



Pan SIG Journal 2021

PanSIG is an annual conference held in May, and organized by many of the Special Interest Groups (SIGs) of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT).

Edited by
Patrick Conaway and Duncan Iske

MESSAGE FROM THE EDITOR

The 20th Annual PanSIG conference was held online using the website Eventzil.la on May 15-16, 2021. Although the conference was not able to be held face to face for a second year due to the covid-19 pandemic, experience gained from 2020 allowed the conference to proceed smoothly and productively online. Regardless of the format language educators were able to come together and share their research and teaching practice with their colleagues. PanSIG 2021 featured over 125 presentations and forums ranging across teaching contexts, pedagogies, and SIG topics, and including several presentations specifically focused upon teaching in an online context. The conference was a collaborative effort from the 30 Special Interest Groups (SIGs) with the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). The conference enabled participants to attend presentations on a variety of topics in a wide range of fields in language teaching and learning.

This journal represents the seventh edition of the annual PanSIG Journal in its latest form – following 14 years of proceedings publications beginning with 2002 – which includes a selection of articles based on presentations from the 2021 conference. With a detailed and supportive blind peer review process, authors were able to produce high quality articles. The transition back and forth between online, face to face, and hyflex teaching undoubtedly made it difficult to make the time to write, review, and revise articles but our authors rose to that challenge, especially in regards to providing their peers with actionable advice on their manuscripts. The articles finally selected for publication in the 2021 PanSIG Journal effectively represent the diverse range of topics presented at the PanSIG conference. Although the reader can only observe the final product of the selected articles, the effort and care of the authors and reviewers to help the submissions reach their full potential clearly show that the PanSIG Journal is just as much a place to grow as a novice author as for the language teaching community to share new ideas. As editor, it has been a special privilege to be a part of the review process and observe the development of the submissions.

I would first like to give my warmest thanks to the authors and reviewers of this publication. It was an opportunity for me to read and learn about topics that I may not have encountered if left to my own devices. Seeing the detailed and supportive reviews, as well as the authors' thoughtful and inventive responses was truly inspiring. I would also like to thank Duncan Iske, the associate editor of the 2021 PanSIG Journal for his help and advice. Special thanks all the members of the PanSIG Committee. Before being a part of the PanSIG Journal, I had no idea how much time, thought, and effort went into putting on such a conference. We hope that you will enjoy reading the articles, and that they may stimulate productive thinking. Congratulations to all the contributors to this edition of the PanSIG Journal.

May 15, 2022

Patrick Conaway

Editor-in-Chief, PanSIG Journal 2021

The PanSIG is an annual conference held in May, and organized by many of the Special Interest Groups (SIGs) of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). The conference brings together leading scholars and practitioners in language education from Japan, Asia, and throughout the world. It is meant to be a smaller, more intimate conference than the annual international JALT conference (which is held each fall), and is a place where SIG members can network with each other.



Website: <http://pansig.org/>

Facebook: <https://www.facebook.com/JALTpansig/>

Twitter: https://twitter.com/JALT_PanSIG (Twitter handle: @JALT_PanSIG)

Selected articles from the 2021 PanSIG Conference

Artwork courtesy of James Dunn



ISBN# 978-4-901352-57-4

PanSIG Journal 2021

Selected articles from the 2021 PanSIG Conference

JALT Central Office

Urban Edge Bldg.5F, 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan

<http://jalt.org/> <http://www.pansig.org/>

All materials in this publication are copyright © (2022) by JALT and their respective authors.

PanSIG Journal 2021

PDF Version

Conference info

PanSIG 2021 was held May 15-16 online using the platform Eventzila to host Zoom meetings and Youtube video premiers. Thank you to everyone who helped make this conference a success!

Website: <http://pansig.org>/Facebook: <https://www.facebook.com/JALTpansig/>Twitter: https://twitter.com/JALT_PanSIG

(Twitter handle: @JALT_PanSIG)



Edited by Patrick Conaway and Duncan Iske

PanSIG is the annual conference for Special Interest Groups of the Japan Association of Language Teachers

