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

People in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia are concerned about learning English; they are trying to increase their proficiency, as well as teach their children English, for many reasons. First, they notice that English has become a world language; many people around the world speak English as a first or a second language. Second, Saudi citizens have discovered that the English language is crucial in traveling, communication, business, employment, and
education. Finally, the Islamic perspective, which dominates Saudi Arabia, calls for learning useful things and discovering new cultures.

However, some Saudis learn English for different reasons, such as to be a teacher in the education system, in which the Ministry of Education requires a high fluency in English to be an English teacher in the universities. As a result, people must achieve a high proficiency in English in order to be an English professional. Most universities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia use English as the medium of instruction, such as King Fahd University of Petroleum and Minerals and King Abdullah University of Science and Technology (Al-Seghayer, 2012). Thus, English plays an increasing role in the social context of the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

The History of English Teaching and Methodology in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Since its inception, teaching English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia has undergone several changes. Teaching English was begun in 1925 (Liton, 2012). The starting point was different between public schools and private schools. First, the government established Ministry-of-Education-managed public schools. Because they were supported by the government, these schools did not charge tuition to the Saudi people. The English language was taught from seventh grade to twelfth grade in public schools.

The method of teaching English in public schools depended on textbooks and teachers. The Ministry-of-Education-approved textbooks contained about twenty units, with every unit divided into four lessons. These lessons consisted of
grammar, reading, vocabulary, and listening/speaking. However, the textbook, originally adopted when English was began, did not state any objectives or goals. Moreover, the teachers did not supplement these textbooks with any video or audio content. Furthermore, the students had a low motivation to learn English. They just wanted to survive—not thrive—because the textbooks at that time did not meet the students’ needs. Hence, the students tended to buy commercial books that helped to improve their language.

In contrast, English was taught from kindergarten to twelfth grade in private schools. Businessmen established these schools, and the foreign education companies managed them. The method of English teaching in the private schools depended on foreign teachers who spoke English professionally, and textbooks created by English educators. These schools were the best choice, but they charged high tuition fees. Because of this, not many citizens at that time could send their children to these schools.

Nevertheless, the Ministry of Education managed all schools, whether public or private, because of the mandate that all students must have the same right to education. Also, officials in the Ministry of Education became more aware of the apparent role of English. As a result, they decided to change the textbook and the goals in 2000 (Liton, 2012). Also, they mandated that students studied English from the fourth grade to the university level. The Ministry of Education employed educators who were proficient in English to create another textbook to
achieve the needs of the students. After that time, the students could speak and write English with a higher level of proficiency.

**Target Teaching Level**

My target level is university and college teaching in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. I would to be an English teacher in a university in which English is a medium of instruction. In Saudi Arabia, many English major areas, such as American literature, depend on English as a medium of instruction. Also, English is a crucial element for success in the other majors such as Islamic studies and Arabic. English is a compulsory class to graduate from these majors.

As a result, the need for English teachers is increasing in the Saudi Arabia. The Ministry of Education requires teachers to have high proficiency in English, and high certificates in the majors that they want to teach, such as masters and PhD courses. Also, it requires advanced training in the same background in which the bachelor’s degree was achieved; meaning, for example, because I graduated from English, I should get a master’s degree in some facet of English to be a teacher in a university.

**The Current State of Teaching at Target Level**

The current state of teaching at my target level depends on the particular college and university’s system. The present status of teaching at colleges and universities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is high, even more than previously. In the past (meaning when I was a student in the university), the English language was a medium of instruction in the English majors but it was not a medium of
instruction in other majors. Moreover, there was not a preparatory year to learn academic English. Also, the course schedule was unified for all students; there were more than eight classes in the semester, and studying was difficult.

Nowadays, the Ministry of Education has changed the system. First, it has made English a medium of instruction in most universities and most majors. Second, a preparatory year is required in all majors in some universities. For example, in English majors, there is a preparatory year in which students study all the English language disciplines such as Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL), linguistics, grammar, poetry, American literature and English translation. Then, the students decide to specialize in any of these three majors: English Literature, English Translation and English in General. Also, classes are chosen by students, so the studying is more focused than before.

As for the teachers and the teaching approaches, although the teaching approach depends on the particular teacher and on the available technology, the teacher is the center of the class and lectures without any participation from students, so there is not any interaction between the students and teachers. As Rahman and Alhaisoni (2013) asserted,

Teachers should think of new methodologies for classroom interaction, and these methods will have to depend on techniques, which will enable the students to enjoy their English language classes. As a result, students will be motivated towards learning English and develop some self-learning techniques. (p. 116)
Teachers should create new methods and activity to increase the students’ interaction in the classroom. In general, the current quality of teaching at colleges and universities in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia is high, although teaching methods remain traditional. Also, English has become a medium of instruction as well as a subject area.

Previous Career Experience and Career Goals

I have two distinct experiences in teaching English as a foreign and as a second language. My first experience was during my studies at Al-Kharj University, which has subsequently been renamed Prince Sattam Bin Abdul-Aziz University. One of the requirements for graduation for a bachelor’s degree in English Language was practical training as a teacher for two months. The first month of the practical training was in a classroom at the seventh to ninth grade (middle school) level, and the second month took place in a classroom at the tenth to twelfth grade level (high school).

As I did the practical training as a teacher for two months, I taught the students two times per week, which was a useful experience for me. Nevertheless, I recognized that not all students liked English, so I tried to explain the importance of the English language in many domains. Unfortunately, some students were not persuaded. There were many reasons the students gave for not liking English: because they did not understand it, and because they needed the teachers to use the Arabic language to explain some things to them. As a
result, I discovered that using Arabic in teaching English gave the students more understanding and more interaction.

The second experience was different from the first experience in many ways. My second experience was in the United States of America. There was a compulsory class for all graduate students in the TESOL program to apply what they learned in schools or English language programs. Therefore, I chose to apply what I learned and to be a teacher at CSUSB’s English Language Program for a quarter. The English Language Program has students from diverse countries and cultures, and all of them came to learn English. I recognized that they liked English, and they wanted to speak English all of the time. Teaching over there helped me to learn more teaching techniques.

The TESOL program has helped me establish teaching goals that will help me in teaching students in the university. The first goal is choosing useful textbooks that make the learning process easier for students. The second goal is using technology that focuses on communicative skills such as discussion on the Blackboard learning system. The third goal is increasing the role of students by helping them to be the center of the classroom. The fourth goal is helping them and giving them the motivation to learn. The final goal is that I would suggest using students’ native and target languages and cultures because it is a beneficial way to teach and understand them.
Purpose of the Thesis

This thesis focuses on the importance of the intercultural communicative competence (ICC) of teachers and learners in English as a second and foreign language contexts at college and university levels. This is a pilot study that explores a mediational model whose various aspects foster linguistic and cultural growth of ICC. The first objective of the study is to investigate the instructional activities that foster linguistic and cultural aspects of ICC. The second objective is to document the use of a mediational model with its subset of mediational tools, and how these mediational tools improve the participants' ICC. The third objective is to use a variety of assessments to document individuals' mediational efficacy in increasing the ICC of their peers and themselves. The fourth objective is to explore the use of an electronic platform—a wiki—as a tool for self-reflection and mediation. In sum, the overall purpose is to highlight a new model of ICC mediation that maximizes classroom-based ICC growth.

Content of the Thesis

This thesis comprises five chapters. The first chapter discusses the background of English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, the background of the researcher, and the purpose, content, and the importance of the thesis. The second chapter provides a review of the literature that contains five key ideas, which are intercultural communicative competence (ICC), translanguaging, intercultural mediation in language teaching and learning, peer coaching, and assessing intercultural communicative competence. The third chapter offers a
theoretical framework as well as the procedure of the project. The fourth chapter provides the results of the project. The last chapter offers a conclusion of the project.

Significance of the Thesis

This thesis highlights the importance of ICC in teaching and learning English. This thesis offers ways for teachers to deploy ICC in the classroom, and offers ways that teachers can use it in assessing learners. This thesis highlights the importance of self-reflection for both teachers and learners, and provides valuable information that will help teachers and educators in teaching and learning English.
CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Intercultural Communicative Competence

The Internet and other forms of modern technology provide ample opportunity for interaction among people from different cultures, which requires that individuals demonstrate intercultural communicative competence (ICC). Moreover, many fields, especially business and education, require staff competent in intercultural communication because they interact with people from diverse cultures. Therefore, people should share a language of interaction, which according to Dombi (2011) is English; the lingua franca of intercultural communication today. Thus, ICC is necessary in the educational field, especially in teaching English as a second or foreign language, for two reasons. First, educators will face other educators or learners who have different native languages or cultures. Second, deploying and teaching ICC in the classroom is a necessity because people live in a quickly changing, globalized world.

The purpose of this paper is to show the importance of ICC in English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts, specifically related to curricula creation and lesson planning. This paper provides multiple definitions of ICC as well as discussing the necessity for ICC in linguacultural education. Also, it provides the components of ICC, the connection between identity and ICC, and contemporary theories about ICC.
The Definition of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

Defining communication and culture leads to a definition of intercultural communication and ICC. Communication is the chief skill that humans use when interacting. Researchers and scholars cannot agree on a definition for communication because everyone has his or her way of thinking about it. However, Neuliep (2015) defined communication as “the dynamic process of encoding and decoding verbal and nonverbal messages” (p. 17). It is a process that consists of a sender, a message, and a receiver. The meaning of any message is embedded in the context, which is the situation or setting in which communication happens. Moreover, communication is either intentional or unintentional. Intentional communication has objectives, such as entertainment, persuasion, and information; whereas the unintentional usually does not have conscious objectives, but can also add meaning or emphasis. Through communication, humans can define themselves easily, express feelings and opinions, and amplify or reduce conflict.

Furthermore, there are many definitions of culture. According to Neuliep (2015), culture is “accumulated patterns of values, beliefs, and behaviors shared by an identifiable group of people with a common history and verbal and nonverbal symbol system” (p. 20). The cultures can be recognized and differentiated by people’s values and beliefs; for example, “Americans value independence, but Japanese value interdependence” (Neuliep, 2015, p. 20). Also, cultures are “the rules for living and functioning in society” (Samovar,
Porter, & McDaniel, 2006, p. 10). Therefore, cultures differ among societies. Diaz-Rico (2014) offered a general definition of culture drawn from different scholars, and it is the most appropriate definition of culture for this context:

**Culture** is the explicit and implicit patterns for living, the dynamic system of commonly agreed-upon symbols and meanings, knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law, customs, behaviors, traditions, and/or habits that are shared and make up the total way of life of a people, as negotiated by individuals in the process of constructing a personal identity. (p. 243)

**Intercultural Communication.** When two individuals from different cultures communicate, it constitutes intercultural communication. Many scholars and researchers have written about intercultural communication; however, Hall (1959) was the first one who used the term intercultural communication in his book *The Silent Language*. Hall wrote the definition from an anthropological perspective; many scholars were influenced by his book, including Neuliep (2015), who defined intercultural communication as what occurs between people who have different cultures as they exchange information using verbal (language) and nonverbal symbols. Thus, people use both their native language and culture and the target language and culture to communicate.

Moreover, intercultural communication in linguacultural education (which will be defined, to follow) means exchanging information about languages and cultures in order to learn about the target language or to achieve goals in teaching the target language. For example, an English learner engages in the
target culture to acquire the language, and he or she can learn more about the
native culture and language by interacting with others to teach them about their
native culture and language. Also, an English language teacher who teaches
ESL students engages and interacts with different cultures because most
students are from different cultures. On the other hand, an English teacher who
teaches EFL students tries to involve students in the target culture, such as
American or British, etc., to deliver the information with a supportive cultural
context (Dombi, 2011).

Therefore, an intercultural communication approach is crucial for English
language teachers and learners either in the ESL or the EFL contexts. However,
teachers and language learners may face uncertainty, anxiety, and nervousness
when interacting with an individual from a different culture, a “stranger,”
according to Gudykunst (2005). Therefore, English language teachers and
learners need to have competence in communication, which may reduce this
unease. The competence does not mean native speakers’ competence but
means intercultural communicative competence (Byram, 1997).

**Communicative Competence (CC).** Native speakers’ competence can
include CC, which means not just knowing the verbal and nonverbal symbols, but
“when to speak or not, what to say to whom, and how to say it appropriately in
any given situation” (Saville-Troike, 2012, p. 106). In the classroom, CC is based
on native speakers’ ways of interacting without focusing on students’ differences
in languages, backgrounds, knowledge, and skills (Swan, 1985).
Therefore, there is a shift from CC to ICC, according to Kohler (2015), because there is a need to use both target language and culture and native language and culture. Kramsch (1999) theorized ICC as a third place because learners use their first culture and language to develop ICC (first space), acquire or learn about target culture and language (second space), and create and use an intermediate, hybrid (third space) to do so. Therefore, learners acquire an understanding of the differences between target and native culture, which helps them to “reconcile or mediate between different modes present in any specific interaction” (Byram & Fleming, 1998, p. 12).

**Intercultural Communicative Competence.** ICC has many definitions because many scholars from different disciplines write about ICC. According to Spitzberg (1997), competence is an ability that “must be viewed as a social evaluation of behavior” (p. 380). There are two kinds of competence: appropriateness, which means following valued rules; and effectiveness, which means achievement of valued objectives or aims (Spitzberg, 1997). Moreover, Spitzberg (1997) modeled ICC as an interaction “of two individuals' motivation to communicate, knowledge of communication in that context, and skills in implementing their motivation and knowledge” (p. 380).

Also, there is another definition of ICC as provided by Deardorff (2004), which is “the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in an intercultural situation based on one’s intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes” (p. 194). Deardorff (2004) combined the two kinds of competence that Spitzberg
(1997) explicated, as both of them are required for ICC. Moreover, Corbett (2003) defined ICC in teaching English context as “the ability to understand the language and behavior of the target community, and explain it to members of the home community—and vice versa” (p. 2). For example, English language educators should have an ability to understand the rules and attitudes of the target culture in order to teach their learners both the language and the context of the language, which is culture, as they move between target and native cultures. Therefore, learners and educators need to recognize and value the similarities and differences between native and target cultures and languages, and along the way, acquire “a more objective view” of their own culture (Corbett, 2003).

Moreover, Corbett (2003) mentioned that ICC is a complicated combination of knowledge and skills. Also, Fantini (2012) defined ICC as “a complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself” (p. 271). Fantini (2012) wrote about various skills that require an individual to be competent in intercultural communication, such as being open minded and flexible, motivated, proficient in languages, and knowledgeable about both cultures.

Also, Byram (1997) wrote about five formulations of types of knowledge and skills, called saviors, or factors of ICC, as shown in Figure 2.1, that educators and learners need because these knowledge and skills help them to be competent in ICC and mediate between cultures. Also, they help teachers to
create communicative curricula, or frameworks for teaching English. The first formulation is knowledge of self and other in order to know how to communicate with others. The second formulation is skill, which is how an individual understands, translates, and shares information. The third formulation is critical cultural awareness in acknowledgement of the political aspect. The fourth formulation is the skill for discovering information from other cultures. The last formulation is knowing how to relativize oneself, and value others’ beliefs and attitudes.

Figure 2.1. Factors in Intercultural Communication
Moreover, Jandt (2016) and Neuliep (2015) wrote about the skills of ICC, such as knowledge that includes understanding the native and target cultures’ values, customs, and beliefs, which leads to the culture of awareness (Jandt, 2016). This knowledge includes knowing about verbal and nonverbal symbols that are appropriate in the culture. Also, such knowledge includes the cognitive symbol system, which is the self-awareness “of one’s own personal cultural identity and understanding how cultures vary” (Jandt, 2016, p. 53). Therefore, knowledge about the native culture and target culture is a skill that educators and learners need to be competent in intercultural communication.

In addition, Neuliep (2015) wrote about another skill of ICC, which is psychological adjustment, which means dealing with a new culture and environment without a feeling of culture shock or frustration, and having a motivation for interacting with others from different cultures. According to Neuliep (2015), knowledge and psychological adjustment are interdependent because when someone has adequate knowledge about a given culture, he or she has motivation and less stress regarding communication in that culture.

To sum up, defining communication, culture and intercultural communication, and providing various definitions of ICC are important to determining the best definition for ICC. Intercultural communicative competence in general is effective communication between two individuals who are from different cultures. In teaching English in an ESL context, ICC is the ability to interact effectively with students who are from different cultures. Instructors can
use a variety of activities, and ask questions to mediate between both the native and the target cultures and languages.

In the EFL context, ICC is the ability to interact effectively with teachers who are from different cultures, and with students who are in different levels in the target culture and language. This is accomplished by making a comparison between cultures and creating a comfortable environment—a third place—that helps to negotiate cultural differences. Also, ICC is the ability to comprehend the target language and culture in order to teach and explain it to English language learners because they need to understand the target culture in order to understand texts. ICC requires various skills or saviors, such as knowledge, psychological adjustment, self-awareness, motivation, and critical cultural awareness.

**The Necessity for Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) in Linguacultural Education**

ICC is crucial in many areas of life, particularly education, and especially in linguacultural education. According to Agar (1996), linguacultural education involves the need to know about the target culture in order to learn the target language, which means integrating culture in teaching and learning. This kind of education is important to implement in order to assist students to learn more about the target culture’s social practices and acquire the language more easily. There are many international students who cannot pass the TOEFL or IELTS examination in their own country because they lack competence in intercultural communication.
As a result, educators should use linguacultural education to increase students’ ICC because it has many benefits. The first benefit is that ICC helps to create a healthy community that values differences in individuals (Neuliep, 2015). ICC used in linguacultural curricula helps students and educators value all races, religions, ethnicities, and genders, which will help them to work and communicate effectively with one another, as well as be more willing to sustain relationships. For example, if educators and students are competent in intercultural communication, they will understand each other more easily and will gain more benefits from this communication. Educators can attain their goals in teaching the English language, and learners can learn the language more easily and comprehensively.

The second benefit of ICC in linguacultural education is that competence in intercultural communication helps to reduce conflicts and misunderstandings in the second language or the foreign language that can occur among educators themselves and among learners from different cultures (Neuliep, 2015). Reducing conflicts and cultural misunderstandings requires reading about other cultures and erasing stereotypes by communicating with others. For example, ESL educators may have conflicts with learners who are from various cultures in linguacultural education, and EFL educators may have the same conflicts with other educators or learners who are not from their cultures. Therefore, ICC as part of linguacultural education is crucial for teaching English.
The third benefit is that ICC leads to individuals’ personal development (Neuliep, 2015). When educators have intercultural communication competency, they will understand other cultures better, and they will grow personally. Also, they will discover that they share some ideas or traits with others. Therefore, differences between cultures are not barriers for communication among individuals. The fourth benefit is that individuals’ ICC will help them to know more about the English language because learners will learn more about verbal and nonverbal messages in a larger variety of contexts, which leads to anxiety reduction while communicating.

To sum up, there is a need for ICC in linguacultural education for educators and learners. There are four benefits of implementing ICC in linguacultural education: ICC helps learners and educators to value differences in cultures; ICC helps to decrease conflicts among learners and educators in linguacultural education; ICC improves the understanding of other cultures, which aids in personality development; and ICC offers more understanding of the target language.

**Components of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)**

**Verbal Communication.** There are two components of intercultural communicative competence, verbal and nonverbal communication. First of all, verbal communication uses verbal language. According to Martin and Nakayama (2000), verbal communication or language has four components: semantics, syntactic, pragmatic, and phonetics. The first component, semantics, is the
study of meaning of vocabulary words and how to use them in communication.
The syntactic component is the study of grammar, and how changing the order of
a sentence affects the meaning of communication. Pragmatics is the study of
language in the social context. The last component, phonetics, is the study of
sounds in language. ESL and EFL educators and learners are at different levels
in English and in their native languages. Learning these components gives
learners and educators greater linguistic competence. However, this linguistic
competence must have a relationship with culture and communication in order to
develop into ICC.

Languages have a relationship with cultures. According to Brown (1994),
"a language is a part of a culture and a culture is a part of a language," which
means making a separation between them is impossible (p. 165). In
linguacultural education, communication is intrinsic to culture and language, and
without culture and language, there is no communication (Jiang, 2000).
Therefore, teaching and learning a language requires knowing about its culture.
Saville-Troike (2012) mentioned that acculturation, gaining knowledge about a
culture and its values, is important in acquiring a second language. Also,
teaching and learning a language requires knowing how to communicate
effectively in a specific language community, which means having
communicative competence (Saville-Troike, 2003). However, other scholars
claim, "that language and culture are inseparable is not without contestation"
(Kohler, 2015, p. 25). According to Risager (2007), language is not culture, and
culture is not language because individuals can acquire a foreign or a second language without integrating into another culture.

Because many scholars claim that there is a relationship between language, culture, and communication, it is important to be knowledgeable about the components of verbal communication in order to be competent in intercultural communication. Educators of the English language should respect the accents of other educators. They should understand that the components of verbal communication or language vary among various learners in order to improve students’ second-language acquisition. For example, when writing sentences in Arabic a subject follows a verb, but when writing sentences in English, a verb usually follows a subject. Educators should work with learners to spread cultural awareness about these differences in order to promote respect between learners as well as educators about differences in learners and languages.

According to Martin and Nakayama (2000), code switching, or using a mixture of two languages, among English language learners is normal because their “native language’s semantics, syntactic, pragmatics, and phonetics often overlap into the second language and create a third way of communication” (p. 234). Therefore, code-switching and translanguaging are often features of ICC, and both learners and educators can use these means when teaching English.

In ICC, there is a need to know the styles of verbal communication that are different from culture to culture. There are four verbal communication styles that have been identified by intercultural theorists: direct versus indirect,
elaborate versus exacting, personal versus contextual, and instrumental versus effective styles (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988). The first style is direct versus indirect, which means clear messages versus unclear messages that feature ambiguity. The direct style shows up in low-context cultures, such as the American culture, but indirect style shows up in high-context cultures, such as various Asian cultures (Neuliep, 2015).