Thanks to our 2021 Journal reviewers

Adrienne Verla Uchida

Nihon University College of International Relations

Jennifer Igawa

Meiji Gakuin University

Akiko Tsuda

Nakamura Gakuen University

Jessica Zoni Upton

Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

Alan Mulvey

Kyoto Tachibana University

Jonathan Buck

Toyo University

Andrew Zitzman

Seinan Jo Gakuin University

Jonathan Shachter

Kyushu Sangyo University

Anna Walker

University of Nottingham

Ken Ikeda

Otsuma Women's University

Anton Vogel

Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

Kimberley Rothville

University of Auckland

Branden Kirchmeyer

Sojo University

Kyle Maclauchlan

Randolph-Macon College

Chie Kawashima

Tochigi Technical High School

Kyoko Kuze

Toyo University

Colin Mitchell

Reitaku University

Lala Takeda

Showa Women's University

Dominique Vola Ambinintsoa

Kanda University of International Studies

Larry Xethakis

Sojo University

Ellen Head

Miyazaki International College

Li-hsin Tu

University of Niigata Prefecture

Jared Michael Kubokawa

Aichi University

Luke Draper

Kwansei Gakuin University

Merissa B. Ocampo
Fukushima Gakuin University

Sian Edwards
Aichi University

Michael Greisamer
Himeji Dokkyo University

Stephen M. Ryan
Sanyo Gakuen University

Nami Takase
Seirei Christopher University

Takanori Omura
Soka University

Natasha Hashimoto
Tokyo Woman's Christian University

Wang Jun Amy Lin
Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

Nial Walsh
Aichi Prefectural University

Yukie Saito
Chuo University

Nicholas Delgrego
Tsuru University

Yuko Matsubara
Kumamoto University

Philip Riccobono
Himeji Dokkyo University

Richard Sparrow
Kyoto Sangyo University

Rob Olson
Hokkaido University of Science

Robert Dykes
Sojo University

Robert Stroud
Hosei University

Sarah Miyoshi Deutchman
Waseda University

Shzh-chen Nancy Lee
Osaka University

Table of Contents

Using a Film Adaptation of a Literary Work in Online Teaching: A Practice in Online Business English Courses at a University	8
Kyoko Kuze	
Improving Classroom Speeches with a Scaffolded Three-Stage Model	14
Robert Stroud, Stephen Harris	
Collaborative Learning in Higher Education in Japan: Toward an Intercollegiate Program.....	23
Akiko Tsuda, Kayoko Kinshi, Christopher Valvona	
Personal Factors and Motivation: A Learning Advisor's Experience	35
Dominique Vola Ambinintsoa	
Application of Coaching and Mentoring Strategies to Improve Well Being of Colleagues and Students in Education ..	44
Colin Mitchell, Alessandro Grimaldi, Satoko Kato	
Adapting Higher Education Language Courses to Achieve Learner Goals amidst the Coronavirus Pandemic.....	52
Jonathan Buck, Ken Ohashi	
Managing Assessment Data in Windows Excel & Google Sheets.....	58
Anton Paul Vogel	
Possibility of Integrating Telecollaboration in Regular English Classes.....	68
Yukie Saito	
Readiness for Online Learning: A Students' Perspective Survey	76
Dr. Michael Greisamer	
Evaluation of Duolingo to Promote Language Acquisition:	87
A University Case Study.....	87
Sian Edwards, James Drew	
The Case for an Active Learning: A Conducive, Productive and Inclusive, Online and Face-to-Face Pedagogy	101
Alan Mulvey	
Tutor Voices: Adjusting to Online Writing Tutoring	115
Nicholas Delgrego	
Connecting Meaningful Feedback Systems in Blended Learning Environments	123
Branden Carl Kirchmeyer	
The Evolution of a Four-Dimensional EFL Classroom	133
Adrienne Verla Uchida	
Effects of Debate on Learner Motivation and L2 Future Self	145
Wan Jung Amy Lin	
Gender Awareness in Language Education (GALE) SIG Forum: Local and Global Perspectives on Gender.....	154
Anna Walker, Kristie Collins, Quenby Hoffman Aoki, Gerry Yokota	
White Fragility and Racial Awareness in ELT in Japan	160
Ellen Head	
Japanese extensive reading materials: the relationship between the vocabulary of current materials and learners' vocabulary knowledge.....	168
Kimberley Rothville	

GILE SIG Forum: Voices of Global Educators	177
Jackson Koon Yat Lee, Ken Ikeda, May Kyaw Oo, Jennie Roloff Rothman	
Multilingualism and Intercultural Competence	186
Jessica Zoni Upton	
Things I Wish I Had Known about Culture When I Started Teaching	199
Stephen M. Ryan	
Understanding JTE Attitudes to Lifelong Learning.....	203
Yuko Matsubara	
Flash Fiction: Springboards for Real Communication.....	213
Jennifer Igawa	
Mapping a familiar text-world: Japanese literature in the English language classroom	222
Luke Draper	
Moving Towards Higher Quality Materials Development in Japan	229
Niall Walsh, Brian Cullen	
Self-report and Heart Rate: Examining the Need for Integrating Measures of Japanese College Entrance Examination Test Anxiety	240
Jonathan Shachter	
A study of Japanese University Students' Self-Esteem and a Reflective Activity in the English Class.....	249
Takanori Omura	
Revitalizing Student Motivation through Gratitude Intervention	259
Merissa Braza Ocampo	
Validating Survey Instruments for Measuring L3 Learning Attitudes	267
Shzh-chen Nancy Lee	
Chat-Style Writing in Teaching Conversation	279
Lala Takeda	
Tasks for Speech Acts in Textbooks.....	288
Chie Kawashima	
From "Wild Geese" to Transnationals: Korean Students in Japanese University.....	297
Natasha Hashimoto	
What are Stonks: Please ELI5	303
Robert Dykes	
Polysemy and homonymy should be considered when teaching vocabulary.....	310
Sarah Miyoshi Deutchman	
Translingual Onomatopoeia: Literary Innovation from the Language Classroom.....	317
Jared Michael Kubokawa	
Teaching Presentations Remotely and Engagingly	328
Richard Sparrow	

All materials in this publication are copyright © (2022) by JALT and their respective authors.

Using a Film Adaptation of a Literary Work in Online Teaching: A Practice in Online Business English Courses at a University

Kyoko Kuze
Toyo University

The COVID-19 pandemic has engendered the need for teachers to change their instructional methods. In particular, with the advent and necessity of online teaching, teachers are seeking new creative ways to impart knowledge and learning to their students. This study aims to discuss the practice of using a film adaptation of a literary work in business English courses at a university in Japan. It first shows how the film, "The Remains of the Day", adapted from Kazuo Ishiguro's novel, was used in online teaching. Subsequently, students' perceptions of the film and the activities organized around it are analyzed based on the questionnaire data. The results show that the film adaptation has the potential to deepen learners' cultural understanding and motivate and engage them. Furthermore, it is suggested that the use of this material in the synchronous classroom grants some advantages to students, compared with traditional methods in regular face-to-face classes.

COVID-19 によるパンデミックにより、教員には授業の方法を変える必要が生じた。特に、オンライン授業が必要となり、教員たちは学生に知識や学びを与えるための新しく創意に富む方法を模索している。本研究では、日本の大学のオンラインによるビジネス英語の授業で文学の映画を用いる実践について議論する。はじめに、カズオ・イシグロの小説 *The Remains of the Day* をもとにした映画がどのように使われたかを示し、その後で、教材や活動に対する学生の反応をアンケート調査のデータから分析する。結果として、このような文学の映画には学習者の文化的な理解を深め、動機付けを促す可能性があることを示す。さらに、この教材を同期的なオンライン授業で用いることの利点を、従来の対面式授業との比較においても指摘する。

The spread of COVID-19 has made it incumbent on many teachers in Japan and around the world to offer online courses, although the idea of integrating technology in education is not new, especially in language teaching. As early as 2004, Heafner (2004) pointed out that "combining learning a foreign language with the use of media and technology is a common practice nowadays" (p. 108), but recently, the need for media and technology has dramatically increased since platforms for virtual meetings and learning management systems (LMS) are rendered crucial by the pandemic.

Among the materials in the EFL classroom, film has been widely recognized as an accessible medium for learners, regardless of the methods of learning, online or face-to-face. In addition, Paran & Robinson (2016) argue that, in the literature and language classroom, "using them[films] in the classroom can help to promote an understanding of literature and also help learners bridge any perceived gap that they feel between the two" (p. 118). Furthermore, using film adaptations of literature is a means for teachers to incorporate new literary elements in their language classrooms. This is especially true for teachers who believe in the benefits of using literature in language teaching. In Japan, the use of literature in the EFL classroom in universities is

in decline (Burton, 2016; Yoshifumi Saito, 2020), despite the claim by many that literature plays an important role in the EFL classroom (e.g., Carter & Long, 1991; Paran, 2006). Yoshifumi Saito (2020) explains, "literary texts, misunderstood as 'inauthentic' materials for language teaching and wrongly associated with the grammar-translation method, have been expelled from English classrooms", adding that, "In the age of audio-visual technology, where film/drama adaptations of many literature works are available, there are a great number of different ways to make use of audio-visual materials to help students understand texts they are reading" (p. 129).