The second style is elaborate versus exacting styles, in which the elaborate style “emphasizes flashy and embellished language,” whereas the exacting style focuses in using specific amount of language to deliver the message (Neuliep, 2015, p. 261). For example, the elaborate style shows up in the Middle Eastern cultures because many people in Middle East tend to utilize metaphors and similes in their conversation. However, the exacting style shows up more in American culture.

The third style is personal versus contextual styles, in which personal style means using the first and second person pronouns in verbal communication with all people whether high or low status (Neuliep, 2015). For example, people in the American culture uses pronouns “I” or “you” with all people in all situations. However, the contextual style means using different pronouns by emphasizing individuals’ status and situation. For example, “there are at least ten words that might be equivalent to the English “I” in Japan because they differentiate between individuals depending on their status (Neuliep, 2015, p. 266).
The last style is instrumental versus effective styles, which mean focusing on achieving goals through verbal communication versus focusing on process in order to be understood (Neuliep, 2015). For example, mainstream American culture values the instrumental style where as the mainstream Chinese culture focuses on the effective style. Therefore, ESL and EFL educators need to know these styles in order to understand other educators and learners who are from different cultures.

**Nonverbal Communication.** The second component of ICC is nonverbal communication. It “focuses on the messages people send to one another that do not contain words” (Neuliep, 2015, p. 281). These messages are sent through “facial expressions, eye gaze, gestures, body positions, and spatial orientation or proxemics” (Saville-Troike, 2012, p. 158). Nonverbal communication varies among many cultures. Learning other cultures’ nonverbal communication is done through interacting.

In order for ESL and EFL educators to have effective ICC, they should be aware of nonverbal communication among various cultures, for many reasons. The first reason is that they can reduce conflicts and misunderstandings between learners and other educators. The second reason is that they can better understand second-language and foreign-language learners who are not fluent in English because learners will often use gestures when they lack vocabulary. The third reason is that educators can use nonverbal communication or signals to convey the meaning or lesson more easily because it has a positive effect on
learning (Macedonia, Muller, & Friederici, 2011). The fourth reason is that they can use it to gain students’ attention. Thus, educators should teach students how to use nonverbal communication in the English language. Moreover, ESL and EFL learners should understand nonverbal communication in order to understand their teachers.

According to Neuliep (2015), there are many types of nonverbal communication. The first type is kinesics, which includes facial expressions, eye contact, gestures, and body movements. This type varies across cultures. For example, greetings, which require body movement, are enacted in Japan through bowing, but in the U.S. through handshaking. The second type is paralanguage, which concerns adding meaning to a sentence by using different vocal qualities, such as intonation. The third type is proxemics, which is “the study of how people use personal space, or the bubble around us that marks the territory between ourselves and others” (Martin & Nakayama, 2000, p. 260). For example, there are contact cultures where people stand beside each other to interact and use direct eye contact, and there are noncontact cultures, which is the opposite of the contact cultures (Neuliep, 2015).

The fourth type is physical appearance and dress, which entails nonverbal communication because we can identify a person’s class, ethnicity, economic status, and culture through their way of dressing. Physical appearance and dress differ among cultures and between genders. The last type is chronemics, which concerns “time and the rules that govern its use” (Martin & Nakayama, 2000, p.
Across cultures, there are two kinds of chronemics, monochronic (an event occurs at a time) and polychronic (many events occur at a time) (Martin & Nakayama, 2000).

Educators should know about these ways or channels of nonverbal communication in order to interact effectively with others. Also, they should mention ways to use nonverbal communication when they teach learners the English language, and learners should be aware of nonverbals in order to communicate with others effectively. Furthermore, the difference between verbal and nonverbal communication is apparent. Verbal communication is sending a message through literal content, whereas nonverbal communication is “the style or how the message is to be interpreted” (Neuliep, 2015, p. 282). Nonverbal communication supplements verbal communication. Neuliep (2015) called verbal communication “digital communication” and nonverbal communication “analogic communication,” because nonverbal communication happens unconsciously (p. 282).

In conclusion, verbal and nonverbal communication are important components of ICC. ESL and EFL educators should have knowledge about them in order to communicate effectively with other educators and learners who are from different cultures. Also, they should teach students these components that are related to the English language, so educators can reduce conflicts that learners will face in the future. Each kind of communication has its own ways or styles that help people to understand other cultures.
The Connection between Identity and Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

Learners and educators illustrate their identities during communication; but what are identities? Identities are composed of “personalities, intellectual ability, and interests” (Diaz-Rico, 2013, p. 260). Also, identity is “the concept of who we are” (Martin & Nakayama, 2000, p. 154). Hence, identity is shown through peoples' personalities, abilities, beliefs, and characteristics that make them different. Cultural identities are “negotiated, co-created, reinforced, and challenged through communication” (Samovar, Porter, & McDaniel, 2006, p. 56).

Collier and Thomas (1988) created cultural identity theory, which is the specific character of a group communication system that appears in certain situations. Since their work, culture has been seen as integral to identity. In this theory, there are six assumptions, five axioms, and a theorem, as shown in Table 2.1.

Although this theory has six assumptions and five axioms, the most important ones that are related to linguacultural education and teaching English are two ideas. First, learners or educators can have different identities in different situations or discourses. Therefore, ESL and EFL educators should understand that learners' identities in the target language and culture are different from their identities in their native language and culture. Secondly, asking learners or educators about their cultural identities to get information will help them to be competent in IC. Because educators implement the target culture while teaching
the English language, they should teach learners the cultural identity norms in that culture.

Table 2.1. Cultural Identity Theory

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assumptions</th>
<th>Axioms</th>
<th>Theorem</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Individuals negotiate multiple identities in discourse.</td>
<td>The more that norms and meanings differ in discourse, the more intercultural the contact.</td>
<td>The more cultural identities are avowed, the more important they are relative to other identities. Meaning that individuals who have cultural identities that are famous and known by others, they can communicate with others easily because they have the same similarities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercultural communication occurs by the discursive assumption and avowal of differing cultural identities.</td>
<td>The more individuals have ICC, the better they are able to develop and maintain intercultural relationships.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercultural communication competence involves managing meanings coherently.</td>
<td>The more that cultural identities differ in the discourse, the more intercultural the contact.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercultural communication competence involves negotiating mutual meanings and rules.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercultural communication competence involves validating cultural identities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural identity varies.</td>
<td>The more one person’s ascribed cultural identity, the more the intercultural communication.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Linguistic references to cultural identity systematically covary.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to Gee (2000), there are four ways to view identity, which are nature, institution, discourse, and affinity ways, as shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2. Four Ways to View Identity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Power</th>
<th>Source of power</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Nature-identity: a</td>
<td>Developed from forces</td>
<td>In nature</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>state</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Institution-identity:</td>
<td>Authorized by authorities</td>
<td>Within institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a position</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Discourse-identity:</td>
<td>Recognized in the discourse/</td>
<td>Of/with “rational”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an individual trait</td>
<td>dialogue</td>
<td>individuals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Affinity-identity:</td>
<td>Shared in the practice</td>
<td>Of “affinity groups”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experiences</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Gee’s framework speaks of “affinity-identity,” but he does not necessarily see this as cultural. Therefore, it is difficult to reconcile Gee's framework with those identity theories that include culture as a part of identity. So, Gee’s framework, useful in its focus on power and discursive aspects of identity, has not been as influential in the study of ICC.

According to Martin & Nakayama (2000), there are three communication perspectives of identity that educators should be aware of. The first perspective is from social science, which is that identity is shaped by the self and in relation to groups. The second perspective is interpretive, which is “more dynamic and recognizes the important role of interaction with others as a factor in the
development of the self” (Martin & Nakayama, 2000, p. 154). The third perspective is critical, which is identity that is “shaped through social, historical forces” (Martin & Nakayama, 2000, p. 155).

Moreover, identity “serves as a bridge between culture and communication” because learners and educators confirm their identities and their cultures through communication (Martin & Nakayama, 2000, p. 154). Identity has a relationship with ICC because identity is demonstrated through communication and is a part of culture. In addition, English-language educators should be aware of bicultural identity, which is “intimate knowledge of more than one culture” (Diaz-Rico, 2013, p. 260). Educators should understand that learners are different and have different backgrounds. ICC encourages bicultural identity because educators “help students to adapt to shifts in identity and values that may occur” (Diaz-Rico, 2013, p. 266). Educators can help learners to improve their values and engage in the target culture without losing their native culture.

In conclusion, identity is composed of personality, ability, and interests. Also, there are three communication perspectives on identity; there is a relationship between identity and ICC because characteristics, abilities, and affinities are important components that demonstrate one’s culture during communication. This cultural identity theory shows that learners and educators have different identities in each situation or discourse.
Contemporary Theories of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

There are no theories that focus specifically on ICC, but there is a theory that focuses on culture and communication. A constructivist theory of communication and culture was created by Applegate and Sypher (1988), who think that culture explains the sense or logic of communication, which is communicating to share and exchange ideas in order to obtain specific goals. Cultures have different ways of communicating, and individuals have different goals for communication. Individuals construct understanding and knowledge from their cultural backgrounds and convey these through communication in order to reach a goal.

The constructivist theory is also known in the education system. Learners “create their own new understanding based upon the interaction of what they already know and believe” (Richardson, 1997, p. 3). Learners and educators share their cultures by communicating what they know and believe in order to obtain new knowledge or attain specific goals. Therefore, educators should be aware of learners’ cultures and try to understand their communicative goals in order to understand them.

Moreover, educators need to implement an intercultural learning approach in teaching English in ESL or EFL contexts (Corbett, 2003). There are two frameworks in the intercultural approach. The first framework is treating “learners as ethnographers” (Corbett, 2003, p. 34). Ethnography means “the study of a group’s social and cultural practices from an insider’s perspective” (Roberts,
Byram, Barro, Jordan, & Street, 2001, p. 3). Hence, English language learners are functioning as observers and describers. Educators should integrate linguistic and cultural learning to facilitate interaction, and compare cultures in order to develop learners' ICC (Byram & Fleming, 1998).

The second framework is “addressing the needs of different learners,” which means that educators should be aware of English learners' levels and needs so they can address their needs in curricula and courses (Corbett, 2003, p. 35). Learners are different because some of them may be less or more interested in the target culture and some of them are motivated to learn, whereas others are not. Educators need to design tasks that help them and their learners to be competent in intercultural communication. Educators use six components to develop cultural awareness, cultural knowledge, and communication skills (Nunan, 1989), as follow.

The first component consists of goals. Educators should make goals that are a combination of intercultural investigation and linguistic growth. For example, educators can set a goal for investigating the formal and informal language in the target culture. The second component is input, which means the materials that teachers use, such as written text, spoken text, and visual aids. The third component is activities, which are communicative activities that help learners to achieve the lesson goals. The fourth component is the learner's role, which appears through activities. Teachers should simplify activities and tasks, so learners can feel confidence while they do them. The fifth component is the
teacher’s role. It is the most important component because teachers are responsible for explaining tasks and goals that promote ICC. The last component is the setting, which includes learners doing the activities through pair work or group work (Nunan, 1989).

Finally, the constructivist and the intercultural learning approaches are related to ICC. Constructivist theory seems to be a synthesis of the ideas covered in this paper. In constructivist theory, learners and educators share their cultures by sharing what they know and believe in order to obtain new information or achieve particular aims. Both of these frameworks of the intercultural learning approach can help educators to implement ICC.

Conclusion

In conclusion, scholars have written many definitions about various aspects and implications for ICC across many fields, from anthropology to education. ICC in teaching and learning English is the ability to interact effectively with teachers and students who are from different cultures, which is critically important in teaching English in the ESL or EFL contexts. Instructors can use a variety of activities, ask questions to mediate between both the native culture and language and the target culture and language, and identify differences between cultures. Also, ICC is the ability to comprehend the target language and culture as well as the native culture of students in order to teach English language learners because they need to understand the target culture in order to communicate effectively without loss of information. This is obviously essential in
modern societies, which require high levels of literacy in order to succeed in life, which is the goal of all teachers for their students.

ICC has two components, verbal and nonverbal. ESL and EFL educators should have knowledge about both to interact effectively with other educators and learners who are from different cultures. Teachers should ensure that students do not lose information when they communicate in the target language due to cultural verbal and nonverbal differences. Also, obtaining knowledge about identity is important for educators because this has a relationship with ICC; and because characteristics and abilities are essential factors that explain culture through communication, and these factors involve identities. Finally, both the constructivist and the intercultural learning approaches are important in teaching English because they help teachers to attain their goals and students to acquire language more easily.

Translanguaging in Bilingual Classrooms

The many bilingual learners around the world are, for the most part, in the Inner Circle countries, which are the countries with English as their native language. Garcia (2009) called English learners emergent bilinguals. According to Diaz-Rico (2013), there are four types of bilingual students and learners: balanced bilingual, monolingual/literate in the native language, monolingual/preliterate in the native language, and limited bilingual. These various types of bilingual students or learners are in different levels in their native language and their second language, which is English in this context. The focus
of this paper will be on monolinguals who are either literate or preliterate in their native language.

Bilingual learners need bilingual education, with curricula based on their varied proficiencies in their native and second languages. Bilingual education is the use of two languages as a medium of instruction. Developmental bilingual education is focused on preserving and continuing the growth of the primary language while students are learning a second language. In bilingual classrooms, teachers use a variety of pedagogies to convey lessons and information to learners. Some teachers who teach bilingual classrooms focus a pedagogy predicated on separating languages, whereas others use translanguage. In this literature review, the focus will be on translanguage pedagogy in the bilingual classroom.

The selection of the topic is based on my interest in finding a pedagogy that helps bilingual learners to continue to learn their native language while simultaneously learning English. My interest came from my role as an English learner in a second and foreign language classroom who was not allowed to use the first language in the classroom, although it was a bilingual classroom. Therefore, I chose this topic because I suffered from language-separation pedagogy.

The purpose of the literature review is to convince educators and encourage learners to use translanguage because it is beneficial in bilingual classrooms. The literature review discusses the definition of translanguage,
terms that are related to translanguaging, bilingual learners’ use of translanguaging, translangauing pedagogy in bilingual classrooms, language-separation pedagogy, bilingual learners’ use of translangauing in writing, translangauing pedagogy in writing, and translangauing and writing with multimodality.

Definition of Translanguaging

The term translanguaging (TL) was generated in 1996 by Colin Williams, who defined translanguaging as “a pedagogical practice where students are asked to alternate languages for the purposes of receptive or productive use; for example, students might be asked to read in English and write in Welsh and vice versa” (p. 45). In other words, teachers allow students to use two or more different languages, depending on their specific educational goals.

Other researchers have developed Williams’s definition, such as Baker (2011), who has viewed translanguaging not as a teaching method, but rather a way of using two languages to gain new knowledge. However, the most often utilized definition of translanguaging comes from Garcia and Wei (2014), as follows:

Translanguaging is an approach to the use of language, bilingualism and the education of bilinguals that considers the language practices of bilinguals not as two autonomous language systems as has been traditionally the case, but as one linguistic repertoire with features that
have been societally constructed as belonging to two separate languages.

(p. 2)

Translanguaging does not mean two separate language systems or two linguistic repertoires that bilingual learners move between. Basically, it is the two languages of a bilingual person united in one linguistic system. Bilingual learners use their linguistic repertoire containing features of both languages as an integrated system. Translanguaging is a language practice for bilingual learners as well as a pedagogical strategy that teachers can use in bilingual classrooms “to foster language and literacy development” (Hornberger & Link, 2012, p. 242).

Terms That Are Related to Translanguaging

There are many terms that were used before the term translanguaging. One of these terms is *code-switching* (CT), which is a practice that is utilized by bilingual learners. It is an alternation and shifting between two languages and two linguistic systems. Therefore, students use their multiple linguistic systems to achieve specific purposes, such as “to reduce social distance and reinforce solidarity or to demonstrate status or authority and increase social distance” (Sayer, 2013, p. 69).

According to Diaz-Rico (2013), code-switching is an indirect strategy for communication between learners and teachers. Also, it can be a direct strategy; for example, teachers may informally use bilingual learners’ first language in a second or a foreign-language environments for clarifying points or concepts. However, some scholars, researchers, and teachers do not use code-switching
as a direct strategy or as a pedagogy for teaching because they find that the
overuse of code-switching affects bilingual learners negatively (Otheguy, García,
& Reid, 2015, p. 282). Therefore, the term code-switching has had a negative
connotation in the education field.

Translanguaging is not the same as code-switching; rather it “goes
beyond code-switching in education because it refers to the process by which
bilingual students perform bilingually in the myriad multimodal ways of
classrooms—reading, writing, taking notes, discussing, signing, etc.” (Garcia,
2011, p. 147). Translanguaging is more than switching between two languages; it
draws upon the dual language systems of a bilingual student in a linguistic
repertoire that contains features from both languages.

Translanguaging is a way to conceptualize dynamic bilingualism, which
“suggests that the language practices of bilinguals are complex and interrelated;
they do not emerge in a linear way or function separately since there is only one
linguistic system” (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 14). Moreover, Garcia and Wei (2014)
used the image of an all-terrain vehicle to convey the meaning of
translanguaging as a dynamic bilingualism by simulating the vehicle as bilingual
learners who use the entire linguistic repertoire for communication. Bilingual
learners in translanguaging use one linguistic repertoire that has linguistic
features that bilinguals choose from critically to interact sufficiently or
successfully.
Moreover, another term is codemeshing, which is different from code-switching but similar to translanguaging. According to Canagarajah (2011), who was the one who posited the term, codemeshing “treats the languages as part of a single integrated system” (p. 403). It is a communicative means that is used in writing, using two languages as one integrated system for particular goals. Therefore, codemeshing is like translanguaging because it indicates one integrated system, but in codemeshing there is “mixing communicative modes and diverse symbol systems other than language” which makes it different from translanguaging (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 403).

Kramsch (1999) theorized the existence of a third place in which those whose language and culture differ could find a common ground. A loose conception of translanguaging could be the use of a third language as a lingua franca that allows individuals to communicate using their full linguistic repertoire.

Code-switching, translanguaging, codemeshing, and third space are terms that describe language behaviors that emergent bilinguals and bilingual learners use. These terms are distinct in use and definition. Also, there are more terms that are related to translanguaging, such as borrowing and translation. However, translanguaging is being used nowadays because it has a great potential effect on the education system in general and learners in particular, and many teachers are supporting it. In particular, translanguaging in a form of the use of the third space creates a conceptual bridge to the use of English as a lingua franca and supports the use of the common third language of the instructor and students.
Bilingual Learners’ Use of Translanguaging in Classrooms

In bilingual classrooms, there are two forms of translanguaging, which are “natural translanguaging and official translanguaging” (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 91). The first one, natural translanguaging, is pupil-directed translanguaging, meaning that students use translanguaging to learn naturally in small groups or pairs. They use translanguaging for making meaning of, or understanding, the content.

Bilingual learners have complicated social identities, complicated social histories, and various needs. Also, they need to engage in learning, which Norton (2000) has called “investment” (p. 195). Therefore, in order to invest in learning language, they need two things, which are as follows:

On the one hand, learners need a secure sense of self that allows them to appropriate new language practices as they engage in a continuous becoming. On the other, learners must be able to cognitively engage with learning and to act on learning. (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 79)

Hence, they need translanguaging because it helps them to engage socially and cognitively in learning to construct meaning and expand their knowledge in languages. Also, translanguaging is important as a way to “mediate students’ identity” (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 79). Bilingual learners can construct identities that help them to invest in learning (Wei, 2011). This helps students to self-regulate their learning, and increases their self-efficacy.
Moreover, translanguaging is important in bilingual education because it has many advantages that affect bilingual learners in classrooms positively. The first advantage of translanguaging is that it helps learners to gain full comprehension of classroom subjects and texts. The second advantage is that translanguaging helps bilingual learners to develop both languages (L1 and L2), creating a link between their home or native language and the school or classroom language because the native or home language is used as a source. Also, the native or home language serves many functions in bilingual classrooms, such as enhancing students’ writing and oral communication (Garcia & Wei, 2014).

Furthermore, translanguaging allows education in bilingual learners classrooms to be more flexible because translanguaging enables students to “make meaning by engaging their entire linguistic repertoire and expanding it” (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 71). The last advantage is that translanguaging emphasizes two concepts that are crucial to education: [linguistic] creativity and criticality. [Linguistic] creativity is the ability to select rules, norms, and features for the linguistic repertoire (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Therefore, students create their own language practices that draw on their full linguistic repertoire. The second concept is [linguistic] criticality, which is defined as follows:

The ability to use available evidence appropriately, systematically and insightfully to inform considered views of cultural, social, political and linguistic phenomena, to question and problematize received wisdom, and
to express views adequately through reasoned responses to situations.

(Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 67)

The two concepts, [linguistic] creativity and criticality, are linked and helped to soften boundaries between languages. Moreover, Garcia and Wei (2014) described the role of translanguaging in emergent bilinguals and bilingual learners: they do not gain a separate extra language, but they “develop and integrate new language practices into a complex dynamic bilingual repertoire” (p. 66). They use their entire linguistic and semiotic (meaning-making) repertoire to communicate and learn.

Bilingual students use translanguaging naturally in classrooms. Translanguaging has various benefits that affect bilingual learners. It has a role in encouraging [linguistic] creativity and criticality in bilingual learners, and it helps for making meaning and engaging them cognitively. Therefore, because it is used naturally by students, teachers can build upon it to use it pedagogically. Translanguaging Pedagogy in Bilingual Classrooms

Teachers need to use translanguaging pedagogy in bilingual classrooms because bilingual learners use it, naturally, in their interaction and in their writing. Teachers should use both forms of translanguaging, which are natural translanguaging and official translanguaging. The first form is natural translanguaging, which involves ways to utilize translanguaging informally, not pedagogically, with specific students or small groups, for specific reasons. Some teachers use natural translanguaging during discussion to ensure that students
comprehend words. Michael-Luna and Canagarajah (2007) illustrated this form of translanguaging by providing a conversation between a teacher and two students who read a text about the sun in English. In the conversation, the teacher used the natural form of translanguaging to explain the meaning of the word “warms.” In the sentence “The sun warms the earth,” the teacher asked students about the meaning of the word, and then illustrated the meaning for students (see Figure 2.2).