Regarding the use of literary work film adaptations in business English courses, we need to begin with examining the possibility of using these materials in the context of teaching English for specific purposes (ESP). According to Hirvela (1990), "The terms literature and ESP are mutually exclusive" (p. 237) and in Japan literature is currently used only in EFL classrooms for students majoring in literature or linguistics. However, if we support the claim that literature plays an important role in language learning as an authentic tool or material, we should also consider using literature or literary materials in a broad sense, in other contexts like ESP. According to Widdowson (1983), "The purposes of ESP are arranged along a scale of specificity with training at

one end and education at the other.” (p. 10). Based on Widdowson’s idea, Hirvela (1990) concluded, “Literature, if carefully selected and judiciously applied in accordance with the overall aims of ESP, can assist in the pursuit of the broader-based objectives in wide-angle ESP courses” (p. 243). Hutchinson and Waters (1987) stated, “ESP is not a particular kind of language or methodology, nor does it consist of a special type of teaching material” (p. 19).

In business English courses in Japan, instructions usually focus on the learners’ acquisition of the relevant language skills that would be required in their workplaces, and thus the learners usually practice some specific types of communication in the textbooks, such as speaking with colleagues or writing email messages (Kuze, 2020). Although these practices are crucial especially to learners at basic levels, Sato (2019) emphasizes the importance of authentic materials, including English literature works and movies, in the context of higher education.

Given the above scholarly reflections, this study addresses the following research questions:

RQ 1. How can we use a film adaptation of a literary work while making good use of its literary features in online business English courses?

RQ 2. What are the students’ perceptions of the material and the activities included in the online courses?

Methods

The course designs and related practices are illustrated to answer RQ 1. For RQ 2, students’ perceptions of the materials and activities used in their courses are analyzed based on a questionnaire survey. In this section, the context of the courses and the questionnaire survey on student perceptions are explained.

The Context

This study involved two similarly designed courses offered in the fall semester of 2020, to 75 second-year undergraduate students in the Faculty of Business Administration at a private university in Japan. Seventy students participated in the study, and the range of their English proficiency scores was 350-800 points on the TOEIC Listening and Reading test, which is the equivalent of A2 and B2 levels in the Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR). Students were required to take two “Business English” courses in each semester.

The class was conducted in the synchronous method using Zoom meetings so that each student could interact with their classmates and the teacher in real time and experience different types of communication through pair/group work. It was planned to simulate face-to-face learning as closely as possible. LMS was

used to collect and evaluate homework. According to Yukie Saito (2020), which investigated whether university students perceived using the LMS in the English course was useful, “the LMS helped them[students] prepare for and review a class, work on assignments, achieve a goal, and look for an environment to prepare for the group project efficiently” (p. 98).

The Questionnaire Survey

To investigate students’ perceptions of the study material and activities to be performed in the online courses, a questionnaire survey was conducted on the LMS during the final lesson in each course. All the students were invited to participate in the survey, but eventually only 70 of the 75 students responded. Questions in the survey included, “What do you think about having this film in business English courses?” (Q1), “What are advantages of using this film as material in business English courses?” (Q2), “What are disadvantages of using this film as material in business English courses?” (Q3), “Do you think this material will prove helpful in developing your language skills?” (Q4), “What are most difficult parts in this course?” (Q5), “What are the advantages and disadvantages of the online course in which this film was used as material?” (Q 6), and “Do you have any other comments?” (Q7). For Q1 and Q4, students were asked to choose one answer from five options, and for Q2, Q3, and Q5, they were given more than several options and asked to choose as many answers as they like. As Q6 and Q7 were open-ended questions and students were asked to write their comments. The questions and answer options were all written in Japanese so that the respondents could read in their first language. These questions and also their open-ended responses were translated into English by the author of this paper.

To analyze the results of Q6 and Q7, an inductive thematic coding process was used to identify themes or patterns, which were repeated ideas or concepts that emerged from student comments. In this study, only Q1, Q2, Q3, Q6, and Q7 will be focused on to discuss the benefits of using the film adaptation of a literary work in online teaching.