Teacher: Do you know what warms means? What does warm mean? (Long pause) No saben? (You don’t know?)
Students: {Shake heads 'No'}
Teacher: Oh, ahora caigo, now I understand. Calentar (to warm)
Student 1: Oooh calentar
Student 2: Calentar ... caras (to warm ... faces)
Teacher: So, [pointing to the text in the book] calienta su cara. (Warm one's/your face) so it warms (long pause) faces?
Student 2: The land.
Student 1: The land.

Figure 2.2. Natural Translanguaging Dialogue

Therefore, teachers use translanguaging naturally to explain a word by giving students the meaning of the word directly, and then asking students to use the word in new ways or new contexts. Students are thus using their entire linguistic lexicon, which speeds up their learning. This means that translanguaging is different from code-switching because in translanguaging,
learners use two language systems in one linguistic repertoire with features from both languages, such as using Spanish and English in the same sentence and in the whole conversation; whereas code-switching is shifting between languages, such as learners shifting or switching between languages in the middle of sentences or in the middle of conversations.

Also, the norms of both languages in translanguaging are “resisted and reconstructed into new wholes” (Michael-Luna & Canagarajah, 2007, p. 58). For example, in the dialogue in Figure 2.2, students and the instructor reconstructed the languages to construct new language practice. Code-switching keeps the underlying languages distinct, but translanguaging is more fluid.

The second form of translanguaging used by some instructors is official translanguaging, which is pedagogy- and teacher-directed translanguaging. Official translanguaging pedagogy contains planned, organized, and structured actions or activities for teachers in communication with learners (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Translanguaging pedagogy refers to “building on bilingual students’ language practices flexibly in order to develop new understandings and new language practices, including those deemed academic standard practices” (Garcia & Wei, 2014, p. 92). Teachers improve new knowledge and expand new language practices, which includes standard practices used for academic goals.

Teachers use official translanguaging pedagogy for important reasons. The first reason is that translanguaging pedagogy helps teachers explain the difficult part of a topic or text and convey the full message (Creese & Blackledge,
Therefore, it helps teachers to guarantee that students gain enhanced comprehension of a subject matter by using their full linguistic repertoire in explaining the subject or writing about it.

The second reason is that translinguaging pedagogy helps teachers to offer specific and differentiated instruction in order to ensure that students engage cognitively and socially because students have different backgrounds, education, and linguistic repertoires. Therefore, teachers are facilitators who set up instruction, and students are more in control of their own learning. The final reason is that translinguaging pedagogy is transformative because it helps teachers to improve the way they teach learners (Garcia & Wei, 2014). Teachers make the teaching process flexible by using translinguaging pedagogy.

Furthermore, there are two kinds of teachers who use translinguaging pedagogy: bilingual teachers and monolingual teachers. The first kind comprises bilingual teachers who use students’ native language along with English. The bilingual teachers use the English language for all materials, but they use students’ native language for discussion and in teaching to be sure that learners understand the content.

Also, the bilingual teachers who use translinguaging pedagogy emphasize the content by explaining it and encouraging students to expand their linguistic repertoires. As an example of bilingual teachers, Garcia and Wei (2014) provided a dialogue between students and a bilingual teacher of science, who used translinguaging pedagogy. The bilingual teacher of science used the
English language for all materials when teaching about earthquakes, but he taught students in Spanish and English to explain the lesson, as is shown in Figure 2.3.

Teacher: Hit the bar. Vamos con el foco. ¿Quién me puede leer lo que dice el foco, en inglés?
[Let’s go to the focus. Who can read to me what the focus is in English?].
Student 1: (Reads in English) Earthquakes are usually caused when rock underground suddenly breaks along a fault. The spot underground where the rock breaks is called the focus of the earthquake.
Teacher: What does it say?
Student 2: Focus is foco ... y abajo, underground, cuando hay un break, allí es que ocurre el earthquake....
Teacher: The earthquake happens cuando hay un break underground. Y qué es el focus?
Student 1: El focus es dónde ocurre el earthquake, dónde está el break, when rock break.

Figure 2.3. Bilingual Teachers’ Use of Translanguaging

The second kind of teachers who teach bilingual classrooms comprises monolingual teachers. Monolingual teachers are teachers who have only one language or who do not speak the same language that their students speak.

Although they are monolingual, they can use translanguaging pedagogy by using Google Translate or by asking students about the meaning of a concept in their native language.
Garcia and Wei (2014) provided an example of a monolingual teacher who taught Spanish speakers English, yet she did not speak Spanish. The monolingual teacher asked students to write a comparison essay, and she asked them to say the sentence in their own language, as is seen in Figure 2.4.

![Figure 2.4. Monolingual Teachers’ Use of Translanguaging (Part 1)](source)


The monolingual teacher saw that some students got the meaning. However, she wanted to explain more because she wanted to be sure that all students understood what they would write about. She offered a synonym of the word “comparison” and asked students to say the meaning, as is seen in Figure 2.5.

![Figure 2.5. Monolingual Teachers’ Use of Translanguaging (Part 2)](source)

Translanguaging appeared clearly in the previous dialogues, which help to identify the difference between code-switching and translanguaging. In these dialogues, there are “integrated codes” that are related to one linguistic repertoire, whereas code-switching is switching from one linguistic repertoire to another linguistic repertoire (Michael-Luna & Canagarajah, 2007, p. 58). Moreover, translanguaging is a pedagogical practice that teachers use in teaching students, and they can use it in the whole classroom, whereas code-switching is a practice, not a pedagogy (Park, 2013). Learners who use code-switching should be fluent in both languages. However, learners can use translanguaging without being fluent in both languages because their teachers (either bilingual or monolingual) and their classmates help them to get the meaning, similar to what happened in the dialogues. Also, translanguaging helps students to complete their growth in both languages as they and their teachers use both languages, as is shown in Figures 2.2, 2.3, 2.4, and 2.5. On the other hand, code-switching “focuses on balanced bilinguals” which means students balance their use of both languages (Michael-Luna & Canagarajah, 2007, p. 58).

In sum, teachers who teach in bilingual classrooms use both natural translanguaging and official translanguaging. Some teachers use translanguaging naturally to clarify a meaning of a word, whereas others use translanguaging officially for many reasons, such as explaining complicated parts of a topic and offering differentiated instruction to students. Today, some teachers who are bilinguals or monolinguals value translanguaging pedagogy.
because it helps them to be sure that bilingual learners understand subject-related and academic standard language successfully, and it helps them to clarify the content and make the learning process more flexible.

**Language-Separation Pedagogy in Bilingual Classrooms**

Some teachers still use language-separation pedagogy in bilingual classrooms. Cummins (2005) defined language-separation pedagogy in bilingual classrooms as “two solitudes” (p. 588). Bilingual learners have two monolingual languages that are unrelated. Teachers often use the major language of teaching in schools, such as English, without utilizing the bilingual learners’ native language. This is based on the belief that bilingual learners’ vernacular should be avoided in classrooms. For example, teachers who use language-separation pedagogy in bilingual classrooms in the U.S. often use the English language only, without using learners’ native language(s).

Teachers who use language-separation pedagogy argue that the use of languages other than English in bilingual classrooms is a sign of teachers’ deficiency; that teachers who use translanguaging pedagogy are not proficient in the English language, so they must use other languages to convey their ideas. Also, they believe that language-separation pedagogy makes it easier for bilingual learners to learn English quickly. Teachers who use language-separation pedagogy think that it is easier for bilingual learners to comprehend a new linguistic system without interference from the first language.
According to Garcia and Wei (2014), teachers who used language-separation pedagogy often punished students who used their first language in classrooms. Nowadays, teachers use assessment to punish students who use their first language by giving them low grades, which leads to failure in school. As a result, students in the classroom will be worried all the time about talking in their first languages, which leads to two negative effects. The first negative effect is that “there is no classroom interaction in which students express themselves and ask questions on the subjects taught” (Annamalai, 2005, p. 27). Students cannot interact in classrooms because they cannot express their opinions or ask questions. The other negative effect is that students will become quiet and lose their motivation to learn English.

The negative effects of language-separation pedagogy make it non-beneficial for bilingual learners. Therefore, the use of translanguaging pedagogy is needed for bilingual learners because it makes learning and teaching more flexible, and it encourages students to learn effectively.

**Bilingual Learners’ Use of Translanguaging in Writing**

Because there are many benefits of translanguaging for bilingual learners, they can use it in their writing. Using translanguaging in writing is complex, but bilingual learners can use it in their writing by utilizing their dual-language skills in writing in order to construct a sense of themselves and their readers. According to Garcia and Wei (2014), there are many writers who use translanguaging in
writing because they want to meet their readers’ or audiences’ needs. Therefore, translanguaging in writing is not a sign of linguistic deficiency.

There are four strategies of translanguaging that bilingual learners use in writing. Canagarajah (2011) identified the strategies of translanguaging that a college student from Saudi Arabia utilizes in writing. The four strategies of translanguaging are “recontextualization strategies, voice strategies, interactional strategies, and textualization strategies” (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 401).

The first strategy of translanguaging in writing is recontextualization, which means, “actively changing the level of comfort that the reader would have” (Velasco & Garcia, 2014, p. 11). The second strategy is voice, which means showing identity through writing. The third strategy is interactional, which means readers can negotiate the meaning by engaging with the writing. The last strategy is textualization, which means, “orientating to the text and adopting process-oriented composing strategies for effective text development” (Canagarajah, 2011, p. 404). Buthainah, who is a Saudi student, uses these strategies by utilizing the Arabic language, Islamic art, her creativity, and her emotions in English writing (Canagarajah, 2011). Therefore, Canagarajah (2011) found that bilingual learners use translanguaging in writing to show their identities through writing, to meet their readers’ or audiences’ needs, and to engage cognitively and socially in writing. They release and develop their creativity and criticality by using translanguaging in writing.
Although there are four strategies of translanguaging in writing, teachers cannot impose them in bilingual classrooms because strategies of translanguaging are self-regulated. Bilingual learners have self-regulation because they can choose the most beneficial ways or strategies of translanguaging in writing, and set their goals for writing. Velasco and Garcia (2014) wrote about a Japanese researcher who uses translanguaging in her writing. She is a case of self-regulation. The Japanese researcher, Sasaki, uses the Japanese language to write her ideas and her drafts. She uses English at the last stage of writing or last draft. Her writings are published in scholarly journals. This shows translanguaging as self-regulation, which helps learners to achieve their writing goals and does not affect them negatively.

Bilingual learners use translanguaging in writing by using their full linguistic repertoire to show their identities, to meet their readers’ needs, to make sense of themselves, and to engage socially and cognitively. Because bilingual students use translanguaging naturally in classrooms and in their writing, teachers should use translanguaging pedagogy for teaching in bilingual writing classrooms, perhaps using Canagarajah’s (2011) and Garcia’s and Kano’s (2014) articles as guides.

Translanguaging Pedagogy in Bilingual Writing Classrooms

Translanguaging is crucial for teachers who teach bilingual classrooms because they can use it naturally and officially in their interaction with learners. Also, they can use translanguaging as pedagogy in bilingual writing classrooms.
According to Garcia and Wei (2014), teachers use translanguaging in bilingual writing classrooms by utilizing different ways, as shown in Table 2.3.

Table 2.3. Translanguaging Pedagogy in Bilingual Writing Classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>When Students Are Writing</th>
<th>When Teachers Are Writing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Allow students to audio record ideas first using all their language resources, before writing.</td>
<td>Write instructions in as many languages as possible, using translanguaging in the written text.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have students pre-write using all their language resources, then select one language/voice in which to publish it.</td>
<td>Write on the board in one language or the other, as student(s) give ideas in any language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Have students experiment with translanguaging in writing for bilingual audiences, and then for monolingual audiences.</td>
<td>Make connections between words to build vocabulary and improve spelling, especially through cognates (for example, revolución $\rightarrow$ revolution; triángulo $\rightarrow$ triangle).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


The first way is that teachers write instructions in both the English language and learners’ native language. The second way is that teachers use one language to write on the board, and then discuss learners in the other language. The third way is that teachers can work on vocabulary and spelling, which is important in writing. Therefore, teachers encourage students to use their full linguistic repertoire when they write, which is the opposite of code-switching. Teachers usually do not use code-switching, but learners use it while they are writing as they shift to their native language to complete a sentence; and then they translate what they have written into the target language.
According to Garcia and Kano (2014), there are three steps of translanguaging pedagogy that bilingual teachers can use to teach in bilingual writing classrooms. The first step is for teachers to provide learners with bilingual texts that serve the topic that learners will write about. For example, “bilingual texts were presented side-by-side, or there was an English text coupled with a parallel translation in Japanese” (Garcia & Kano, 2014, p. 263). This step will help learners to expand their thinking and knowledge on what they will write about.

The second step is that teachers give students an opportunity to use their first language to discuss the materials that they read with a teacher or a group of students who speak their language. This step will help students to think critically about the topic that they will write about because they will listen to differing opinions. The last step is that teachers ask students to write an essay in English depending on what they read and discussed in their first language. Therefore, translanguaging pedagogy that uses the entire linguistic repertoire helps students to write essays in English. Also, translanguaging pedagogy in writing helps learners to differentiate between the English language and their native language. For example, Garcia and Kano (2014) found that Japanese students learn about the differences between English and Japanese writing after teachers use the three steps with them.

Moreover, monolingual teachers can use translanguaging pedagogy in bilingual writing classrooms by providing the topic or genre that student will write
about and ask them to say it in their language, as shown in Figures 2.4 and 2.5. Also, they can help students to record their ideas orally, to write the first draft by using their full linguistic repertoire, and to write for their audiences who speak their language and for English audiences, as is shown in Table 2.3.

In sum, using translanguaging in bilingual writing classrooms helps teachers to convey their lessons in writing, and it helps students to understand what they will write. Bilingual and monolingual teachers can use translanguaging in bilingual writing classrooms. Bilingual teachers use the three steps of translanguaging pedagogy, whereas monolingual teachers use different ways. Both kinds of teachers encourage students to use an expanded linguistic repertoire when they write.

Translanguaging and Writing with Multimodality

Teachers and bilingual learners use multimodality in writing as well as translanguaging. Bilingual learners use multimodality to plan for their writing or to convey their messages (Velasco & Garcia, 2014). Also, they use it to communicate effectively with teachers and other students. Teachers can use multimodality to convey their lessons.

However, what does multimodality mean? Multimodality in writing includes an “organized set of resources for meaning-making” (Early, Kendrick, & Potts, 2015, p. 448). Multimodality includes drawings, photographs, or signs. Also, it includes “fonts, colors, position, and form” (Sebba, 2012, p. 103). Therefore, when bilingual learners use multimodality in writing, they do not just use words or
sentences, but they use signs, images, and drawings to convey their messages and communicate with their audiences. Teachers use drawings and photographs to convey information to students, and to teach them in creative ways.

Nowadays, most bilingual learners use multimodalities and translanguaging in writing, whether writing essays, text messages, or emails. For example, they use a sign of a heart, or an image of a heart to explain the word love, which Garcia and Wei (2014) called translanguaging signs. Also, using the heart sign can change the meaning if we use features of multimodalities, like color the heart with green. The meaning will be “I love Saudi Arabia” because the flag of Saudi Arabia is green. Therefore, multimodalities are crucial with translanguaging in writing since it helps bilinguals to make meaning in their writing.

Teachers and students can use multimodalities by drawing, adding photographs, and using signs for different reasons. Multimodalities help bilingual learners to plan for their writing in essays and to convey their messages by using technology. Multimodalities help teachers to convey their lessons.

**Conclusion**

Translanguaging pedagogy is crucial in bilingual classrooms. There are several terms that are related to it, such as code-switching and codemeshing. There are two forms of translanguaging, natural translanguaging and official translanguaging. Bilingual learners use natural translanguaging because it has
many advantages, such as helping them in making meaning, engaging them cognitively, and encouraging creativity and criticality.

However, teachers can use both forms of translanguage. They can use natural translanguage to explain or define a word, and they can use official translanguage for clarifying a subject and text and to be sure that students understand. Translanguage pedagogy can be used by both bilingual and monolingual teachers. Both kinds of teachers, bilingual and monolingual, have their ways to use translanguage pedagogy.

Moreover, learners use translanguage in writing by utilizing four strategies of translanguage, and teachers can use these ways and others to utilize translanguage in writing. Using translanguage pedagogy in writing also encourages learners and teachers to use multimedias as they write. Translanguage is a crucial pedagogy that should be used by all teachers who teach bilingual classrooms, and by all bilingual learners because it has many advantages and positive effects on learners’ education, especially in writing.

Intercultural Mediation in Language Teaching and Learning

The general definition of the term “mediation” encourages many scholars to use the term in different fields, such as business and education, because a common meaning of “mediation” is to offer a way to resolve a disagreement or a misunderstanding. Mediators are everywhere, often including parents, educators, and specialists. TESOL educators often serve as mediators because there is a need for intercultural mediation in teaching the English language either in the
ESL context or the EFL context. Teachers commonly use mediation to help bridge language and culture gaps for English language learners, and to help learners to succeed in a global society that includes individuals from diverse cultures who speak diverse languages.

This paper discusses multiple definitions of mediation from different perspectives, and then combines these definitions to provide a general definition of mediation in intercultural language teaching and learning. Also, it provides an understanding of the role of teachers as mediators and offers ways for them to help mediate languages and cultures. Teachers have a mandate to utilize these ideas in the classroom in order to ensure that students acquire not only a factual understanding of the target language and culture, but are also able to mediate meanings between both the target and native languages and cultures. Without this ability, students will be unable to successfully navigate a global and multicultural world. Finally, this paper shows the role of translanguaging in mediation as a meditational means for teachers’ use.

The Definitions of Mediation from Different Perspectives

Definitions of the term “mediation” vary across different fields and disciplines. According to Stathopoulou (2015), the first field to have used the term “mediation” was law in the United States in 1970. From there, it spread to all fields and disciplines with different meanings in each. For example, according to Stathopoulou (2015), mediation in communication studies refers to “the intervening role that the process of communication plays in the making of
meaning,” but in international studies, it means resolving conflicts that happened in international politics (p. 19). The mediation process in all disciplines requires a mediator who is a third party, with the role of assisting two or more interacting individuals. However, the focus in this paper is on the definition of mediation in the education discipline, especially teaching and learning language, by showing various definitions of mediation from different perspectives and finding the best meaning for teachers and learners today.

Mediation from a Sociocultural Learning Theory Perspective. In the field of education, Vygotsky (1978) focused on the term “mediation” by theorizing that individual's awareness is developed through mediated mental activity that supports the creation of meaning using language, the most crucial tool. In addition, according to Donato (2000), “For Vygotsky (1978), social interaction is a mechanism for individual development” (p. 37). Therefore, mediation is not cognition that individuals carry in their minds, but it is their process of developing and obtaining new thoughts and knowledge in their own minds and interacting with other minds socially through the use of language.

In general, learning theory posits that mediation works as a necessary catalyst to activate the zone of proximal development (ZPD). According to Vygotsky (1978), learning happens in the ZPD, which he described as “a tool through which the internal course of development can be understood” (p. 87). Kohler (2015) called mediation a mental space that helps learners to be more cognizant of their acquisition of new knowledge as they transform to a new
mental position. Therefore, mediation in learning theory is “a process whereby new knowledge is constructed through shared interpsychological (between minds) and intrapsychological (in the mind of the individual) activity” (Kohler, 2015, p. 142). In other words, learners who want to obtain more knowledge depend on two factors, social interaction and learners’ own cognition.

Moreover, mediation in the learning process is “the process through which humans deploy culturally constructed artifacts, concepts, and activities to regulate the material world or their own and each other’s social and mental activity” (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, p. 79). In other words, mediation is an active process and a process of sense making in which teachers and students understand and interact through artifacts, which includes language. Finally, mediation in this perspective is a process of construction of new knowledge by using language. The tool helps learners and teachers to engage socially through discourses, such as asking questions or giving feedback.

Mediation from a Language Teaching Perspective. The concept of mediation in teaching and learning a language appeared in the 1990s as an ability to resolve struggles between individuals or learners who speak different languages and have different cultures (Byram, 2013). In language teaching and learning, instructors and learners will encounter different cultures, languages, identities, and beliefs. In some classrooms, there is a misunderstanding caused by differences; therefore, there is a need for mediators (teachers) to manage the misunderstandings between or among learners (Byram, 1995). Mediators need
various skills to solve these misunderstandings using a variety of strategies, such as understanding learners’ cultures and languages in order to differentiate between them, using various ways to transfer meaning similar to translation (Kohler, 2015).

In 2004, the concept of mediation was reified as cultural mediation. Zarate, Gohard-Radenkovic, Lussier, and Penz (2004) coined the term “cultural mediation” in the education in their publication, *Cultural Mediation in Language Teaching and Learning*. In this publication, they reported the results of their study, which “investigated cultural mediation through five different projects carried out across diverse contexts in Europe” (Kohler, 2015, p. 130). Zarate et al. (2004) found that cultural mediation encompasses various components or skills, which include empathy, hospitality, and respect for the other. They also found that teachers are mediators and facilitators in the language-teaching process. They help students to comprehend the target culture and obtain cultural awareness of both the primary and target cultures and languages.

Therefore, mediation from both a pedagogical and learning perspectives has focused on “the skills of making sense of one language and culture for another” (Kohler, 2015, p. 142). These skills help teachers and learners to convey their messages despite having different languages and cultures. Teachers as mediators should have skills to communicate effectively with learners, such as empathy and interpretation. Hence, we need to understand
mediation from a different perspective because the first perspective focuses on mediating knowledge and the other focuses on mediating skills.