Results

Course Designs and Practices

In these two courses, the film titled “The Remains of the Day”, adapted from Kazuo Ishiguro’s novel, was used. Besides the benefits of using literary materials generally applied to language learning, students were expected to learn some business issues from the main character, Mr. Stevens, a dedicated businessperson. Furthermore, Ishiguro is a Japanese-British writer who won the Nobel Prize in Literature in 2017 and his name appeared to be familiar to most students.

Before the course started, ten-minute movie clips of the film were recorded in mp4 files and uploaded on the LMS so that the students could access them anytime during the semester. In addition, worksheets that corresponded to each unit of the movie clips were written and uploaded on the LMS. As the courses were part of the business English courses in the curriculum, it was planned that each unit covers a movie scene that has a specific topic related to business such as “Job interview,” “Reporting a problem,” and “Conference dinner.” The worksheets consisted of three parts: pre-viewing activity, movie watching, and post-viewing activities.

All lessons were conducted in a synchronous manner using Zoom meetings. With the worksheets at hand, before they watched the movie clip, the students had pair/group discussions on the topic related to the movie scene. Thereafter, they watched the movie clip themselves several times and then completed the listening and dictation activities using a transcript of the part in focus from the movie scene. After checking the answers and performing role-plays, they answered questions on comprehension. They exchanged opinions with their partners or group members. Additionally, the students were encouraged to discuss specific topics that appeared in the movie clips.

To make use of the literary features of this film, two activities were included in the post-viewing section. First, interpretive-level questions were asked in the comprehension section of each unit in addition to literal questions that simply check the learners’ understanding of the text. According to Kim (2004), when a student raised the question of this type, “Students actively expressed their ideas, relying on their prior knowledge, experiences, and textual evidence” (p. 155). In fact, responding to these interpretive questions which could have several, varied answers, students naturally began discussions through which they also developed their speaking skills. Simultaneously, they learned about the various possibilities of interpretation and the tolerance of ambiguity. Examples of these interpretive questions are:

- Lord Darlington asked Mr. Stevens a question about dinner tonight. What does this scene imply?
- Mr. Stevens and Miss Kenton had an argument because Miss Kenton insisted that she call Stevens’ father by his first name. Which person sounds more reasonable? Why do you think so?
- Why do you think Mr. Stevens did not look at the Chinaman while saying, “I’m busy”?
- Mr. Stevens met Mrs. Benn for the first time in 20 years. Why did Mr. Stevens look so sad and disappointed after the conversation?
- What does the title “The Remains of the Day” mean?

The other activity that was a writing task, included to make good use of the literary features of the film. Students were asked to compose a formal letter based on the plot of the film posing as Mr. Stevens; the letter was to be written to his present employer, Mr. Lewis, on the evening that he met Mrs. Benn (Miss Kenton). The students had learned how to write formal or business letters before. This type of rewriting task is often proposed in the field of pedagogical stylistics and is termed as “transformative text analysis” by Carter (2010). It focuses “on ‘textual transformations’ using comparative text analysis by means of processes of rewriting from different angles and positions” (p. 118). Paran and Robinson (2016) also stated, “Exploring alternative versions of texts is a fruitful way for learners to understand how texts achieve their effects” (p. 40).

Results of the Questionnaire

In this section, the results of the questionnaire are presented. Figure 1 shows student responses to Question 1 “What do you think about having this film in business English courses?” More than half the students responded that having the film was “very good,” and 37% responded with “good.” Therefore, it is indicated that most students felt positively about having the film adaptation of a literary text in their online business English courses.

In reply to Question 2 “What are advantages of using this film as material in business English courses?”, 43 students responded to say that the film was helpful as material in the English class, to promote their cultural understanding. Forty-one responded to say that this film was good for learning everyday conversations and 39 responded that learning English using the film for learning English was interesting and enjoyable. In reply to Question 3 “What are the disadvantages of this film as material for business English courses?”, 35 students responded that it was difficult to interpret any meaning beyond the literal sense of the sentences; however, no other responses exceeded more than half the number of participants.

Figure 1

Student Responses to Question 1 (n=70)



Table 1 shows the students' responses to Question 6, "What are the advantages and disadvantages of the online course where this film was used as material?" Twenty-four students replied, "The online movie clips were useful and helpful," citing the following reasons, "I could watch the film as many times as I liked," and "I could review the lesson by watching the film at home." Many students pointed out the importance of the synchronous lessons, affirming that the real-time class was motivating because they could easily ask the teacher questions and talk to their classmates. Others confessed they were more engaged in the synchronous lessons than in the asynchronous ones. Several students responded that pair/group activities, which can be conducted only in synchronous lessons, worked well. Conversely, other students gave opposite impressions of pair/group work by writing, "It was hard

to talk with someone I have never seen" and "It depended on the partners or members."

Question 7 collected general comments from the students on these courses. The survey does not display the comments that were shared by a large number of students share, but several students wrote that the film itself was interesting (six responses) and that learning English with the film was enjoyable and motivating (three responses). Six students pointed out that engaging in listening tasks for this film was difficult. As indicated by Kuze (2020), students find it difficult to listen and watch authentic materials such as films, while some participants in this study appreciated the authenticity of the material by stating that it was good to listen to real English and that it was helpful to improve their listening skills.

Table 1

Student responses to Question 6 (n=70)

	Student Comments on online courses	Number	
Positive views	● Movie clips online were useful and helpful. I could watch the film as many times as I liked. I could review the lesson watching the film at home.	24	
	● Real time lessons were motivating. I could easily ask questions to the teacher.	7	
	● Pair/group activity worked well.	5	
	● Real time setting was easy to join.	5	
	● Materials were easily accessed.	2	
	● More engaging than face-to-face lessons.	2	
	Negative views	● Pair/group activities did not work well. It was hard to talk with someone I have never seen. It depended on the partners or members.	8
		● Watching only movie clips was not good enough. I wanted to watch the whole film.	4

Discussion and Conclusion

This study discusses a teaching practice whereby a film adaptation of *The Remains of the Day* was used as the main material in online business English courses. The combination of Zoom meetings and LMS made it possible to offer students sufficient learning opportunities from online instruction, as they would get from offline learning. To make use of literary features in language teaching, some activities such as answering interpretative questions and writing from a character's perspective were incorporated into the regular EFL exercises.

According to the questionnaire results, most students responded positively to the materials and activities they had in this online class. They found that the film adaptation in the online classroom was helpful in understanding the culture of the target language and in learning everyday conversations. More than half of them wrote that they could learn English with pleasure in courses where a film was used as material.

More specifically, a major benefit of using a film in the online classroom was that students could easily access the movie clips and watch them repeatedly at their own pace. In a face-to-face classroom, students usually watch a movie clip all at once and do not have the chance to watch it as many times as they would like, although it may allow them to watch the whole movie or longer scenes in a real classroom.

The synchronous way of teaching made it possible to give them plentiful opportunities to interact with the teacher and other classmates through real-time activities. They generally valued pair/group activities and wrote that the process of watching the film and performing activities with classmates kept them motivated and engaged. For the students who had negative impressions of pair/group work, a special classroom activity to create rapport among classmates may be of use at the beginning of the semester.

A reason that most students were motivated, and thus actively participated in the subsequent activities like discussions and role-plays, may be that the film itself was interesting and meaningful to university students. It is implied that the film adaptation of a literary work can be used with relevance even in business English courses, if it is carefully chosen; although further studies are needed to investigate the relationship between teaching ESP and using literary materials.

In conclusion, a film adaptation of a literary work has the potential to deepen learners' cultural understanding, and to motivate and engage students in business English classrooms. Moreover, learning English with a film in the synchronous classroom has some advantages for students compared to practices in a regular face-to-face class.

References

- Burton, S. (2016). An overview of English-language literature study in Japan. *Lit Matters: The Liberlit Journal of Teaching Literature*. Retrieved from <http://www.liberlit.com/new/>
- Carter, R. (2010). Issues in pedagogical stylistics: A coda. *Language and literature* 19 (1): 115-121.
- Carter, R. & Long, M. N. (1991). *Teaching literature*. Harlow, England: Longman.
- Heafner, T. (2004). Using technology to motivate students to learn social studies. *Contemporary Issues in Technology and Teacher Education* 1 (4): 42-53.
- Hirvela, A. (1990). ESP and literature: A reassessment. *English for Specific Purposes* 9: 237-252.
- Hutchinson, T. & Waters, A. (1987). *English for specific purposes*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Kim, M. (2004). Literature discussion in adult L2 learning. *Language and education vol 18*, No. 2: 145-166.
- Kuze, K. (2020). An examination of the role of authentic materials in university business English courses. *Journal of Business Administration* 96: 41-51.
- Paran, A. (2006). The stories of literature and language teaching. In Paran, A. (ed.), *Literature in language teaching and learning* (pp. 1-10). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
- Paran, A. & Robinson, P. (2016). *Literature: Into the classroom*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press.