Mediation from Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning (ILTL) Perspective. Defining mediation through an intercultural language teaching and learning (ILTL) perspective is crucial for two reasons. The first reason is that the focus of this paper is on intercultural communicative competence, so there is a need for understanding mediation in the context of intercultural teaching and second-language acquisition. The second reason is that the concept of mediation suitable for ILTL requires more than the definitions of mediation in the earlier perspectives mentioned in this paper because mediation in the learning perspective focuses on creating knowledge through mediation, whereas mediation in the teaching perspective focuses additionally on skills for making sense of culture and language.

However, according to Byram (2013), these two perspectives have created a sufficient understanding of mediation for intercultural language teaching and learning perspective. First, mediation from a teaching perspective focuses on skills that learners can acquire in order to navigate between both primary and target cultures and languages. Mediation from a learning theory perspective is that teachers, who are experts, help novices to construct new knowledge and create a relationship between the existing knowledge and the new one. Therefore, mediation for intercultural language teaching and learning focuses on transformation or constructing a relationship from what is unfamiliar to
what is familiar (Kohler, 2015). The role of teachers as intercultural mediators from this perspective is to help learners to navigate and construct new knowledge, new linguistic systems, and new cultural systems. Hence, mediation for intercultural language teaching and learning combines the definition of mediation from both perspectives.

Furthermore, in mediation for intercultural language teaching and learning, learners acquire new knowledge in a new specific discipline, which is the new linguistic and cultural system (Kohler, 2015). Also, mediation from the teaching perspective happens between or through two languages and cultures, but mediation from language learning theory does not (Donato & McCormick, 1994). Therefore, mediation for intercultural language teaching and learning happens in two ways. It happens between and through learners and teachers who have two languages and cultures, and it happens within the intrapsychological plane when “a learner has more than one linguistic and cultural frame of reference with which to transform his/her existing knowledge” (Kohler, 2015, p. 143). As a result, it is suitable for both ESL and EFL because teachers and learners in both contexts possess their primary cultures and languages and they want to obtain knowledge in the target cultures and languages.

In conclusion, the concept of mediation has been defined in various ways by various disciplines, such as communication and international studies. However, the focus of this paper is on education, specifically mediation for intercultural teaching and language acquisition. In order to define mediation in
intercultural teaching and learning, there is a need to combine the definitions of mediation in the teaching process and mediation in learning theory. Mediation for intercultural language teaching and learning concentrates on making relationships or transformation between the prior knowledge and the new one, which are the primary and target languages and cultures. It happens in both ESL and EFL contexts because it views teachers as intercultural mediators who have skills that help them to mediate new knowledge for novices by helping them to construct and navigate new knowledge in target linguistic and cultural systems.

Language Teachers as Resource for Mediating an Intercultural Perspective

Language teachers are an irreplaceable resource for mediating an intercultural perspective in language teaching and learning because they are the only ones with a mandate to apply methodology that mediates intercultural language learning. Therefore, they should have skills that help them achieve this, primarily self-awareness. Teachers who have a high awareness of themselves and their linguistic and cultural identities can mediate multiple perspectives successfully. In addition, according to Kohler (2015), “The greater the teacher’s awareness of her own linguistic and cultural identity, the more she attended to the linguistic and cultural construction of the identity of her students” (p. 195).

Moreover, teachers need the ability to interact diplomatically and sympathetically with students who are from different cultures or who are at different levels in the target culture and language. Teachers need to develop their knowledge of other cultures and perspectives in order to understand their roles...
as mediators and shapers of meaning in the classroom (Papademeche & Scarino, 2000). Many teachers who lack this ability are unable to motivate or interest their students in the learning process.

Furthermore, mediating intercultural language teaching and learning depends on teachers’ understanding of language and culture, and their mutual relationship (Kohler, 2015). According to Kohler (2015), language can be understood in two categories, language as a code and language as a social semiotic. Also, culture can be understood in two categories: culture as facts and information and culture as a social semiotic (Kohler, 2105).

Moreover, there are two views about the relationship between culture and language that teachers can apply. The first view is the static view, which shows language as a code and culture as facts. The second view is the dynamic view, which shows language and culture as semiotic or social practices (Kohler, 2015). Teachers’ views or understandings of language, culture, and their relationships help to mediate an intercultural language teaching and learning perspective. Teachers who view language and culture as semiotics have a more dynamic, or fluid view of their relationship, which is necessary to mediate effectively.

To sum up, teachers who possess all of these skills are the best source for mediating an intercultural perspective. Teachers must have a self-awareness of linguistic and cultural identity. In addition, they require intercultural communicative competence in order to communicate effectively with learners.
Finally, teachers need a sophisticated understanding of language and culture, and their interrelationship to help to mediate this perspective in the classroom.

**Teachers' Meditation of an Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning Perspective**

There are many techniques that teachers can use for mediating intercultural language teaching. The first scholar after Vygotsky (1978) who wrote about the mediation of teaching was Feuerstein (1980), whose twelve mediated learning experience (MLE) criteria or features are shown in Table 2.4. In the table, there are parameters, which are conceptualizations for each criterion. According to Seng, Pou, and Tan (2003), educators can use the MLE criteria as means of mediation for conducting classes. Although all these criteria are crucial, the most important criteria are the first three because they are related to mediation from an intercultural language teaching and learning perspective.

Also, according to Seng et al. (2003), the first three criteria “are considered universal” (p. 36) because teachers can apply them to any language or culture as well as in ESL or EFL contexts. Teachers can use the first three criteria in any language classroom. The first criterion, which is significance, is crucial to the mediation of intercultural language teaching and learning perspective because learners are urged to discover the importance of their work. An example would be a task that helps learners to make a relationship between prior knowledge (primary culture and language) and the new knowledge (target culture and language) e.g.: scaffolding similarities and differences of a specific term in both languages and/or cultures.
Table 2.4. Representation of Feuerstein’s Mediated Learning Experience (MLE) Criteria

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parameter</th>
<th>Conceptualization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Significance</td>
<td>The teacher makes students realize the importance of a task so that they can look at the value of the task to themselves as well as the broader cultural context.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Purpose beyond the here and now</td>
<td>The teacher explains to learners how conducting a learning activity will help them in the future beyond the present moment and situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Shared intention</td>
<td>In presenting a task, the teacher must make instructions clear and ensure the intention is understood and reciprocated by learners.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. A sense of competence</td>
<td>The teacher fosters learners’ feelings of competence and capability of learning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Control of own behavior</td>
<td>The teacher encourages students to become autonomous learners by who can control their own learning procedure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Goal-setting</td>
<td>The teacher shows learners how to establish achievable targets and to locate approaches to realize them.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Challenge</td>
<td>The teacher helps learners to develop an internal need to confront challenges and to seek new challenges in life.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Awareness of change</td>
<td>The teacher stimulates learners to monitor changes in themselves and to understand the fact that humans are changeable all the time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. A belief in positive outcomes</td>
<td>The teacher urges learners to assume that there is always the possibility of finding a solution, even when faced with an apparently intractable problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Sharing</td>
<td>The teacher invites learners to share behaviors and collaboration among themselves and to perceive that it is advisable for some problems to be addressed collaboratively.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Individuality</td>
<td>The teacher helps learners realize individual characteristics respecting their unique aspects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. A sense of belonging</td>
<td>The teacher aids learners to establish a consciousness pertaining to the whole class community in the process of the completion of the task.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, teachers can then use the second criterion, purpose beyond the here and now, to explain to learners how this knowledge will help them in the future. For example, after learners have discovered the significance of a task or term, teachers can mediate or explain to learners the benefits of this and how it will help them to integrate with people in the target culture. The third criterion is shared intention, wherein teachers explain the instructions and tasks comprehensively, to ensure students can understand the purpose as they perform the tasks.

Moreover, there are many scholars who have written about these means specifically, such as Kohler (2015), who published a book that discussed teachers’ ways of mediating intercultural language teaching and learning perspectives. Kohler (2015) included case studies featuring three teachers with different backgrounds, who taught Indonesian as a foreign language for learners in Australia. The three teachers use different ways of meditating intercultural perspectives that depended on their views of languages, cultures, and their interrelationship.

Kohler (2015) found that when teachers viewed language as a code and culture as information and they viewed the relationship between them as static, “they focused on giving factual, often generalized information, asking display questions and providing explanations” (p. 194). However, Kohler (2015) found when teachers viewed language and culture as social semiotics and the relationship as dynamic, “they used exploratory discussion, open-ended
questioning, interpretation, personalization, comparison and reflection” (p. 194). Also, teachers used tasks that encouraged students to critique their primary language and culture by noticing differences between them. The latter most closely relates to mediation in intercultural language teaching and learning. For example, Figure 2.6 shows this kind of the later view, Maria is the teacher and Jaxson is the student.

Maria: What about the use of the language? How can you determine today if you were to explain to a tourist or a student going over there... just from the short experience we’ve had yesterday and a little bit today what would he or she need to know to recognize the severity of a sign?

Jaxson: I would say just to get a rough image like a nice sign or something that would be the least severe would have words like Selamat datang (Welcome) or terima kasih (thank you) which are nicer words but something more severe would have words like jangan (don’t) or dilarang (It’s forbidden). Yeah, harsher words.

Maria: What about the use of the subject pronoun like kamu (you), Anda (formal you), kami (exclusive we), kita (inclusive we)? Um, anyone... now this is broad.. but just from what you’ve seen.

Jaxson: Maybe signs that use Anda, kamu are more detailed, might be addressing you personally and would probably mean that they might be nice signs of course this is very general... Something might be the most severe probably would just say, “Don’t do this” and address you specifically yes but there’s exception.

Maria: Perhaps government type messages. Messages that promote certain behavior that perhaps are not as seen here in public.

Figure 2.6. Mediation for Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning Perspective
As shown in Figure 2.6, the teacher activated learners’ prior knowledge by asking them a question related to a prior discussion about public signs. Then, she asked them how they could advise travellers about signs. One student (Jaxson) offered examples of “a rough image and a nice sign.” The teacher focused more on using the language, and then she connected language and culture by mentioning the word “behavior.” She viewed culture and language as social semiotics and their relationship as dynamic. Therefore, she used interpretation and open-ended questions.

Furthermore, Crozet (1996) and Crozet and Liddicoat (1999) described a model for intercultural language teaching and learning. Their model consists of four categories: awareness raising, experimentation, production, and feedback. This model is beneficial for both ESL and EFL teachers because it is not just a pedagogical model but also a learning model. According to Clouet (2008), in each stage, there is a description of the stage, the role of learners, the role of teachers, and the materials teachers can utilize, as summarized in Table 2.5.

This model is crucial for all teachers to apply in teaching English because it shows teachers’ roles and the materials that support achievement of that role. Moreover, this model is easy to use for English language teachers because they can divide the stages and apply them during every class. For example, they may use awareness raising in the first week by introducing both language and culture, as was shown in Figure 2.6.
Table 2.5. Model for Intercultural Language Teaching and Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stages</th>
<th>Contents</th>
<th>Role of the learners</th>
<th>Role of the teacher</th>
<th>Materials/Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Awareness Raising</td>
<td>Learners are introduced to new linguistic and cultural input. Learners are encouraged to compare the new culture with their own language use.</td>
<td>Learners should have an opportunity to notice differences between the new input and their own culture.</td>
<td>The teacher supports them in noticing differences. The teacher explains the function of particular actions in the target language.</td>
<td>Authentic video materials (cartoons, stories, etc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimentation</td>
<td>Fixing newly acquired knowledge through experiential learning.</td>
<td>Learners begin working with their new knowledge and trying out native speakers’ ways of acting and speaking.</td>
<td>The teacher picks apart some of the language and cultural needs of the learners for focused practice.</td>
<td>Short, supported communicative tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production</td>
<td>Applying the new knowledge in real-life situations</td>
<td>Learners try out being native speakers of the language. Learners experience culturally different ways of interacting.</td>
<td>The teachers focus on language tasks that imply learners’ involvement.</td>
<td>Role-plays Written tasks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>Reflecting on the experience of acting like a native speaker in the production phase.</td>
<td>Learners discuss with the teacher how they felt about speaking and acting in a particular way.</td>
<td>Teachers comment on the language use of students. Teachers allow students to express how they felt.</td>
<td>Oral or written feedback</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The teacher, Maria, in her lesson, taught about the differences in different types of public signs, such as public education versus public warnings, as well as the language used in them. Then, she asked learners to do a comparison between the languages and cultures, such as the differences between suggestions and commands in public signs in different cultures and the contrasting terminology used in them.

Moreover, English-language teachers may use the second stage, experimentation, in the second week. For example, the teacher might divide the class into groups of two students, and ask them to do a presentation about the target culture, such as America. Each group would choose a state to do a presentation about. In the presentation, students would act and speak like native speakers while the teacher analyzes their content and pronunciation. Therefore, students would learn through experiential learning while learning something new about the target culture and language.

Also, English-language teachers may use the third stage, production, by applying what learners know about the target culture and language through role-playing. The teacher might divide the class to groups of five students to perform a role play about a sad situation that happened in their lives. Students would work cooperatively to produce a scene that reflects their new knowledge. Finally, the teacher might apply the final stage, which is feedback, by giving students feedback about their performance.
To sum up, there are many ways to mediate an intercultural language teaching and learning perspective. First, the first three criteria in MLE created by Feuerstein (1980) are important for all teachers who will use mediation in their classroom, especially English-language teachers. Second, methods for mediating this perspective depend on teachers’ views of language, cultures, and their relationship. The most appropriate view of language, culture, and their relationship related to mediation of intercultural language teaching and learning is viewing them as social semiotics and the relationship as dynamic. Finally, teachers can use the four stages to teach mediation of cultures and languages, which are awareness raising, experimentation, production, and feedback. Through using these criteria and stages, teachers can prepare students to mediate cultures and languages as they work with other students on tasks, which require them to practice mediating.

Mediation and Translanguaging

In mediating intercultural language teaching and learning in EFL and ESL contexts, teachers and learners use their learners’ primary and target languages to mediate and construct meaning. Many scholars have written about the value and necessity of “using learners’ entire linguistic repertoire,” which is part of translanguaging, in order to mediate intercultural language teaching and learning (Kohler, 2015, p. 141). Others wrote about the relationship between meditation in intercultural language teaching and translanguaging. One of the scholars is Stathopoulou (2015) who described mediation as a form of translanguaging.
because mediation involves “the interplay between languages,” and translinguaging is a way to theorize mediation (p. 37).

Therefore, translinguaging is important in mediating intercultural language teaching because of the views of practitioners that language is used to make meaning through dual semiotic systems. Translinguaging is a way of using two languages or two linguistic systems that are united in one hybrid linguistic system to obtain new knowledge (Baker, 2011; Garcia & Wei, 2014). Also, it involves “the transmission of information and the representation of values, identities and relationships” (Wei, 2011, p. 1222). Through mediating intercultural language teaching and learning, teachers ask questions in the target language and students can answer in their native language, which allows them to learn to become mediators themselves. Also, through translinguaging, learners mediate understanding, construct meaning, and show their knowledge of language and cultures (Garcia, 2011).

To sum up, translinguaging uses languages as a social semiotic, which is the most appropriate use of language to mediate intercultural language teaching and learning because translinguaging uses two linguistic systems as one. Translinguaging is further explained elsewhere in this project; the reminder here in its ability as a meditational tool. Therefore, learners will use their prior knowledge, which consists of primary languages and cultures, to construct new meaning or obtain new knowledge.
Conclusion

In conclusion, there is a need for mediating intercultural language teaching and learning in classrooms, especially in EFL and ESL classrooms. There is a need to define mediation from a sociocultural-learning-theory perspective and mediation from a language-teaching perspective in order to combine them to create a definition for mediation from an intercultural-language-teaching- and-learning perspective. This means interpretation, or transformation of prior knowledge using new ideas about culture and language, specifically between the primary and target cultures and languages.

Teachers are the models for mediating an intercultural perspective. They must have self-awareness, intercultural communicative competence, and a sophisticated understanding of language, culture, and their relationships in order to mediate successfully. Teachers can use the different methods for mediating this perspective that are discussed in this paper: the first three criteria in MLE, methods that depend on teachers’ views of language, cultures, and their relationship, and the four stages to mediate intercultural language teaching and learning. In addition, teachers can use translanguaging as a way of mediating this perspective. They can provide awareness of multiple cultures and ways to interpret culture and language that students might not possess initially. This is crucial in today’s multicultural and global society. If teachers do not prepare students to mediate cultures and languages, they are preparing them to fail.
Peer Coaching

Working cooperatively with others to set goals for development or to obtain new knowledge is important for improving any field, especially the field of education. In the education field, learners and educators work together in order to achieve goals regarding standards of education. Teachers need to use peer coaching to obtain new strategies and techniques from their colleagues in order to use these with learners, and teachers need to apply peer coaching with learners to help them to work together. In ESL and EFL contexts, the need for peer coaching is increased because all learners and teachers in both contexts have the same goals: learners want to learn English and teachers want to teach them the target language and culture accordingly by applying ICC, translanguaging, mediation, and peer coaching.

Accordingly, this paper discusses various definitions of peer coaching, and its characteristics. Also, this paper offers the components and key characteristics of peer coaching, and provides guidelines or strategies to utilize peer coaching with teachers and learners. Moreover, this paper discusses the benefits of peer coaching for both teachers and learners. Finally, it identifies forms of, and activities for, peer coaching. It aims to provide an outline of various aspects of peer coaching and to consolidate the various ideas as a future reference.

The Definitions of Peer Coaching

There are many definitions of peer coaching depending on scholars’ views and opinions, which lead to various definitions in various approaches. However,
there is a need for defining the term “coaching” from different perspectives in order to define peer coaching. Stober and Grant (2006) provided many definitions of the term “coaching” that are related to various approaches, as shown in Table 2.6.

Table 2.6. Approaches to Coaching, Summarized by Ives (2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approaches</th>
<th>Objective of Coaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Humanist</td>
<td>“Coaching is above all about human growth and change” (Stober, 2006, p. 17).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviorist</td>
<td>Coaching is altering behavior (Peterson, 2006).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>Coaching is foremost about developing adaptive thoughts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Goal-focused</td>
<td>“Coaching is a goal-oriented, solution-focused process” (Grant, 2006, p. 156).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult learning</td>
<td>A learning approach that helps self-directed learners to reflect on and grow from their experiences.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult development</td>
<td>Coaching is about helping clients develop and grow in maturity.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Ives (2008) found that there is no right or wrong definition of coaching in these approaches, but defining coaching depends on the situation and the purpose of the writer. Understanding coaching from various perspectives is important for educators because all these approaches are related to education.
Comprehending coaching from humanistic, behaviorist, and cognitive approaches is crucial because this helps instructors either combine them or choose one of them to use. Also, because the focus in this paper is on teaching ESL and EFL to adults, it is important to understand coaching from an adult learning and development perspective, and from goal-oriented approach. Therefore, the definition of peer coaching in the education field should be perceptive precise.

First of all, work on peer coaching was done by two researchers, Joyce and Showers (1980). They wrote about their reason for looking for a way that helps learners and teachers to learn and work cooperatively by stating, “Beginning in the mid-1950s, national movements to improve education focused on academic quality and social equality” (Joyce & Showers, 1996, p. 13). Joyce and Showers (1980) noticed that educators’ effort for improvement originally was unsuccessful because they used ineffective practices. Joyce and Showers (1980) found that peer coaching is beneficial for educators to use and to apply to learners, as it finally helped in the education improvement, which lead many scholars to begin to focus on peer coaching in the education field. However, what is peer coaching?

The Definitions of Peer Coaching for Teachers. There are many definitions of peer coaching that have been created by many scholars in the education field. Therefore, presenting various interpretations of peer coaching is crucial to finding the best definition. Many definitions of peer coaching were focused on teachers.
and educators, and how they can utilize peer coaching. One of these definitions was focused on successful peer coaching groups that “developed skills in collaboration and enjoyed the experience so much that they wanted to continue their collegial partnerships after they accomplished their initial goals” (Joyce & Showers, 1996, p. 12). Joyce and Showers (1996) were focused on teachers and their needs to use peer coaching for learning new techniques of teaching in order to benefit their learners. Hence, they defined it as “a mechanism to increase classroom implementation of training,” because teachers implemented what they learned in the classroom (Joyce & Showers, 1996, p. 13).

The other definition was concerned with teachers, also, who work with one another in order to obtain benefits from working together:

Peer coaching is a confidential process through which two or more professional colleagues work together to reflect on current practices; expand, refine, and build new skills; share ideas; teach one another; conduct classroom research; or solve problems in the workplace.

(Robbins, 1991, p. 1)

Robbins (1991) explained peer coaching as collaboration between peer supporters or collegial coaches who seek the whole benefits of working together, such as sharing ideas. In his book, Robbins (1991) focused on the important role of peer coaching for teachers and how they can utilize it, which will be discussed later in this paper.
The Definitions of Peer Coaching for Learners. There are many definitions that focus on peer coaching for learners; one of these definitions describes peer coaching as “sustained cognitive, emotional and behavioral changes” that help in achieving goals and improving performance (Grant, 2001, p. 2). The previous definition is related to humanistic, behavioral, and cognitive approaches that were mentioned earlier in this paper. Also, Parsloe (1995) discussed peer coaching as a practice for developing competence by using tutoring or instruction by both teachers and learners. For example, peer coaching groups work to teach one another a language by giving peers a lesson plan and instructions in order to learn the language.

In addition, Robertson (2005) provided a definition of peer coaching with its principles by writing a book, Coaching Leadership. Robertson (2005) defined peer coaching as follows:

A special, sometimes reciprocal, relationship between (at least) two people who work together to set professional goals and achieve them. The term depicts a learning relationship where participants are open to new learning, engage together as professionals equally committed to facilitating one another’s leadership learning, development, and wellbeing. (p. 23)

Robertson (2005) defined peer coaching by mentioning two principles for a successful peer coaching. The first principle is that participants should be open to obtaining new knowledge. The second principle is that they should work
together to obtain the benefits from peer coaching, such as development of skills. Also, Brown and Grant (2010) had a similar definition to Robertson (2005), but they add that peer coaching is a method to increase the trust and support that requires individuals be willing to learn and participate.

To sum up, defining coaching from different perspectives aids in understanding peer coaching in greater depth. Remarkable work in peer coaching in the education field was done by Joyce and Showers (1980). Then scholars began to pay attention to it, which led to different definitions for teachers and learners. However, presenting various definitions helps to comprehend that the peer coaching is the same for teachers and learners. Peer coaching comprises two individuals who work together in order to develop their current skills and obtain new techniques of teaching and learning, solve problems, share ideas, and set goals and achieve them, which is the most important thing that teachers and learners can do.

Therefore, applying peer coaching in the ESL and EFL contexts is crucial for two reasons. The first reason is that teachers in both contexts work with others who have different primary cultures and languages, so being peer coaches will support them in learning to communicate more effectively, mediating cultures and languages, and becoming competent in intercultural communication. The second reason is that peer coaching will help ESL and EFL learners to interact with others more effectively by providing situations in which they need to mediate their cultures and languages and attain ICC. Learners in either ESL or
EFL contexts will obtain more knowledge of the target culture and language because their peers will help them to understand the target language and culture.

The Components and Key Characteristics of Peer Coaching

For teachers and learners the components are the same; in each peer-coaching group, there is a coach and a coachee. Peer coaching emphasizes “collaborative goal setting between the coach and coachee” (Grant, 2001, p. 9). In the peer coaching process, the peer coach is not an expert, but someone who is at the same level of the coachee (Johnson & Rigby, 2012). The coach is the one who is responsible for mediating the task, listening, providing feedback, and helping the coachee to improve by him or herself. The coachee’s role is submitting what he or she did for improvement to the coach. Also, “Being coached by a peer can help you gain clarity, question your assumptions, learn, get unstuck, develop options, and take action” (Johnson & Rigby, 2012, p. 4). In the peer-coaching process, the coach can be coachee and vice versa.

The key characteristics of successful peer coaching are the same for teachers and learners. Scholars write about different key characteristics from various points of view. However, the most crucial characteristics are communication skills and reflection. According to Robertson (2005), dialogue or communication in the peer-coaching process is the most important characteristic. Coach and coachee need to communicate in order to understand each other and to ensure that peer coaching is successful. They give each other verbal feedback, which helps them both improve in their roles. However, if there is poor
communication between the partners in peer coaching, there will be fewer benefits from peer coaching.

Moreover, the second key characteristic, according to Jackson (2004) and Robertson (2005), is reflection. Reflection reviews the evidence of the outcomes of peer coaching. The coach analyzes his or her observations by using reflective skills, and the coachee will submit a verbal or written reflection that describes his or her progress. Jackson (2004) claimed that peer coaching is an essentially reflective endeavor, and each participant in the peer coaching process should be skilled at reflection, which involves asking questions “in ways that enable them to critically reflect on whatever issue they are discussing” or goal that they are setting (Hooker, 2014, p. 111). Hence, Robertson (2005) claimed that reflection is an important ability to master.

In sum, coach and coachee are the most important components in the peer-coaching process. Each one of them has a role: the coach observes, mediates, learns, and assists, while the coachee learns and gains clarity. The two most important characteristics are communication between coach and coachee and reflection, because these allow participants to obtain the full benefits from the process of peer coaching.

Strategies to Utilize Peer Coaching with Teachers and Learners

Many scholars write about guidelines or strategies of using peer coaching with teachers. Most of them focus only on guidelines to use for teachers, but guidelines or strategies of peer coaching can be used for both teachers and
learners. Obviously, teachers and learners who will do peer coaching will choose a peer to work with, and then contact him or her. They will set a time and decide what they want to achieve or improve by using peer coaching. Johnson and Rigby (2012) wrote about different strategies that can be used by teachers and learners. The first strategy is scheduling a time to meet with or call the peer and getting to know him or her. The second strategy is sharing the information that peer coaches will work on, such as setting goals and choosing tactics, obtaining skills, and improving in a specific area.

The third strategy is deciding who will be the coach and who the coachee at the beginning, because they will switch the roles later; the one who “coached first in the previous session, will be the coachee first in the following session” (Johnson & Rigby, 2012, p. 7). The fourth strategy is that coach and coachee should keep asking questions, such as, “What would you like to get out of our session? Or, “What would you like to focus on?” (Johnson & Rigby, 2012, p. 7). The fifth strategy is paying attention to the peer and withholding any judgment or refraining from forming opinions while being empathetic and patient (Johnson & Rigby, 2012). The last strategy is summarizing after each meeting, and analyzing what happened by writing a reflection.

Moreover, Robbins (1991) wrote about guidelines that can be used as strategies of peer coaching, such as the coach should be supportive and not evaluative by asking questions that encourage the coachee to reflect and analyze. Also, both coach and coachee should understand their roles in the peer-
coaching process. According to Robbins (1991), the coach and coachee of
teacher and learner peers should understand that there are three steps in peer
coaching, which are pre-conference, observation, and post-conference. The first
step, pre-conference, includes the first, second, third, and fourth strategies that
are mentioned earlier in this paper because in the pre-conference, the coach and
cocache determine the task that they want to work on and choose roles. In the
second step, observation, the coach and coachee use the fifth strategy
mentioned before to examine the data or development by withholding opinions
and simply observing. In the last step, the post-conference, the coach and
cache determine the last strategy, summarizing and analyzing, to reflect and explain
what they did in sessions by reviewing their dialogues and the work they
accomplished (Robbins, 1991).

To sum up, there are six strategies for peer coaching that happen in three
steps. The strategies that happen in the pre-conference are scheduling a time for
meeting, sharing information, deciding the roles, and asking questions. The
strategies that the coach and coachee use in the observation step are focusing
and withholding opinions. The strategy is that they use in the post-conference are
summarizing and reflecting.

Benefits of Peer Coaching for Teachers and Learners

There are many advantages that teachers and learners gain through peer
coaching. The first benefit is that peer coaching reduces the isolation that
happens between teachers and learners in the education system because they
work cooperatively with others (Robbins, 1991; Donegan, Ostrosky, & Fowler, 2000). In ESL and EFL contexts, teachers need to do peer coaching in order to decrease the isolation that happens between them and other teachers who are from different cultures. Also, teachers need to apply peer coaching among learners in the ESL classroom because students may have different primary languages and cultures, which lead to feelings of isolation if they do not have that much knowledge about the target culture and language. Also, they need to apply it in the EFL classroom in order to help students to obtain the language as well as their other classmates, so they do not feel isolated because they are the ones who do not know as much English. Therefore, involving learners in peer coaching will help to reduce this kind of isolation and will help them to obtain intercultural communicative competence.

The second benefit that teachers and learners share is creating a positive school or classroom climate (Robbins, 1991). Applying peer coaching among teachers in a school or among learners in a classroom helps them to develop good relationships with others, which will help create a positive climate. The third benefit is that peer coaching helps teachers and learners increase their self-regulation because they “regulate and direct their interpersonal and intrapersonal resources to better attain their goals” or to improve their current skill and obtain the target skill (Grant, 2001, p. 23). For example, when a principal establishes peer coaching among teachers, they will become self-regulated to improve and
to attain results from the process. Also, peer coaching will help learners to be self-regulated regarding what they want to achieve.

The last benefit is that peer coaching “builds collaborative norms” that enable teachers and learners to “to give and receive ideas and assistance” because they work cooperatively with others (Robbins, 1991, p. 8). Peer coaching helps teachers to create a collaborative teaching module by applying it to learners, which will lead to greater learning outcomes for learners (Zwart, Wubbels, Bergen, & Bolhuis, 2009). Also, it helps learners to work cooperatively with peers to set goals and improve.

However, there are three main benefits of peer coaching for teachers only. According to Robbins (1991), the first benefit of peer coaching is that it helps teachers to examine their own lessons and improve them; for example, teachers who are peer coaches can attend others’ lessons in order to look closely at their ways of teaching, which will help them analyze their own lessons. The second benefit is that peer coaching helps teachers share and develop new instructional strategies and techniques that they can use with English language learners, which will lead to an extensive collection of successful instructional strategies (Galbraith & Anstrom, 1995). The third benefit is that it helps teachers to develop their teaching performance, and apply successful peer coaching in the classroom because they obtained benefit from their own experiences with it (Robbins, 1991).
To sum up, there are four benefits of peer coaching for teachers and learners. The first benefit is decreasing isolation; the second benefit is generating a positive school or classroom environment; the third benefit is increasing teachers’ and learners’ self-regulation; the fourth benefit is helping to build collaborative ways of teaching and learning. On the other hand, there are three benefits of peer coaching for teachers only: analyzing lesson plans, improving instructional strategies, and improving their teaching ability.

The Forms of Peer Coaching

There are many forms of peer coaching; however, the most common form is reciprocal peer coaching, which is defined as both parties in peer coaching “provide assistance to one another” in a collaborative atmosphere (Wilkins, Shin, & Ainsworth, 2009, p. 80). According to Wilkins et al. (2009), each partner will serve as a coach and a coachee in the peer-coaching process in order to gain the full benefit of the process. This form works for teachers and learners to utilize in general with types of activities specific to each one of them, which will be discussed.

Forms of Peer-Coaching Activities for Teachers. There are two reasons for the importance of teachers using peer coaching. The first reason is that teachers need to teach this process to learners, which makes them the critical source for applying peer coaching in the classroom. The second reason is that any improvements in education must start with the teacher. Hence, they should
take on the role of peer coach with other teachers in order to apply and teach peer coaching in the classroom.

There are many types of peer-coaching activities that teachers can use. According to Robbins (1991), there are “a variety of forms peer coaching can take” (p. 4). Some of these forms are formal, which includes “co-teaching lesson, coach as collaborator, coach as an expert adviser, coach as a mentor, co-planning lesson, and coach as mirror in the classroom” (Robbins, 1991, p. 5); however, others are informal, which includes “problem solving, study groups, curriculum development, materials development, storytelling about teaching practices, videotape analysis, and planning units” (Robbins, 1991, p. 5).

Robbins (1991) called them “forms of peer coaching activities” (p. 5), and he focused on two activities; one of them is formal and the other is not. The first type of peer-coaching activity that teachers can utilize involves teachers’ creating a lesson or curriculum unit, which is a formal activity. Teachers will work cooperatively with their colleagues to plan the lesson or curriculum (Robbins, 1991). In this type, both teachers will be coach and coachee at the same time because all of them will perform both the roles. For example, both of them will listen, give feedback, and help, which are roles of the coach. Also, they will write about what they think, and how creating a lesson plan added to their knowledge, which are roles of the coachee.

The second type of peer-coaching activities that teachers can use is storytelling about teaching experiences, which is an informal activity that will help
teachers to “share pedagogical knowledge” (Robbins, 1991, p. 3). For example, a teacher (a coachee) relates a story when he or she had a student who was not motivated to learn and how he or she taught him to be motivated to learn by teaching him in a different or special way. Then, the other teacher plays the coach role by listening to the coachee’s story, and providing a similar story or offering other strategies that increase students’ motivation. Therefore, storytelling as a peer-coaching activity helps teachers to increase knowledge about their techniques and strategies for teaching “within a safe context” (Robbins, 1991, p. 3). Also, using this activity can help teachers to solve problems that they face in the classroom through telling the story to another peer.

**Forms of Peer-Coaching Activities for Learners.** Because there are no scholars who write about forms of peer coaching that are especially for learners or students, using Robbins’ (1991) formal and informal forms to create activities for students, is crucial. The first form of peer-coaching activity that can be used for students is coach as collaborator, which is a formal activity that can happen in the classroom with supervision from a teacher. Teachers will assign students to work with someone, or students can choose someone to work with. Students will choose their roles at the beginning of the session, and then coaches will help the coachees choose goals or skills to obtain in the classroom. As a result, both of them will be coaches, coachees, and collaborators in order to get the full benefit of peer coaching.
The second form of peer-coaching activity that can be used for students is problem solving, which is an informal activity. Students can choose whom they want to work with, and choose who will be coach and coachee in the first session because they will change their roles in the second session. In the session, the coach will ask the coachee if he or she has any problems in the class and try to help him or her to solve the problems. Both of them will take the role of problem solvers as coaches.

In ESL and EFL contexts, students will gain benefit from these forms. First, their English language and their linguistic systems will develop because they will work with each other using English language. Second, they will form relationships with one another, which creates a good environment in the classroom. Third, they will become mediators by using peer coaching because they mediate tasks and help to construct new knowledge and new cultural systems as they work together.

To sum up, the most crucial form of peer coaching is reciprocal peer coaching, which allows both parties in the peer-coaching process to work collaboratively, both of them serving as coaches and coachees. This form has many types of activities that teachers and learners can use. Teachers can use two types of activity, which are making a lesson or curriculum unit or sharing pedagogical knowledge. However, the forms of peer-coaching activities for learners are derived from the activities for teachers, such as problem solving and
coach as collaborator, because it is hard to find a source that explains forms of peer-coaching activities for learners.

**Conclusion**

In conclusion, defining coaching and peer coaching from different perspectives helps to find a suitable definition of this process. Peer coaching in EFL and ESL contexts consists of two individuals’ working together in order to obtain many benefits. The benefits include improving their existing skills and gaining new ones, acquiring new techniques of teaching and learning, solving problems, sharing ideas, setting goals, and achieving them. In the peer-coaching process, coach and coachee have different roles, which are the most important components in the process.

Moreover, there are two crucial characteristics for peer coaching: communication between coach and coachee and reflection on the process and the work. Also, the process should incorporate six strategies that happen in three steps: pre-conference, observation, and post-conference. Applying these strategies and steps has many benefits: decreasing isolation, creating a positive climate in schools, increasing the self-regulation for both teachers and learners, and creating a collaborative ways for teaching and learning. Finally, the most important form in peer coaching is reciprocal peer coaching that features many types of activities for teachers and learners.
Assessing Intercultural Communicative Competence

This paper previously discussed the importance of intercultural communicative competence in ESL and EFL contexts, translinguaging and the important role of the primary language, the importance of mediating intercultural perspectives in language teaching and learning, and the role of peer coaching among EFL and ESL learners and their teachers. In addition, there is also a need for assessing learners and future educators.

This section reviews the role of assessment in evaluating learners’ ICC, and offers various forms of assessment with a description of each. Also, it provides ways that help educators choose suitable assessment to use with their learners. Finally, this paper describes the Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES).

The Role of Assessment

Assessment in general is important in the education system for many reasons. The first reason is that it helps to measure “the performance of schools and the individuals who attend them” (Corbett, 2003, p. 192). Assessment helps to evaluate the schools’ various functions, which are led by teachers and principals; and it measures learners’ performance. The second reason is that using assessment is not only beneficial for learners, but it is also beneficial for teachers who teach in the classroom because it helps teachers “to make decisions about students’ placement, to make day-to-day instructional decisions, to make resource decisions, and to measure students’ achievements against
standards” (Diaz-Rico, 2014, p. 194). The third reason is that assessment allows learners to measure their own growth and identify future needs.

Identifying the crucial role of assessment in general in the education system leads English-language educators to find assessment instruments to gauge intercultural communicative competence because there is a need to assess learners’ and other educators’ ICC. Learners and teachers in the ESL context need to assess ICC and work to develop it because they need the ability to interact effectively with other learners and teachers who are from various cultures. Moreover, learners and teachers in the EFL context need to interact successfully with other teachers who are from different cultures, and with other learners who are in various stages of acquiring the target language and culture.

However, in either context, assessing intercultural communicative competence raises many questions for English-language educators, whether they assess language or culture, because educators implement and mediate both learners’ primary and target languages and cultures (Corbett, 2003). Educators implement them both, especially in this paper, because they use ICC, mediating intercultural language teaching and learning, translanguaging, and peer coaching. Hence, as Corbett (2003) mentioned, the goals of any course should focus on “increasing language proficiency, gaining factual knowledge about the target culture, acculturating, and/or mediating between cultures” (p. 193). What is more important is that the assessments should match the curricular goals and process in order to be valid (Corbett, 2003). For example, educators
who want to focus on primary languages and cultures should create goals, process, and tests that match assessments.

In sum, there are three reasons for the importance of assessment in general, which are helping to measure schools’ and individuals’ performance, helping teachers to analyze learners’ performance, and helping learners to measure their improvement. Assessing ICC is crucial for ESL and EFL learners because using assessment in general has many benefits. Implementing an assessment to measure learners’ ICC requires a focus on both primary and target languages and cultures.

Forms of Assessments

There are various forms of assessment that help teachers to measure learners' ICC: formative, summative, self-assessment, and identity assessment. However, choosing one or all of them depends on the criteria for a good assessment. Norcini, Anderson, Bollela, Burch, Costa, Duvivier, Galbraith, Hays, Kent, Perport and Roberts (2011) mentioned many criteria for a suitable assessment, but the most important four criteria are validity, equivalence, educational effect, and feasibility. The first criteria, validity or coherence, is focused on assessment measuring “what it claims to be measuring” (Diaz-Rico, 2014, p. 213). Equivalence is when “assessment yields equivalent scores or decisions when administered across different institutions or cycles of testing” (Norcini et al., 2011, p. 211). The third criterion, educational effect, is focused on whether the assessment has any educational benefit for learners. The last
criterion is feasibility, which is focused on if the assessment “is practical, realistic, and sensible” (Norcini et al., 2011, p. 211).

**Formative Assessment.** This type of assessment is designed to monitor learners’ progress and give them feedback that guides their work during the course (Diaz-Rico, 2013). According to Diaz-Rico (2014), there are various types of formative assessment, such as teacher questioning, teacher observation, and feedback through grades. For example, teachers monitor learners’ work while they are in the class, ask them questions to make sure that they understand the task, and give them feedback through the rubric and before submitting the grades. Moreover, teachers can use e-mail to provide this kind of assessment. For example, after teachers observe students’ work, they can send an e-mail regarding what students had problems with and offer suggestions for how the work can be improved.

Hence, there is no grade given during formative assessment because it works as guidance for learners. This kind of assessment has many benefits for learners and teachers. For learners, it helps them to obtain knowledge about their strengths and challenges in order to choose what they need to improve in and how they can improve. For teachers, it helps them to observe learners’ performance and their challenges in order to provide assistance. In order to assess ESL and EFL learners’ ICC formatively after a self-assessment survey, teachers can circulate among learners to make sure that they know their areas of strength and challenge, and they (learners) can then choose the correct
strategies that will help them improve linguistically and culturally. Also, teachers can check learners’ progress for developing ICC by checking their steps and actions.

**Summative Assessment.** Assessment is considered summative if it is designed to evaluate students’ or learners’ skills and knowledge by the end of lesson or course (Corbett, 2003). Teachers assess learners’ performance based on the rubrics that they have created, and they assign scores based on the rubrics. According to Diaz-Rico (2014), there are two aspects of summative assessment, which are the final test and the final grade. For example, the teacher might give students a short-answer test, which would be scored based on an answer key. The final grade is based on criteria determined in advance by the instructor.

This kind of assessment works as a final assessment because it happens at the end of course or lesson. The summative assessment has an advantage for learners and teachers. For learners, it helps them to know from the beginning what criteria the teacher will use to assess them, which encourages them to work more seriously to succeed in class (Corbett, 2003). For teachers, it helps them to gauge learners’ performance in general. In order to assess ESL and EFL learners’ ICC in a summative way after taking a self-assessment survey, teachers can create a rubric that contains activities that helps learners to improve their ICC. For example, teachers can create a rubric that contains activities, such
as teaching a language or visiting a museum, so learners can do these activities and write a report about it and teachers can grade them based on the rubric.

**Self-Assessment.** A number of assessment forms allow learners to assess their own work or performance. Self-assessment is defined as “a process by which students 1) monitor and evaluate the quality of their thinking and behavior when learning and 2) identify strategies that improve their understanding and skills” (McMillan & Hearn, 2008, p. 40). Hence, self-assessment evaluates thinking and learning in order to identify strategies that aid improvement. This kind of assessment has various forms; “Students can discuss their progress with one another; write reflection logs; use checklists and inventories; and participate in reading and writing conferences to determine their progress and needs for growth” (Diaz-Rico, 2014, p. 204). For example, when learners discuss their progress with others or write a reflection on what they learned, they assess themselves.

According to McMillan and Hearn (2008), in order for learners to use self-assessment, they should first obtain a clear understanding of the task and choose strategies that help them to improve their skills, in ICC for example. Second, they discuss their strategies or goals with a peer and evaluate them. Third, they write a reflection on what they achieved or learned. Many scholars claimed that reflection is the most important part in the self-assessment process because learners obtain more knowledge on what they accomplished, and teachers can measure students’ performance through their reflections.
Self-assessment has many benefits for teachers and learners. First, it is “a critical skill that enhances student motivation and achievement” to improve and learn (McMillan & Hearn, 2008, p. 48). It helps students to improve their ability to connect between previous and new knowledge (McMillan & Hearn, 2008, p. 48). Hence, it helps ESL and EFL learners to mediate between the native and target languages and cultures in order to understand the task and evaluate themselves. Moreover, it helps learners to develop metacognitive skills and strategies. Self-assessment in ICC is when learners take a survey and then monitor and evaluate their thinking in the survey by discussing it with a peer, and then choose a strategy that helps them to develop in the areas of challenge. Also, they should write goals that they want to achieve, because if they set their own goals for improvement, they are more likely to achieve them (Zimmerman & Schunk, 2001).