Saito, Yoshifumi. (2020). Pedagogical stylistics as a discipline for bridging the gap between literary studies and English language teaching in Japan. *Studies in English literature (Regional branches combined issue) vol.12*. 129-138.

Saito, Yukie (2020). Can the LMS promote self-regulated learning and cooperative learning? Students' perception about the LMS in an English Course at a University. *The Pan-SIG Journal 2020*. 92-99.

Sato, Y. (2019). Exploring the possibility of using authentic English materials in requisite English classes in the Faculty of Business Administration. *Journal of Business Administration 93*: 139-150.

Widdowson, H. G. (1983). *Learning purpose and language use*. Oxford, England: Oxford University Press

Improving Classroom Speeches with a Scaffolded Three-Stage Model

Robert Stroud
Hosei University

Stephen Harris
Hosei University

Oral tasks are an essential part of developing English speaking skills. However, issues with student confidence, anxiety and task difficulty can lead to a hesitancy to 'speak up' and participate. Studies show that students who can plan their speech during pre-task, in-task and post-task stages are better prepared and supported to interact with others, and demonstrate better fluency. Moreover, students will participate more and become more fluent if they are allowed to repeat the same task. These findings were combined to create a scaffolded task design model to help students exchange short speeches with three different partners. 134 university students used the model and completed a survey about its ability to improve their English use. Students generally reported the model to be easy to use, enjoyable, motivating and confidence-building, as well as useful for improving spoken fluency and accuracy. Ways to improve and implement the model into courses are discussed.

オーラルタスクは英語の会話力の向上に不可欠な要素である。しかし自信の欠如や不安、タスクの難易度などに関連する問題が発言や参加をためらわせることがある。過去の研究によるとプレタスク、タスク中、ポストタスク段階でプランニングを行った学習者の方が他者との交流に準備ができており、より流暢であったことが示されている。また、同じタスクを繰り返し行うことで学習者はより積極的に会話に参加し流暢になることもわかっている。これらの結果を踏まえ、スピーチをより容易に発表しあえるサポートとなるスキヤフォールディングタスクデザインモデルを作成した。134名の大学生がモデルを使用し、その効果に関する調査に回答した。多くの学生がこのタスクモデルは会話における流暢さや正確さを向上させるだけでなく、使いやすく、楽しめ、意欲や自信を高めてくれたと回答した。このモデルを改良しコースとして実施する方法を考察する。

Teachers of English as a second language are often familiar with the use of tasks which get students to speak to each other (such as discussions) as an approach to learning English. Having students try to improve their spoken English through practicing oral tasks seems not only like an obvious choice, but has also been discussed as an effective method within research. Meaningful and functional English interactions between students create chances to improve weak areas of language use and are expected to result in faster improvements than methods which do not involve reactions to other speakers (see Gass & Mackey, 2007; Long 1996, Vygotsky, 1986).

Despite the potential of orally interactive tasks to help students improve their English, varying task design problems can prevent students (especially those of a low-level of English-speaking skills) from being able or willing to interact. An example setup which may be familiar to teachers is pair/group oral discussions of topics such as deciding a trip to take together. This

example will be used below to help clarify each challenge for students.

A first challenge is to understand the expected actions and performance for the task. Students may not know what is considered 'good' performance by their teacher or how that performance may or may not be connected to their course grades. One student may choose to talk about the location for a trip together, with a large focus on accurate and complex language use, while another may simply create a list of as many places as possible with no focus on grammar whatsoever. Without guidance on actions within the task design students cannot know how to perform their best.

Secondly, oral discussion tasks often follow a 'strong' Task-Based Language Teaching style approach (Willis, 1996), where students focus on communicating 'meaning' before having time to prepare language 'forms' they may need to do so. This can leave lower-level students with a large cognitive workload. Without time to prepare for oral interactions, such as a

discussion about their trip, student focus is on both coming up with ideas for the trip, as well as preparing the language they need to fluently articulate it (De Bot, 1992; Levelt, 1989). This high cognitive load can create a higher level of difficulty for students which can result in worse performance (see Skehan, 1998, p.99). This suggests that there may be a need for a 'weak' approach to TBLT for lower-level students, in which additional tasks can help them be more prepared to communicate (Estair & Zanon, 1994). Planning tasks are one type that can do this and are discussed more in the next section.