**Identity Assessment.** Identity is comprised of abilities and personalities (Diaz-Rico, 2013). Also, identity shows a part of one’s culture through communication, which means assessing individuals’ identities is crucial in improving their ICC. Obtaining knowledge about their identities help them to know about their strengths and challenge areas in order to be competent in intercultural communication. In this paper, individuals’ identities are assessed through their IES profiles, which will be described later in this paper.

In sum, there are four forms of assessments. Formative assessment is monitoring learners’ progress and giving feedback, without giving grades.
Summative assessment is evaluating students’ work by giving them grades. Self-assessment is students’ evaluating their own work using various forms. Identity assessment is learners’ evaluating their strengths and weaknesses as expresses in their IES profiles. Teachers identify the best assessment by using the criteria for a good assessment: validity, equivalence, educational effect, and feasibility.

**Assessment Surveys of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)**

There are many surveys that educators can use to assess learners’ ICC. However, according to Deardorff (2004), educators should consider various factors before choosing the surveys; such factors are utilizing proper strategies and tools that are appropriate with the assessment and the learning goals, deciding the purpose of the assessment and how students can use it to evaluate their ICC, and judging the aspects of the tests or assessments if “they are valid and reliable” (p. 324). Teachers can use many activities and strategies beside the survey, such as “closed and open-ended questions, oral and written activities, individual and interactive activities in pairs or groups, dialogue, interviews, debate, and discussion, demonstrations, poster sessions, role-plays, and simulations, structured and unstructured field tasks and experiences” (Fantini, 2009, p. 464).

Teachers can provide a self-assessment survey, and based on learners’ scores on the survey, can offer strategies and activities that are mentioned earlier. Fantini (2009) claimed that the best assessment helps educators to collect direct evidence, such as written reflections; and indirect evidence, such as
survey results. According to Fantini (2009), there are more than 44 tools to assess ICC, which means describing all of them is difficult. Therefore, one might offer examples of these tools; for example, the Assessment of Intercultural Competence (AIC) that assesses intercultural competence beside the language; the Behavioral Assessment Scale for Intercultural Communication (BASIC) that measures individuals’ cross-cultural behavior; the Cross-cultural Sensitivity Scale (CCSS) that measures individuals sensitivity in cross-cultural situations; and the Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES), which will be described as follows.

To sum up, there are many self-assessment surveys that teachers can utilize with their learners. However, the most important part is choosing the most appropriate assessment for teachers’ goals and for learners’ needs. After choosing the assessment, teachers can create activities that help to address the goals of the assessment.

The Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES)

The IES survey, designed by the Kozai Group, supports people in universities, companies, and other organizations in developing global competency. The survey has multiple questions that measure intercultural effectiveness; these questions can be read in different languages, such as Arabic and English. Also, the survey focuses on three main competency scales that are important in creating an intercultural environment, which are Continuous Learning, Interpersonal Engagement, and Hardiness. What makes this survey different than others is that after individuals take it, they receive an e-mail with a
report about their scores. In the report, a figure shows individuals’ results clearly, as shown in Figure 2.7. This report serves as a mediational tool, as will become evident.

IES Feedback Report

Results for: (Name)

![IES Feedback Report](image)

Figure 2.7. Sample of the Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES) Report  
Source: Kozai Group, Inc. (2016, July 10). Retrieved from  
SL%20536%20SS%202016
The results show individuals’ scores in the main scales and subscales (each main scale has two subscales). The scores are separated in categories: low, moderate, and high, and ranked from one to six. These scores reflect individuals’ levels in each main scale and subscales relative to all of the people who took the survey.

Besides these scales, there is an overall IES score. According to Mendenhall, Stevens, Bird, Oddou, Osland (2011), “It is important to note that this score is not an average of the six sub-dimension scores,” but, it is based on “analyzing the responses to each question in the IES and then comparing those answers to those who have previously taken the IES” (p. 8). Then, in the report, there is an explanation for each main scale and subscale, which are summarized as follows.

Continuous Learning (CL). The first main scale that is assessed by IES, Continuous Learning, focuses on assessing the degree of individuals’ interest and general curiosity about the world by continually learning about themselves and others’ cultures and activities. This main scale has two subscales: Self-Awareness and Exploration. The first subscale, according to Mendenhall et al. (2011), Self-Awareness (SA), refers to the following:

The degree to which people are aware of: 1) their strengths and weaknesses in interpersonal skills, 2) their own philosophies and values, 3) how past experiences have helped shape them into who they are as a
person, and 4) the impact their values and behavior have on relationships with others. (p. 7)

The IES measures individuals’ SA, which includes strengths, weaknesses, and values. Self-Awareness (SA) is under the CL scale because it affects individuals’ ability to continue learning, and how they learn. Many scholars, such as Jokinen (2005) and Varner and Palmer (2005) claimed that Self-Awareness is one of the most crucial competencies that help to work with people who are from various cultures, which leads to effective intercultural communication.

The second subscale of Continuous Learning, Exploration (EX), assesses an individuals’ desire to be open minded, to comprehend foreign beliefs or values, and learn new things from different cultures. Exploration is a subscale of CL because exploring and learning about other people and other cultures is a part of continuous learning. Many scholars have discussed this subscale, as it is important for competence; one group defined it as the “capability to accept new ideas and see more than one’s own way of approaching and solving problems” (Tucker, Bonial, & Lahti, 2004, p. 230).

Therefore, scores in the subscales affect the score of the main scales. For example, if an individual obtains high scores in both SA and E, he or she will obtain a high score in CL. Higher and lower scores in both subscales have meaning for individuals. Individuals (learners) who obtain high scores in SA are able to evaluate themselves and their experiences, and know their strengths and weaknesses; whereas individuals who obtain a low score in SA face difficulties
learning from their previous experiences and discovering themselves. Also, individuals who have a high score in EX are open minded and curious about people and the world, but individuals who have a low score in EX are less so.

**Interpersonal Engagement (IE).** The second main scale that is assessed by IES is the Interpersonal Engagement (IE) scale, which is the degree to which individuals desire to form relationships with people who are different from them. This scale depends on two subscales: the Global Mindset subscale and the Relationship Interest subscale. Global Mindset (GM) measures individuals’ interest in reading about other cultures, and if they seek to learn about other cultures through newspapers and other media. GM is a subscale for IE because the more knowledge that individuals have about others, the easier it will be to create relationships with them. The second subscale is Relationship Interest (RI), which measures “the degree to which people have a desire and willingness to initiate and maintain relationships with people from other cultures” (Mendenhall et al., 2011). It is an important skill in intercultural communication because it helps in sustaining relationships with others, a key to communication (Arthur & Bennett, 1995).

As mentioned earlier in this paper, the scores in the subscales affect the score on the main scale. Individuals who have a high score in GM have a global knowledge about other cultures because they make effort to know about other cultures; but a low score means that individuals have spent less effort to learn and know about other cultures. Individuals who have a high score in RI are
interested in creating relationships with others, but individuals who have a low score are not as interested in this aspect.

**Hardiness (H).** The third main scale, Hardiness, measures the degree to which an individual who is working with people who are different than her or him linguistically, culturally, and religiously can avoid being judgmental. Also, Hardiness includes enduring difficult situations that individuals will face in an intercultural environment. There are two subscales for Hardiness: Positive Regard and Emotional Resilience. Positive Regard (PR) measures “the degree to which one thinks positively about people from other cultures” because most people use their native culture as the standard for analyzing the differences among cultures. (Mendenhall et al., 2011, p. 12). Positive Regard is a subscale for H because thinking positively about people is a part of individuals’ effort to avoid negative judgments. The second subscale, Emotional Resilience (ER), measures individuals’ ability to cope with their emotional problems by using their emotional strength. Emotional Resilience is an important subscale for Hardiness because it focuses on coping and enduring problems.

Therefore, individuals who have a high score in PR tend to accept people who are different than them, but individuals who have a low score in PR tend to form negative opinions and stereotypes about others. Individuals who have a high score in ER can manage their emotional situations, but individuals who have a low score in ER face difficulties in coping with their emotional problems. The scores in the subscales affect the score of the main scale, which is Hardiness.
The Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES): Profiles. After describing the main scales and subscales, the survey shows individuals how to identify their profile type based on their results. Individuals use Figure 2.8 to place a dot on the number corresponding to scores on their main scales, and then connect the dots in order to make a triangle. Thus, those who take the IES create their IES profiles using the diagram and this becomes their ICC identity in terms of the IES. Therefore, the most crucial part in the IES is that individuals obtain knowledge about their ICC identities.

![Figure 2.8. Profile Graph](http://reporting.qualtrics.com/Kozai.php?report=SurveyReports&SGID=EE SL%20536%20SS%202016)
After connecting the dots, individuals will find their IES profiles based on the triangle that they draw. There are eight IES profile types: Globalist, Scholar, Networker, Explorer, Observer, Individualist, Extrovert, and Traditionalist. The report offers a general description for each profile.

Individuals who have a Globalist profile have high scores in all main scales; individuals who have a Scholar profile have high scores in CL and H, but a low score in IE; individuals who have a Networker profile have a low score in CL but high scores in IE and H; individuals who have an Explorer profile have high scores in CL and IE but a low score in H; individuals who have an Observer profile have a high score in CL but low scores in IE and H; individuals who have an Individualist profile have low scores in CL and IE but a high score in H, individuals who have an Extrovert profile have low scores in CL and H but a high score in IE; and individuals who have a Traditionalist profile have low scores in all scales.

Moreover, the report offers a comparison of individuals’ scores with general tendencies of people who take this survey. The general tendencies part in the report shows features of people who have high and low score in each subscale. After individuals learn about their IES profiles and their general tendencies, they will choose one or two areas to work on by choosing strategies and goals. The report provides strategies that help individuals to increase their scores in each subscale. The profile and the general tendencies emphasize a
The Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES): Personal Development Plan.

At the end of the report, there is a table that helps learners to create their personal development plan. The table has five parts that help individuals to create a plan: assessment, goals, tactics, support, and accountability. In the assessment part, individuals decide their challenge area, and in the goals part, they choose the objectives of their plan. In tactics, they choose strategies that are mentioned in the report or they can create their own. In the support part, they choose who will coach and support them; and in the accountability part, individuals report to their coaches what they have done to further their goals.

The Intercultural Effectiveness Scale is a mediational tool for many reasons. First, it offers a report that shows individuals scores in the most crucial scales and subscales for ICC, which helps individuals to obtain knowledge about their areas of strength and challenge. Second, it offers a way that help learners to identify their profiles and to know their tendencies. Third, it offers strategies and ways for developing in each main scale and subscale, which help individuals to choose from them. Finally, it provides a plan that help learners to set their strategies and goals.

To sum up, the IES is an excellent example of both self-assessment survey for ICC, and a mediational tool. It has three main scales and various subscales. It provides learners or individuals with their profile type, general
tendencies, and strategies that help them to create their personal development plan.

Conclusion

Using assessment in general in the education system is important because it has many benefits for teachers and learners, such as measuring students’ performance. Assessing ICC for ESL and EFL learners is important and helps to mediate both primary and target cultures and languages. Teachers who want to assess learners’ ICC should obtain knowledge about the forms of assessment, which are formative, summative, and self-assessment. Moreover, they should obtain knowledge about choosing an appropriate assessment for learners based on the goals for the course.

Also, after they choose the assessment, teachers should add activities and strategies that address the goals to be assessed. Because there are many surveys that learners can use to assess their ICC, focusing and explaining one of them is useful; the IES is an excellent example because it features both a scene report and strategies that help teachers and learners to use it to increase their ICC.
CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Theoretical Framework

According to the review of literature (Chapter Two), instructors should learn and acquire intercultural communicative competence (ICC), which requires them to act as mediators, and apply and use different techniques and skills. They need to use pedagogical translinguaging, use the process of peer coaching, and employ and teach a form of self-reflection. In the case of this research, such mediation took place as a research project at California State University, San Bernardino over the summer of 2016. This chapter provides a theoretical framework that works as a model for mediation and assessment of ICC (see Figure 3.1). Each part of the model will be explained in turn. Also, this chapter provides an explanation of the procedures by which this model was tested, as well as an explanation of instruments to collect the data.

Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

In a modern, globalized world, there is a need to deploy ICC in the education system, especially in teaching English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) because English is a dominant language for intercultural communication today. Hence, educators in both contexts should have ICC and should use it with and teach it to learners. Deploying ICC with learners and educators requires a dynamic view, which shows language and culture as semiotic or social practices.
Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

**Linguistic**
- Native Language (NL)
- Target Language (TL)

**Cultural**
- Native Culture (NC)
- Target Culture (TC)

**Mediation**

**Mediational Tools**
- Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES) as ICC assessment and mediational tool
- Teacher as a mediational resource
- Translanguaging as a student strategy and as pedagogy

**Peer Coaching**
- Positive tone/rapport
- Mutual support
- Shared vocabulary

**Assessment**
- Self-Assessment
- Identity Assessment (in the IES profile)
- Formative Assessment
- Summative Assessment

Figure 3.1. A Model for Mediation and Assessment of Intercultural Communicative Competence

In Figure 3.1, ICC is divided into linguistic and cultural aspects, each of which has native and target components. The linguistic system includes the native languages (NL) of individuals and the target language (TL), which is English in this paper; whereas the cultural systems include the native culture.
(NC) of individuals and the target culture (TC). The ICC requires understanding NL and TL, as well as comprehending NC and TC and shifting between them in order to communicate effectively with other individuals. Language and culture are so intertwined that the term linguaculture has been used to indicate this connection. In this model, the terms are distinct, but the interconnection is emphasized by the set of connective arrows. In this project, the linguistic aspects showed up in the language-teaching activity that the participants did, whereas the cultural aspects showed up in the museum-visit activity.

Educators in both contexts (ESL and EFL) need to use NL and TL to help learners to comprehend TL easier. Also, they use both NC and TC in order to teach the English language successfully because learners need to understand the target culture in order to understand texts. Learners and educators in both contexts make comparisons between both languages and cultures, and ask questions that mediate between both the native and target cultures and languages.

Mediation: Mediation Tools and Peer Coaching

In teaching English as a second and foreign language, mediation offers a way to help to make a relationship or transformation between the previous knowledge set and the current one, which are the primary and target cultures and languages. In order to mediate ICC, there are three mediational tools plus the peer-coaching process, which will be discussed as follows. The tools and the process help to mediate cultures and languages in ESL and EFL contexts.
Mediational Tools. The first mediational tool is use of the intercultural effectiveness scale (IES), which is a self-survey that individuals use to assess themselves in ICC. After individuals take the IES, a feedback report is sent to their emails. This report shows their strength and weakness areas in ICC. The report also features mediational tools that help them to set goals in order to grow in ICC. For example, the report offers strategies for development in each scale, and it offers a table that helps individuals to set a personal development plan.

The second mediational tools are the instructors themselves, who are irreplaceable resources for mediating ICC for two reasons. First, they have a mandate to create methodology and lesson plans that help learners to be mediators for themselves. Second, they are model for the learners, so they should have ICC.

The third mediational tool is translanguaging that uses languages as social semiotics, which is the most appropriate view of language in ICC. It is the ability to utilize L1 and L2 in one linguistic system that encourages learners and educators to use their previous knowledge to build new meaning and new knowledge. Educators can use translanguaging as pedagogy, and students can use it as a strategy that treats both languages as one linguistic repertoire, with features from both languages.

Peer Coaching. One way for educators and learners to develop ICC is by the use of peer caching. The peer-coaching process is when two individuals, who have different native cultures and languages and who are in multiples levels in
target culture and language, work together to achieve many benefits: developing ICC by setting goals and achieving them; developing knowledge in both the target culture and language; improving their existing skills and obtaining new ones, attaining new techniques of teaching and learning, and sharing ideas.

In the peer-coaching process, each pair serves as both a coach and a coachee, and both should use three ways to support each other. The first way is that they should use a positive tone, which means using positive and encouraging words in responding to each other. The second way is that they should be mutual in their support of each other by using a lot of positive talks to explain their point or to support their peers, not just “thanks.” The third way is shared vocabulary, which means the coach and coachee are able to understand each other, and they use mutually understandable terminology in their feedback and responses.

**Assessment**

In order to assess individuals’ ICC, there is a need for self-assessment and identity assessment, as well as formative assessment and summative assessment from teachers. The self-assessment comprises students’ reflection on their work, what they did or did not do and what they did or did not achieve. The identity assessment of the participants is expressed in ICC terms through the IES profile, which forms one basis for coaching as a mediational tool. The formative assessment is that instructors mentor and guide students’ work without grading it. The summative assessment occurs when students’ work is graded
based on a scoring rubric. The role of assessment in this model is to document how mediation affects the development of ICC.

Methodology of the Study

The Purpose of the Study

This thesis focuses on the importance of intercultural communicative competence (ICC) in teaching English, and it provides ways that help educators and learners to improve their ICC. There are four purposes or objectives of the study. The first objective of the study is to examine the activities that show the linguistic and cultural aspects of ICC. The second objective is to determine whether the use of a mediational model, which consists of the mediational tools and the peer-coaching process, increases the participants’ ICC. The third objective is to utilize a variety of assessments to record individuals’ mediational efficacy in increasing the ICC of their peers and themselves. The fourth objective is to investigate the use of PBworks wiki as a collaborative tool for self-reflection and mediation. The general purpose is to highlight a new model of ICC mediation that raises classroom-based ICC development.

Participants

The participants were graduate students in the Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) program at California State University, San Bernardino (CSUSB). The participants have various linguistic and cultural backgrounds, as shown in Figure 3.2. The study occurred in the summer (2016)
in the Crosscultural Teaching class (EESL 536). The age of the participants ranged from 23 to 63. There were 14 women and four men.

Figure 3.2. Linguistic/Cultural Background of the Participants

**Procedure**

This study took place at CSUSB in Summer Session 1, from June 22 to August 1, 2016. In order to obtain knowledge about the effectiveness of the self-survey (IES), peer coaching, and self-reflection, participants took part in a procedure that had three different phases. The phases were first, taking IES as a self-survey and using its mediational tools; second, peer coaching through two different activities; and third, writing a final reflection on peer coaching. All
phases will be described in the following paragraphs in depth, and the timeline for phases and its process will be shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1. Timeline for Participants’ Activities*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Date</th>
<th>Activity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>June 22, 2016</td>
<td>Take IES as a pretest and write intercultural autobiography.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 27, 2016</td>
<td>Submit a reflection of the result, which includes the areas that participants want to improve, strategies, and goals.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 29, 2016</td>
<td>Assess the IES profile, and reflect on goal setting, and strategy selection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June 29, 2016</td>
<td>Divide class into groups of two in order to do peer coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 11, 2016</td>
<td>Submit a reflection of the coach regarding coachee’s IES.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 11, 2016</td>
<td>Submit a reflective statement from coachees regarding discussion of the IES result with a coach.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 13, 2016</td>
<td>Assessment of reflection regarding IES peer coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 18, 2016</td>
<td>Blog report of Activity 1 from the participants (coachees)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 18, 2016</td>
<td>Coach feedback to Activity 1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 18, 2016</td>
<td>Coachees’ reflections on coaches’ comments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 20, 2016</td>
<td>Assessment of Activity 1.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 20, 2016</td>
<td>Blog report of Activity 2 from the participant (coachee)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 20, 2016</td>
<td>Coach feedback to Activity 2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 20, 2016</td>
<td>Coachees’ reflections on coaches’ comments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 25, 2016</td>
<td>Assessment of Activity 2.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 25, 2016</td>
<td>Final reflection from participant relating to IES and peer coaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>July 27, 2016</td>
<td>Assessment of final reflection on coaching.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Assessments comprise formative/summative feedback and point awards from the instructor (co-investigator).

Moreover, all participants submitted reflective PBworks wiki blog entries on the three phases above: on their IES scores and profiles, on their roles as
both coach and coachee in the two activities, and on their final reflection. Wiki PBworks is a collaborative tool that links participants, especially the coach and coachee, to know about each other’s progress. Using this tool, the co-investigators were able to track the process, supplying reminders and feedback to the group as a whole as well as to specific individuals.

**Administration and Feedback of the Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES)**

All participants in the study took the IES, and then received a report that described their results along with a report that served as a mediational tool to help participants understand their strengths and challenge areas. This was accompanied by the profile tool, tendency explanation, a goal-setting opportunity, and a strategy-selection tool. Participants wrote a reflection on their IES results that included a description of their scores in each dimension of the IES, and a description of the goals and strategies that they chose to develop in a selected area(s). Finally, they were assessed based on the rubric that was created for this class (see Appendix A).

**Peer Coaching Processes**

After the participants were divided into groups of two in order to proceed with peer coaching, each participant worked with a peer to set goals and select strategies. Each one of them took two roles: a coach, by writing about his or her pair’s (coachee’s) IES results; and a coachee, to write about his or her (coach’s) mediation or support regarding their discussion of the IES. After peer coaches
knew about each other’s IES goals and strategies, there were two activities that took place on the campus.

The First Activity. The first activity took place at the Robert and Frances Fullerton Museum of Art (RAFFMA) at California State University, San Bernardino. This activity required that the participants visit the museum in company with an assigned activity partner from the class with whom the participant did not share a common culture. Then, all participants wrote a blog report to their coaches that contained the date of visit, a description of the visit, and strategies that they used to develop their targeted goal areas. Their coaches wrote feedback that showed their opinions regarding the use of the coachees’ selected strategies during the visit. Finally, all participants responded to their coaches’ feedback and explained how it helped them, as coachees.

The Second Activity. The second activity required that each participant meet on campus to teach a language to another partner in the class with whom the participant did not share the same first language. All participants spoke English, so they taught another language, such as Spanish or Arabic. After they taught the lesson, they wrote a blog report to their coaches using the wiki. This report contained the date of lesson, a description of the lesson, and strategies that they use to develop ICC. Also, the blog report included a lesson plan that they used to teach the language. Their coaches gave them feedback regarding their language-teaching session. The coachees responded to their coaches’
feedback. Both of these feedback efforts were guided by explicit instructor feedback.

The Final Self-Reflection

At the end, all participants wrote a final self-reflection that was related to their IES goals and strategies, and how they improved. Also, it included their roles as coaches and coachees, and how these roles helped them to improve and be competent in intercultural communication.

Data Collection

The data was collected during the period June-July 2016. It was collected from the participants’ profiles of IES and their reflections through wiki. There were two ways to collect the data, which are using the IES scores and profiles, and the wiki PBworks entries, which will be described in the following section.

The ICC Self-Assessment. The Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES) is the self-assessment that all participants took, which is the first means by which the researcher collected data. Their data through IES was collected in a private way. Participants’ scores and profiles on the IES are reported using a table that shows their scores in each main scale and subscale (see Chapter Two, Figure 2.7). This table helped to learn more about their scores in each main scale and subscale, and it helped to learn about the weakness and strength areas for the participants.

The Collaborative Tool. The PBworks wiki is the collaborative tool that helped the researcher to collect the data. Through the PBworks wiki, participants
wrote all their reflections and blog reports based on the requirements on the rubric (see Appendix A). Therefore, the PBworks wiki played a crucial role in this study. Through the PBworks wiki, participants wrote their first reflection of the IES by describing their scores and mentioning their goals and strategies. This step helped to identify the areas that participants focused on or wanted to improve in, using their strategies.

Also, they used the PBworks wiki to reflect as a coach and a coachee about each other’s IES reports. Participants communicated with their peers by writing blog reports about visiting the museum as well as teaching a language, and all of them reflected on their experiences as a coach and a coachee. This step helped to obtain knowledge about the success of peer coaching. Finally, using the PBworks wiki, they wrote a self-reflection regarding peer coaching, which helped to express their opinions about coaching.

Together these procedures and assessments were used to mediate development in ICC on the part of the participants as well as to help them develop skills in the use of peer coaching as a mediational device.
CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The Process of Analysis

In this thesis, the data to be analyzed was drawn from two main sources; the first from the intercultural communicative competence (ICC) self-assessment, the Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES), because it provided the participants’ scores on the main scales and subscales, and their profiles. The second main source of data was the collaborative tool PBworks; this served as a repository for the participants’ reflections on the IES and their work during the peer-coaching process.

The researcher used a mixed-method study that contained quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data were collected through ICC self-assessments, the IES as a mediational tool, and the peer-coaching process. The qualitative data were collected through the participants’ activities. The following paragraphs will explain those data in detail by illustrating them with figures and tables.

The Assessment of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

There were four kinds of assessment data collected in the research: self-assessment, identity assessment, formative assessment, and summative assessment. The self-assessment data was represented by the participants’ scores on each of the main scale and subscale. The identity assessment was represented by the participants’ IES profiles. The formative assessment
consisted of the instructor feedback to the class. The summative assessment comprised the rubric that was created especially for this study.

The Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES) as a Self-Assessment. The ICC self-assessment, the IES, provided a way to analyze the participants’ scores, which was provided by a group report that showed the distribution of participants’ IES scores in EESL 536. Also, the researcher used the participants’ scores to find the average frequency of main scales and subscales.

The group report showed the distribution of the participants’ IES scores, which helped to identify the strengths and challenge areas for the group as a whole. The group report represents the numbers of participants who are at Low, Moderate, and High levels in each of the main scales and subscales, as shown in Figure 4.1. The participants’ IES scores on the main scales and subscales placed them with other participants who had similar scores. The Low level comprised all participants who got one or two on the main scales and the subscales; the Moderate level consisted of the participants who obtained three and four; and the High level represented the participants who got five and six on the main scales and the subscales.

In Figure 4.1, the first main scale is Continuous Learning (CL) on which six participants were at the Low level, three at the Moderate level, and eight at the High level.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Low</th>
<th>Moderate</th>
<th>High</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
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<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall IES Score</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The group score includes data from 17 participants, omitting that of the participant-researcher.

Figure 4.1. Distribution of Individual Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES) Scores for Education-Teaching English to Speakers of Other Language (EESL 536*)


The CL has two subscales, Self-Awareness (SA) and Exploration (EX); the scores of these the subscales are averaged to comprise the scores on the
main scale (CL). In SA, two participants were at the Low level, eight at the Moderate level, and seven at High, whereas in EX six participants were at the Low level, six at the Moderate level, and five at High.

The second main scale is Interpersonal Engagement (IE), in which seven participants were at the Low level, six at the Moderate one, and four at High. This scale has two subscales: Global Mindset (GM) and Relationship Interest (RI). In GM, there were nine participants at the Low level, two at the Moderate level, and six at High; whereas in RI, there were six participants at the Low level, four at the Moderate level, and seven at High. Therefore, this description offers an understanding that most (15) participants were at the Low level in both subscales, which explained that most of them were at the low level in the main scale (IE).

The third main scale is Hardiness (H), in which eight participants were at the Low level, four at the Moderate level, and five at High. This scale has two subscales, Positive Regard (PR) and Emotional Resilience (ER). In PR, six participants were at the Low level, three at the Moderate, and eight at High. In ER, there were seven participants at the Low and Moderate levels, and three at High. Therefore, this description explains that most participants (13) obtained a Low score in both subscales, which led to a low score in the main scale. As a result, most participants were at the Low level in the IE and H, but they were at the Moderate or high levels in the CL. Also, the overall IES score showed that
seven participants were at the Low level, five participants were at the Moderate level, and five at High.

The second data source is obtained by calculating the average frequency of main scales and subscales of the participants. In order to obtain more accurate data, the researcher combined all the scores of the eighteen participants in order to obtain a greater understanding of the strengths and challenge areas for them, as shown in Figure 4.2.

![Figure 4.2. Average Frequency of Main Scales and Subscales](image)

Regarding main scales, Figure 4.2 shows that the participants had strengths in Continuous Learning (CL), which means that their challenge areas
were Hardiness (H) and Interpersonal Engagement (IE). Regarding subscales, the participants’ strength area was Self-Awareness (SA). However, the challenge areas, depending on the percentage, were as following, from strengths to challenge areas: Relationship Interest (RI), Positive Regard (PR), Exploration (EX), Global Mindset (GM), and Emotional Resilience (ER). Therefore, participants’ challenge areas were IE and H among the subscales.

The Identity Assessment. The second type of assessment helps to find the frequency of various profiles of the participants based on their scores on the reports. The IES provides a tool that helped the participants to learn about their ICC identity based on their profiles. The participants’ profiles depended on their scores in each main scale, meaning that analyzing participants’ profiles helped the participants to obtain knowledge about their ICC identity and their strengths and challenge areas. There are eight types of profiles with a number of the participants in each, as shown in Figure 4.3.

The highest number of the participants (five) had a Scholar profile, which means that they had high scores in CL and H, but a low score in IE. Second to the Scholar profile was the Explorer profile with four participants, which means that the participants had high scores in CL and IE but a low score in H. There was one participant who had the Observer profile, which means he or she had a high score in CL but low scores in IE and H. Also, there were two participants who had the Globalist profiles, which means that they had high scores in all main scales.
Figure 4.3. Frequency of Various Profiles of the Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES)

However, the rest of the participants (six) were in various profiles. There were two participants each in the Networker and Traditionalist profiles. Also, there was one participant in each of the Individualist and Extrovert profiles. Therefore, twelve participants had a high score in CL, but they were in different levels in IE and H. As a result, most participants' strength was in CL, and their challenge areas were in IE and H, which agrees with the analyses of the group report and the analyses of the average of main scales and subscales. In summary, the participants' ICC identities showed through their profiles, which
helped their coaches and coachees to know more about the current state of their ICC.

The Formative and Summative Assessment. The formative assessment is shown in the instructor’s feedback before grading the students (participants). After the students submitted their goals and strategies on the IES, the teacher mentored and guided their descriptions of the two activities, which were visiting the museum and participating in a language-teaching session. The teacher reminded some students to mention their IES goals and strategies in their reflections and explain how they utilized them in the activity. For example, in the language-teaching session, one of the participants explained the whole lesson, but he did not mention his IES goals or strategies, so the instructor offered formative assessment by reminding him to write about how he used his IES goals as he taught.

Moreover, the instructor used formative assessment for the peer-coaching process by guiding the coach and the coachee to respond to each other in terms of their IES goals and in terms of how their visit and the lesson went. For example, the instructor sent an email as a formative assessment for all students by writing the following statement “As you coach, it is not enough to be a cheerleader; you need to comment on your coachees’ progress, specifically mentioning their IES-related goals and strategies” (L. Diaz-Rico, personal communication via Pbworks wiki, July 17, 2016). The formative assessment helped the students to focus more on their goals and strategies on the IES and
not only focus on the activity descriptions. Therefore, in order to deploy ICC with the students, there was a need for formative assessment because it helped them to focus more on ICC.

The summative assessment was shown in the course-related rubric (see Appendix A). The summative assessment graded the students (participants) by giving them point awards from the instructor (co-investigator). The rubric was created especially for this project. The rubric was worth 150 points out of the course total of 500, and it consisted of five parts. In the first part, the instructor graded the students’ intercultural autobiography and their first self-reflection about the IES scores, goals, and strategies. In the second part, the instructor graded the students’ reflection on their coachee’ results, profile, plans, and strategies. In the third and fourth parts, the instructor measured the students’ report on the first and second activities by evaluating the IES plans, the students’ feedback as a coach on their partners’ reports, and the students’ feedback as coachees on coaches’ comments. In the fifth part, the instructor measured the students’ final reflections on their roles as coaches and coachees concerning their IES goals and plans.

Most students obtained full credit in this rubric, and no one failed to submit all the requirements in the rubric. The rubric had two benefits for the students. First, the rubric helped them to notice what they would be graded on. Second, it helped them to notice the importance of improving their ICC because the most important part in the rubric and on the teacher’s feedback was the focus on the
IES goals and strategies. One of the examples that showed the benefits of the rubric was a conversation between two participants about the use of the rubric. One of them (a coachee) wrote in her description of the museum-visit “Before entering the museum, (N) and I reviewed the rubric and the purpose of the museum visit,” and her coach replied by saying “I think it was a good idea that you reviewed the rubric prior to starting, that way both of you had the opportunity to clarify your IES goals” (Participant 8 & Participant 11, personal communication, July 25, 2016).

Therefore, using formative and summative assessments helped to develop the participants’ ICC because in the formative assessment, the investigator guided and helped the participants in their ICC developments; and in the summative assessment, the rubric or their eagerness to obtain points and pass the class helped to improve their ICC.

Mediating Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

In order to mediate ICC, there were two means: mediational tools and the peer-coaching process. There were three mediational tools in this study that helped the researcher to collect and analyze the data. The first tool consisted of using the intercultural effectiveness scale (IES) as a mediational device because it offers strategies that helped the participants to improve in their challenge areas. The second mediational tool was the instructor, the main source for mediating ICC through providing comments and feedback. The third mediational tool was translanguaging pedagogy, which is defined as the first and second
languages as one linguistic system. The second way is the peer-coaching process. The participants in this process mediated each other through positive tone, mutual support, and shared vocabulary.

Mediational Tools. After finding the strengths and challenge areas for participants and their profiles in ICC, there was a need to choose the strategies and goals that they would deploy drawing from the main scales and subscales. The first self-reflection that the participants wrote on the IES goals and strategies helped the researcher to collect the data, as shown in Figure 4.4.

Figure 4.4. Frequency of Scales/Subscales Selection as Goals

Figure 4.4 shows the participants’ selection of main scales and subscales as goals to improve. Some of the participants chose one main scale or subscale
as a goal, but others chose two areas or scales as goals. The result was that they did not choose any main scales to be improved except Hardiness (H).

Most of the participants chose subscales as goals. The highest number of the participants chose the Global Mindset (GM) and the Emotional Resilience (ER), which are subscales of the challenge areas (IE and H). By looking at the subscales of each main scale, it is easy to notice that most of the participants worked on the GM subscale, which means that the IE and its subscales were the main challenge areas because the participants wrote ten goals on that category.

Moreover, the participant chose a varied number of strategies to work toward their goals from the IES. Figure 4.5 shows the participants’ number of strategies in each main scale and subscale. Figure 4.5 shows various numbers of strategies that the participants chose from the IES mediational tool. Most strategies that the participants chose were in the Global Mindset (GM), followed by Emotional Resilience (RE) and Exploration (EX).

Therefore, this result sustains the fact that the participants’ challenge areas were IE and its subscales, because they wrote 23 strategies on this main scale compared to other main scales. However, in order to obtain more understanding of how the IES became a mediational tool for learners, there is a need to count the number of strategies that the participants got from the IES. All the participants used at least one of the strategies that were in the IES follow-up report booklet. They used 30 strategies from the IES out of 50 strategies that they wrote, which means that the most strategies that the participants used were
from the IES booklet. Hence, the IES provided the participants with the majority of strategies that they used in their improvement in the ICC.

![Graph showing numbers of strategies per goal selected]

Figure 4.5. Numbers of Strategies per Goal Selected

The second mediational tool was the instructor, who was the main source for mediation. The instructor in this project helped to mediate ICC in many ways.

First, the instructor reminded the students (participants) in each activity to keep in mind their IES goals and strategies by writing notes after the students’ descriptions of each activity. Also, the instructor helped the students to be mediators by themselves. For example, in the peer coaching, the coach wrote a report about the coachee’s IES, so the instructor sent an e-mail for all students that contained the statement as follows:
I would like to see you get down to the level of strategies with your coachees; to suggest activities that can be done this summer, maybe in this class to work on their plan for improvement. You need to go over their strategies with them to see if they are realistic and practical, and perhaps add to their strategies. By the time this class is over, they will need to be well on their way to cultural expansion, which is an accelerated time frame but very necessary. You will need to help them create plans that will work both in the short run and in the long run. (L. Diaz-Rico, personal communication via Pbworks wiki, July 10, 2016)

Therefore, the instructor guided the students (participants) to mentor and maintain their coachees’ strategies, which would help the coaches to become intercultural mediators. Moreover, the instructor mediated ICC for the whole group, specific group, or specific individuals by using both individual and group e-mails as mediational tools.

The instructor not only mediated ICC, but also mediated the learning process. The instructor helped to mediate students’ ICC and their learning by monitoring them in the two activities, which were visiting the museum and the language-teaching session. For example, in the second activity, the instructor reminded students to use their IES strategies as well as teaching strategies. Also, the instructor wrote comments in the rubric, which is a kind of mediation, to inform students about the level of their work.
The third mediational tool is translanguaging, both as educators’ pedagogy and as learners’ strategy. The translanguaging showed up in the second activity of the peer-coaching process, the language-teaching session. In this activity, each participant taught an assigned partner an unfamiliar language, and then he or she described the language session clearly by uploading lesson plans, worksheets, and reflection entries. All participants were teachers and learners in the same session. From their description, the researcher found that both the lesson instructors and the learners used translanguaging as a mediational tool for teaching and learning a language. Most participants taught a language other than English, as shown in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1. The Number of Participants Who Taught Specific Languages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Languages Taught</th>
<th>Number of Participants Per Language</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Arabic</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spanish</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>French</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Because all the participants shared English, most of them used translanguaging to describe the new language that they taught, which means that they used both languages in one linguistic repertoire. Their use of translanguaging showed in the worksheets and activities that they used with their learners. All the participants who taught a language other than English used
worksheets that had two languages, which were English and the language they wanted to teach. Therefore, they used translanguaging pedagogy to mediate their language teaching through activities and worksheets. Also, one of the teachers used three languages in her teaching session: English, Spanish, and Arabic. The learner and the teacher shared English and Spanish, so the teacher planned to teach the learner Arabic greetings by using English and Spanish. Moreover, the learners used translanguaging as a strategy to learn the language by asking questions. For example, one of the learners asked the teacher to write and pronounce the word “beautiful” in Arabic.

Peer Coaching. The second mean of mediation was the peer-coaching process. The participants were divided into nine pairs comprised of a coach and a coachee. The cultures and the IES profiles were varied among the participants in each pair, as shown in Figure 4.6.

Figure 4.6 shows the number of pairs that had participants who had the same or different cultures and profiles. Four pairs had participants who had different cultures, but there were five pairs that had participants who shared the same cultures. Also, eight pairs had participants who had different profiles; whereas, one pair had two participants who shared the same profile. Therefore, all the participants in each pair were varied in their cultures or profiles.

The peer-coaching processes in this project were as follows: the participants did two activities with an assigned partner; they described to their coaches what they did in the activities; their coaches gave them feedback; and
then they as coachees responded to their coaches’ feedback. Each participant was both a coach and a coachee. The pairs used three aspects to support each other: a positive tone, mutual support, and shared vocabulary. Therefore, there is a need to analyze the participants’ use of the three aspects of the peer-coaching process.

First, all participants used a positive tone to support and encourage each other. All coaches used positive words that helped in their mediation to their coachees. The coaches wrote their feedback on the coachees’ description of the activity, and they wrote feedback on the coachees’ IES goals and strategies. For

![Figure 4.6. Frequency of the Same and Different Cultures and Profiles Among Group Pairs](image)
example, one of the participants responded to her or his coachee on the visiting-museum activity, as follows:

It sounds like you had a valuable experience with (N) in the museum because both of you like artwork and painting. You had great ideas, such as reviewing the rubric and have a discussion about the museum. In terms of your growth in the Interpersonal Engagement area of the IES, I think visiting the museum with (N) gave you an opportunity to apply your goals and strategies because you knew (N) from previous classes. Your way of asking questions about the meaning of words and artwork showed your curiosity, and it showed one of the tactics that we discussed in order to develop the Global Mindset category. In relationship interest, I think you aware of this area because you mentioned that you needed to talk more with individuals who are from different cultures. I think if you create relationships with our classmates who are from different cultures, your Relationship Interest area will develop. (Participant 11, personal communication, July 25, 2016)

Also, all coachees used positive tones in their responses to their coaches; for example, “Thank you for your insight on my description,” “I like your suggestion or advice,” or “Thank you for your feedback and your positive response.” Therefore, all participants succeeded in delivering a positive tone both as coaches and coachees.
Second, in order to analyze the aspects of participants’ mutual support, the researcher counted the participants’ words in both activities as coaches. Figure 4.7 shows the number of words that the 18 participants wrote as coaches in the visiting museum and language-teaching activities. By looking at the figure, it is easy to notice that the participants were in various levels in writing because some of them wrote many words, but others did not. Also, some of them wrote many more words as coaches in one activity rather than the other. However, the participants wrote more as coaches in the language-teaching session because there were 43 words extra than the museum-visit activity.

Figure 4.7. Word Count of the Participants in Roles of Coaches
The 18 participants were coaches and coachees at the same time. For example, the participants One and Three were the first pair of the peer-coaching process, and both of them were coaches and coachees for each other; it is easy to notice that Participant One gave more support to Participant Three. Therefore, there is a need for a new figure that shows only the overall number of words in both activities for the participants as coaches in both activities. Figure 4.8 shows the overall number of words that the participant wrote as coaches. In Figure 4.8, it is easy to notice the differences between the participants in their overall number of words. However, none of them wrote less than a hundred words.

Figure 4.8. Word Count of the Participants in Peer Coaching
Pair One comprised the participants One and Three; pair Two were participants Two and sixteen; pair Three were participants Four and Twelve; pair Four were participants Five and Ten; pair Five were participants Six and Seven; pair Six were participants Eight and Eleven; pair Seven were participants Nine and Fourteen; pair Eight were participants Thirteen and Seventeen; pair Nine were participants Fifteen and Eighteen. Figure 4.9 shows the difference between the participants’ mutual support in each pair.

Figure 4.9. The Difference Between the Participants’ Words in Each Pair

In Figure 4.9, there are five pairs whose difference between their coaches’ mutual support were under 20 words. For example, the difference between the participants in pair Two was 13 words, which was not very high and showed that
the coaches helped and supported each other equally. The difference between the participants in pairs One and Nine is almost 40 words. However, there was not mutual support in pairs Five and Seven because one of the coaches in each pair gave more support than the other coach. However, most coaches supported each other in equal ways, according to the data. Wiki entries, which evinced the extent of the coaching-related writing, took place over a period of several days each time; thus the amount written by the coaches could be considered a direct measure of their mutual support.

The third aspect of peer coaching is shared vocabulary, which means coach and coachee are able to understand each other’s vocabulary and they mean the same thing in their feedback and responses. In general, the coaches and coachees in both activities were able to share a mutual understanding of the IES vocabulary in order to better convey their points and opinions. That was helpful in the peer-coaching process because they were “on the same page.”

Table 4.2. shows three examples of dialogues between three coaches and three coachees to show how they shared vocabulary. These examples show how the participants were “on the same page” and they understood each other easily. In the first dialogue, the coach and coachee shared the same thought about “Relationship Interest;” in the second dialogue, they shared the same vocabulary, which was “Interpersonal Engagement;” in the last dialogue, the coach and coachee shared vocabulary “Exploration.”
Table 4.2. Shared Vocabulary in Sequential Coach/Coachee Dialogue

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocabulary</th>
<th>Shared Vocabulary in Sequential Turns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationship Interest</td>
<td>Coach: In terms of your progress in the Interpersonal Engagement dimension of the IES, I think your experience with (N) gave you an opportunity to work on <strong>Relationship Interest</strong> part of your profile. Coachee: I did not think about my <strong>Relationship Interest</strong> of my profile, and I am glad that you pointed that out to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Engagement</td>
<td>Coach: In terms of your growth in <strong>Interpersonal Engagement</strong> area of the IES, I think visiting the museum with (N) gave you an opportunity to apply your goals and tactics because you knew (N) from previous classes. Coachee: As you said about <strong>Interpersonal Engagement</strong> area of the IES, I agree with you about having another opportunity with (N), which will be helpful to improve this area. It will be really nice to learn about each other’s culture because I am really curious about the Mexican culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Exploration</td>
<td>Coach: I think that fact that you had such a positive attitude about it and the fact that you and your student enjoyed it, demonstrated growth in the area of Continuous Learning (<strong>Exploration</strong>). Coachee: I did demonstrate areas in my IES goals of Continuous Learning (<strong>Exploration</strong>).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Participant 8, Participant 11, Participant 6, Participant 7, Participant 1, Participant 3, personal communication, July 25, 2016)

However, one key problem was not participants’ meaning and understanding vocabulary, but the problem was some coachees (four) changed the challenge areas they were focusing on in the activities, yet their coaches built their guidance on the basis of the coachees’ previous challenge areas. Some coaches introduced another challenge area for their coachees, and some of the coaches gave feedback on whatever the coachees’ decided. Also, some of the
coaches wrote a feedback that focused on another challenge area than that which the coachees had decided.

In spite of these discrepancies, the peer-coaching process was successful because the coach and coachee interacted with a positive tone, supported and helped each other, and shared vocabulary. All these three aspects were needed for successful peer coaching because they are the evidences of the coaches’ and coachees’ levels of engagement in the peer-coaching process.

**Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)**

ICC is divided into linguistic and cultural aspects. The linguistic aspects comprise the native language (NL) and the target language (TL), which were emphasized in the language-teaching sessions. The cultural aspects comprise the native culture (NC) and the target culture (TC), which were emphasized during the museum visits. ICC depends on understanding NL and TL as well as understanding NC and TC, and shifting between them in order to communicate effectively with other individuals.

In this study, the participants increased their ICC because they were able to use English as their first language and another language as their target language in the language-teaching sessions. All the participants speak English, but some of them did not speak Arabic, Spanish, Chinese, French, and Portuguese. As a result, in the language-teaching activity, they used English as their NL and the other languages that they wanted to learn as their target languages, as shown in Figure 4.10.
In the language-teaching activity, the participants (learners) used two languages in order to communicate with the other participants (teachers). Also, the participants who were the teachers were able to use their NL (for example, Arabic) beside their TL, English, as they switched between the two languages while they were teaching. Therefore, all participants were learners and teachers at the same time; they used the target language (which in the case of Spanish and Arabic was the teachers’ NL), as well as English to communicate. In one case, when the teacher’s NL was Arabic, only English and the target language (French) were used.

In the museum-visit activity, the participants were able to use their NC and the TC because each participant went to the museum with an assigned partner.
who had a different culture. Because the museum visit displayed part of American culture, the participants used their NC and TC to connect with the other partner. For example, the participants described their native cultures to each other and they asked questions about the target culture. In sum, the participants switched between NL and TL, NC and TC in order to communicate with their partners during coaching.

Moreover, the electronic platform—the wiki—worked successfully as a tool that the participants used easily for writing their self-reflections. Also, this tool worked as a collaborative tool that fostered the peer-coaching process because it helped the coach and coachee to communicate effectively. Moreover, the wiki worked as a mediational tool that helped the participants to mediate their identities through communication.

In summary, in order to improve the participants’ ICC, there is a need for various kinds of assessment, such as self-assessment, identity assessment, formative assessment, and summative assessment. In this study, using the IES as a self-assessment helped to obtain knowledge about the participants’ strengths (CL) and challenge areas (IE and H). Also, using identity assessment helped them to know more about their ICC identities through their IES profiles. Furthermore, using formative assessment helped to improve the participants’ ICC because the instructor guided them to develop their ICC and to process peer coaching. Using summative assessment through the rubric helped to improve their ICC because the participants had a desire to obtain points. Also, there is a
need for two means to mediate ICC, which are mediational tools and the peer-coaching process.

The mediational tools, the IES, the instructor, and translanguage pedagogy were important for mediating the ICC because they worked successfully in this study. Also, the peer-coaching process was crucial to mediating the ICC because coaching required working with another individual. Using peer-coaching aspects (positive tone, mutual support, and shared vocabulary) was crucial because these aspects were the signs of the engagement between the coach and coachee. Finally, there was a need for activities that the participants could do, and these activities showed the linguistic and cultural aspects of ICC. The successful use of the museum-visit activity and language-teaching session was evidence of achieving these aspects.
Discussion of the Result

After carrying out the research and analyzing the data, there is a need to conclude the research by analyzing the result of the study that the researcher found in order to improve the further research. This study was conducted with 18 participants at California State University, San Bernardino over the summer of 2016. The goal of the study was to improve the intercultural communicative competence (ICC) of the participants, especially in English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) contexts, which requires various kinds of assessment, two means of mediation, self-reflections, and various aspects of ICC. The result of using assessments, mediational means, self-reflections, and the aspects of the ICC will be described in depth in the following sections.

The Assessment of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)

In order to deploy the ICC in ESL and EFL contexts, there is a need for self-assessment, which is in this research, was the use of the Intercultural Effectiveness Scale (IES). The IES helped to increase the participants' ICC because it identified their strengths and challenge areas. Through using the group report of the participants' IES, the researcher found that the participants' strength was in Continuous Learning (CL) among with its subscales, and their challenge areas were in Hardiness (H) and Interpersonal Engagement (IE)
among with their subscales. Hence, most participants worked and chose strategies on IE and H. Moreover, there is a need to assess the participants’ ICC identities, which is in this research showed through their IES profiles. Through analyzing their profiles, the researcher found that most participants’ strength area was CL and their challenge areas were IE and H.

Also, the IES worked as a mediational tool because most participants chose their strategies from the booklet of the IES or used similar strategies. This means that the IES worked as mediational tool that helped the participants to select appropriate strategies for the areas that they wanted to improve. Most participants worked on the area that they chose to improve and use the selected goals and strategies. However, some of them did not focus on the selected strategies and goals, but they chose new strategies in each self-reflection. For example, one of the participant wrote in his self-reflection that he wanted to improve his IE main scale and he chose strategies and goals that were related to that area; however, in the first and second activities, the museum-visit and language-teaching session, he changed his goal and selected strategies to focus on another area. Also, all the participants did not choose a target level in the area that they decided to work on; for example, “I will be at level 6 in CL”. If the participants chose a target level to attain at the beginning, they would have kept that goal in their minds and sustained a focus on the strategies that they selected.
As a result, the IES, as a self-assessment and as a mediational tool, worked successfully; however, the problem at the onset was that some participants did not agree with the results and felt that they were higher in a specific main scale or subscale. The other problem was with the participants’ focusing on the selected strategies and goals and in setting target levels.

Through formative assessment and summative assessment, this problem could be addressed. First, although using formative assessment by the instructor helped the participants to focus more on ICC and to use their selected strategies in each self-reflection that they wrote, it was not the work with others who changed their strategies in each self-reflection. Therefore, formative assessment should have reminded students or learners to focus not only on ICC in general, but to focus more on the strategies that they selected and use them, rather than changing strategies “midstream.”

Second, using summative assessment, the rubric that was created by the instructor (see Appendix A), helped the participants to focus consistently on ICC and on the requirements in order to obtain full credit. However, the rubric should have had more focus on ICC and the participants’ use of the same selected strategies, and not permit a change in strategies in each self-reflection that they wrote. There are five parts in the rubric (see Appendix A). Each part should have a statement to remind the participants to use the same goals and strategies in each self-reflection or description, so they would review their goals and strategies before and during engagement on the peer-coaching process. Also, in the last
part of the rubric, it should have a statement that reminded the participants to reflect specifically on their perceived levels after using the strategies.

In sum, the various kinds of assessments were important to increasing the participants' ICC. First, the IES was successful as a self-assessment, as an identity assessment, and as a mediational tool, but the problem was the focus on the strategies and goals that were chosen by the participants in the first self-reflection.

Third, the formative assessment worked successfully with all the participants, but there is a need to remind the participants to emphasize the strategies and goals that they had selected. Fourth, the summative assessment was necessary for increasing the participants' ICC, but some changes are recommended, as mentioned earlier.

**Mediating Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)**

In this study, mediating ICC happened through mediational tools and the peer-coaching process. There were three mediational tools: the IES, the instructor, and translanguaging pedagogy. The IES as a mediational tool was explained in depth in previous paragraphs with its use as a self-assessment. Hence, there is a need to analyze the results for the other mediational tools that were used in this study. First, the instructor was the main source for mediating ICC by giving the participants feedback to remind them to use their ICC goals and strategies. Also, the instructor helped the participants to be intercultural mediators by themselves through the peer-coaching process. As a result, the
existence of the instructor as an intercultural mediator is crucial in order to
developing learners’ ICC.

Second, translanguaging as a mediational tool to learn and teach a
language was employed by the participants; successful use was revealed in their
written self-reflections and descriptions after the language-teaching sessions. All
the participants in the sessions were instructors and learners at the same time,
and they used translanguaging as instructors’ pedagogy and as learners’
strategy. Although the use of translanguaging was not mentioned in the rubric, all
the participants used it in their activities and worksheets by including two
languages, English and the target language that they taught. After finding the use
of translanguaging by the participants without mentioning it in the rubric or by the
instructor, it is important to mention the use of techniques or strategies in
language-teaching sessions besides the use of the IES strategies and goals. For
example, in the fourth part of the rubric (see Appendix A), there should be a
statement that asks the participants to write their techniques or strategies of
teaching a language, which will improve their ICC because they will discover new
teaching strategies that work with their tutee without relying only on traditional
teaching methods.

After analyzing the results of the IES and other mediational tools, there is
a need to analyze the result of using the peer-coaching process to mediate the
ICC. The peer-coaching process was a successful mediational means; the
participants applied the peer-coaching aspects successfully, using a positive
tone, supporting each other mutually, and sharing vocabulary. All the participants were in the same level of using two aspects of peer coaching, positive tone and sharing vocabulary, but they were in various levels in mutual support of their peers. In four pairs, the difference between peers in the mutual support was high and in one case there is not mutual support. By looking closely at peers’ cultures, profiles, and fluency in each pairs, the researcher found that the instructor should divide learners into pairs who have different cultures. The reason for that is, in the study, the three pairs out of four who had different cultures supported their peers mutually, but one of the pairs did not. At the same time, there were three pairs out of five who had the same cultures and who did not support each other fully, but two pairs who supported each other (see Chapter Four, Figure 4.9). Therefore, according to the result, the peers’ cultures affected their mutual support.

Also, by analyzing the peers’ profiles in each pair, the researcher found that the peers’ profiles did not affect their mutual support because there were four pairs who had different profiles and they did not fully support each other, whereas there were four peers who had different profiles and they supported each other mutually. In one case, the peers had the same profiles and they supported each other mutually. Moreover, by analyzing the peers’ level of fluency through their writing, the researcher found that the four peers who had low support of each other, had different levels of fluency; for example, one of them was more fluent than the other. As a result, the peers’ cultures and their fluency
in writing affected their mutual support, but their profiles in the IES were not related to their mutual support. Moreover, in this study, there was no focus on the ages of the participants. For further research, there is a need to focus more on the participants’ ages and pair them according to their ages (that their ages would be closer), which may help the coaching to be more successful.

Although the peer-coaching process was a successful mediational mean in this study and was evaluated by reading the participants’ self-reflections and their interactions as a coach and as a coachee, the coaching needs to be more organized. First, at the beginning of the peer-coaching process and after assigning each participant an assigned partner to work with, the participants were distracted because they were not familiar with coaching strategies. In order to eliminate ambiguity in carrying out the peer-coaching process, there is a need to create a list of strategies that will help any instructors who want to apply the peer-coaching process in the future (see Appendix B).

Also, in the peer-coaching process, there was a similar problem, which was that some coachees chose new goals and strategies in each reflection. Moreover, some coaches introduced new goals for their coachees in each activity because they forgot what their coachees wanted to work on. Hence, for further research, there is a need to divide the rubric into two, one on the IES and the strategies that were selected and the other on the peer-coaching process and its aspects. Also, there is a need to remind peers of keeping their selected goals and strategies. Moreover, there is a need for peer assessment that peers can
use to evaluate each other (see Appendix C). They can use it to rate each others' use of the strategies, which will affect their peer coaching positively.

**Components of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC)**

The aspects, linguistic and cultural, which were created for ICC were instantiated through the language-teaching sessions and through the museum visits. Most of the participants were able to use their native languages (L1) and the target languages (L2) in the language-teaching sessions (the exception was an Arabic speaker teaching French to a bilingual English-Spanish tutee). All the participants were learners and teachers at the same time. As a result, the language-teaching session was crucial for identifying the linguistic aspects of the ICC. Also, the participants were able to draw from their native cultures (NC) and the target cultures (TC) in the museum visits. As a result, these two activities worked with all learners who wanted to improve their ICC.

In conclusion, the researcher identified the validity of the two aspects of ICC, linguistic and cultural aspects, through the two activities that were created for peer coaching, the museum-visit and the language-teaching session. It is crucial to use these two aspects with the activities because using these activities in this study was successful. Also, the research validated the importance of the two means of mediating ICC, the mediational tools and the peer-coaching process. First, through using mediational tools to mediate ICC, the researcher found that the IES worked as a mediational tool that provided individuals with their strengths and challenge areas, as well as with their profiles and strategies.
that helped them to improve. Moreover, the researcher identified the important role of the instructor as intercultural mediator who mediated the ICC through feedback, as well as the important role of translanguaging as teachers' pedagogy and learners' strategy, as shown in the language-teaching sessions.

Moreover, the second means of mediation, peer-coaching process, was instantiated successfully through the participants’ interaction in the two activities. The activities were appropriate for the peer-coaching process. Moreover, the peer-coaching aspects fit well with the wiki that was created to record the participants’ interactions as coaches and coachees. As a result, the two means, mediational tools (the IES, the instructor, and translanguaging pedagogy) and the peer-coaching process, were crucial to the success of this study.

Furthermore, the IES functioned as a self-assessment that helped the participants to know more about their ICC. Also, the researcher found that in order to improve individuals' ICC there was a need to use formative assessment and create a kind of summative assessment, because these are important to identify individuals' progress. Finally, deploying ICC is crucial, especially for ESL and EFL contexts, through using mediational means, self-reflections, and assessments that are related to ICC, in order to improve teachers' and learners' abilities to learn about languages and cultures.

As to further research, first, although most participants believed that the IES gave them a great opportunity to know about their ICC, some of them did not believe their initial levels in main scales and subscales; therefore, there is a need
to ask participants to write their actual level on the IES and the level that they think they should be in the first self-reflection. Second, there is a need for a list of strategies that help individuals to carry out the peer-coaching process. Also, there is a need for peer evaluation, which can help individuals to be better in peer coaching. Third, in order to improve the peer-coaching process, the instructors should assign learners to peers who have different cultures, if possible, and focus more on matching their levels of fluency and ages. Fourth, it is crucial to teach individuals the importance of self-reflections that will help them to identify their progress, as well as help them to focus on the selected goals and strategies.

In summary, deploying ICC with ESL and EFL learners and teachers requires the use of two activities that encourage using linguistic and cultural aspects. Also, it depends on mediational tools and the peer-coaching process that help learners and teachers to improve their ICC and to learn about other languages and cultures. Deploying ICC requires self-assessment, formative assessment, and summative assessment that measure individuals' process in improving.
APPENDIX A

RUBRIC ON COACHING
**EESL 536 Scoring Rubric: Coaching Partnership**

Name: ___________________________ Partner: ___________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Component</th>
<th>Point Value/Critique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Your Intercultural Autobiography:</strong> timely, interesting and concise</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Your IES:</strong> Discussion of your profile, goals, and strategies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>You-as-a-Coach: Coaching Session 1—IES Results</strong> (Include date)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Brief biography of your partner</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Discussion of partner’s IES results/profile</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Discussion with partner of goals/overall plan</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>You-as-a-Coachee: Dialogue about 1st Session—IES Results</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Your coach gave you thoughtful &amp; timely insights</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Your cognitive &amp; affective responses to the session?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activity Session 1—Museum Visit</strong> (Include date, desc. of visit)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What did you do to demonstrate/encourage Continuous Learning,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal Engagement, and Hardiness?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>You-as-a-Coach: Coaching Session 2 (Include date)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Discussion of partner’s museum visit in light of IES goals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>You-as-a-Coachee: Coaching Session 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Your coach gave you thoughtful &amp; timely insights</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Your cognitive &amp; affective responses to the session?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Activity Session 2—Language Teaching Session</strong> (Include date)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Description of Session; how did you obtain/create materials to use?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• What did you do to encourage Continuous Learning, Interpersonal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engagement, and Hardiness?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>You-as-a-Coach: Coaching Session 2 (Include date)</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Discussion of partner’s teaching success in light of IES goals</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>You-as-a-Coachee: Coaching Session 2</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Your “student” gave you thoughtful &amp; timely insights</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Your cognitive &amp; affective responses to the session?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Final Summary/Reflection on Coaching:</strong> What did you learn?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reflection on you as a coachee and your IES goals and plans</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Reflection on your role as a coach</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Developed by Dr. Lynne T. Diaz-Rico.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
APPENDIX B

PEER-COACHING STRATEGIES
Peer Coaching Strategies

1. What is peer coaching?
   Peer coaching is "a confidential process through which two or more professional colleagues work together to reflect on current practices; expand, refine, and build new skills; share ideas; teach one another; conduct classroom research; or solve problems in the workplace" (Robbins, 1991, p. 1).

2. What is needed to maintain mutual support and benefit?
   A collaborative atmosphere is needed to assure that both parties in the peer coaching believe that they are mutually helping one another (reciprocal). Without this, one might say the relationship is one-way: more like mentoring.

3. What are some peer coaching techniques and strategies?
   Please see www.whydev.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/05/WhyDev-Peer-Coaching-Guidelines.pdf

4. How can peers get started with coaching?
   Here’s a six-step process that might be useful:
   
   a. Scheduling a time to meet with or call the peer and getting to know him or her.
   b. Sharing the information that peer coaches will work on, such as setting goals and choosing tactics, obtaining skills, and improving in a specific area.
   c. Deciding who will be the coach and who the coachee at the beginning, because they will switch the roles later; the one who "coached first in the previous session, will be the coachee first in the following session" (Johnson & Rigby, 2012, p. 7).
   d. Asking questions that benefit both the coach and coachee, such as, “What would you like to get out of our session? Or, “What would you like to focus on?” (Johnson & Rigby, 2012, p. 7).
   e. Paying attention to the peer and withholding any judgment.
   f. Summarizing after each meeting, and analyzing what happened by writing a reflection.

5. How can rapport be maintained?
   Suggestions that aren’t too bossy are more easily absorbed. When a suggestion is made, take time to make sure it is understood. Each party should try hard to be objective and not defensive.

Developed by Dr. Lynne T. Diaz-Rico and Hessah Khaled Alzimami.
APPENDIX C

PROPOSED PEER-COACHING STRATEGY RATING
Peer Coaching Strategy Rating

Peer Pair: _______________________   _______________________
Rater: _______________________    Date: ______________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Rating Scale</th>
<th>Rating</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Scheduling a time to meet with or call the peer and getting to know</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Unclear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>him or her.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Sharing the information that peer coaches will work on, such as</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>So-So</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setting goals and choosing tactics, obtaining skills, and improving</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in a specific area.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Deciding who will be the coach and who the coachee at the beginning,</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Unclear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>because they will switch the roles later.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Asking questions that benefit both the coach and coachee.</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>Sometime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Paying attention to the peer and withholding any judgment.</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>Sometime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Summarizing after each meeting, and analyzing what happened by</td>
<td>Seldom</td>
<td>Sometime</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>writing a reflection.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Developed by Dr. Lynne T. Diaz-Rico and Hessah Khaled Alzimami.
APPENDIX D

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL FORM
May 20, 2016

Ms. Hessah Alzimani and Prof. Lynne Diaz-Rico
Department of Teacher Education and Foundations
California State University, San Bernardino
5500 University Parkway
San Bernardino, California 92407

Dear Ms. Alzimani and Prof. Lynne Diaz-Rico:

Your application to use human subjects, titled, “Mediated Intercultural Communication Strategies” has been reviewed and approved by the Chair of the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of California State University, San Bernardino has determined that your application meets the requirements for exemption from IRB review Federal requirements under 45 CFR 46. As the researcher under the exempt category you do not have to follow the requirements under 45 CFR 46 which requires annual renewal and documentation of written informed consent which are not required for the exempt category. However, exempt status still requires you to obtain consent from participants before conducting your research.

The CSUSB IRB has not evaluated your proposal for scientific merit, except to weigh the risk to the human participants and the aspects of the proposal related to potential risk and benefit. This approval notice does not replace any departmental or additional approvals which may be required.

Your responsibilities as the researcher/investigator reporting to the IRB Committee include the following 4 requirements as mandated by the Code of Federal Regulations 45 CFR 46 listed below. Please note that the protocol change form and renewal form are located on the IRB website under the forms menu. Failure to notify the IRB of the above may result in disciplinary action. You are required to keep copies of the informed consent forms and data for at least three years. Please notify the IRB Research Compliance Officer for any of the following:

- Submit a protocol change form if any changes (no matter how minor) are proposed in your research protocol for review and approval of the IRB before implemented in your research,
- If any unanticipated/adverse events are experienced by subjects during your research, and
- When your project has ended by emailing the IRB Research Compliance Officer.

If you have any questions regarding the IRB decision, please contact Michael Gillespie, the IRB Research Compliance Officer. Mr. Michael Gillespie can be reached by phone at (909) 537-7588, by fax at (909) 537-7028, or by email at mgillespie@csusb.edu. Please include your application approval identification number (listed at the top) in all correspondence.

Best of luck with your research.

Sincerely,

Judy Sylva,
Ph.D., Chair
CSUSB Institutional Review Board

JS/MG

909.537.7588 · fax: 909.537.7028 · http://irb.csusb.edu
5500 UNIVERSITY PARKWAY, SAN BERNARDINO, CA 92407-2393
REFERENCES


Brown, S. W., & Grant, A. M. (2010). From grow to group: Theoretical issues and


Zwart, R. C., Wubbels, T., Bergen, T., & Bolhuis, S. (2009). Which characteristics of a reciprocal peer coaching context affect teacher learning as perceived