Thirdly, when expressing detailed or interconnected ideas across speaking time (such as in a speech about an idea for the trip), using their working memory (Baddeley, 2003) to structure and support ideas fluently, without reading notes, can be challenging for students. In addition, without practicing the task beforehand, students can find it difficult to react to questions or the opinions of others. It is common practice for even experienced presenters to prepare, organize and refer to notes/presentation slides to structure, connect and remember what to say in their first language. With the added workload of verbalizing ideas in a second language, this preparation and checking of notes should also be considered to help students interact more easily with each other in English.

To sum up, students can often struggle to interact within oral tasks because of issues with understanding expected actions and performance, coming up with ideas, preparing English to communicate those ideas, delivering well-structured and fluent discourse, and being prepared to react to others. One area of research with the potential to help students become more prepared to handle these challenges is task planning which will now be discussed.

Oral Task Planning Research

Pre-Task Planning

The first type of planning which can support oral task performance is pre-task planning. Students are given time to prepare and some form of guidance on what to do within the task. In the case of the trip discussion example, students could be asked to make a written plan (known as 'strategic' planning) of their preferred trip with at least three clear reasons. This type of guided pre-task planning clarifies the expected actions and performance within the task and helps students to focus on doing their best. In addition, students have time to use their working memory to prepare ideas, the English needed to explain those ideas and structure their speech before they have to interact with other students. Pre-task planning has indeed been shown to result in more fluent speech in terms of speech rates and pausing within narrative tasks (Baleghizadeh & Shahri, 2017; Bui & Huang, 2018), as well as more participation and fluency within oral group discussions (Stroud, 2019).

However, the addition of pre-task planning before interactive tasks may not help students react more to the speeches of others. It may in fact lead to 'speech-like' exchanges between students with no improvement in follow-up questions or other such reactions afterwards (as found by Stroud, 2019).

In-Task (Online) Planning

Another planning type to consider is in-task (or sometimes 'online') planning. Rather than using a time limit for the task, students can stop and check their prepared notes and/or language use at any point (referred to as 'careful' planning). As would be expected, studies have shown that this extra time allowance to check before speaking results in improved language use. Yuan and Ellis (2003) saw improvements in accuracy and complexity among Chinese students when using in-task planning to narrate stories with pictures and Ahmadian (2012) saw similar results for Iranian students retelling 10-minute videos. However, an obvious problem with in-task planning is that students may stop to check things many times during tasks, making the task time longer and the fluency of interactions lower. Thus, the addition of in-task planning can serve as a good form of initial support for task interactions, but is likely to result in this short-term 'trade-off' (Skehan, 1998, p.97) of fluency for accuracy and complexity of English use.

Post-Task Planning

After the task has been completed, students can use post-task planning to improve future attempts at the same task. In short, students reflect on their performance and make plans on how to perform better the next time around. Research into the impact of this type of planning are scarce, but may be similar in effect to pre-task planning (as both are done to prepare for the next task). Ellis (2002) suggests that post-task planning will help students focus on problems with the ways the task was completed and difficulties using the target language. For the example trip discussion, students could think about how to explain their ideas more clearly, how to react better to potential opinions from others and what English to use to perform better.

Task Repetition

A final type of planning to consider is task repetition. By allowing students to repeat the same task, they have chances to reflect on, plan and improve performance with each new attempt. For the example trip discussion, students would be likely to interact more fluently about their trip ideas and feel more prepared to respond to the ideas of others after a few practices. The effects of task repetition can be likened to that of task rehearsal (another form of pre-task planning) which have been shown to improve participation and fluency for discussions (Stroud, 2019). Fluency (especially speech rates) was shown to continue to improve with each

repetition up until the fifth repetition of narrative tasks by Japanese university students (Lambert et al., 2017). The largest improvements occurred within the first three repetitions which may be an ideal number of times to improve interactions. However, task repetition research has mixed findings about effects on accuracy or complexity of language use. In addition, using many repetitions of the same task can become time consuming and perhaps even boring for students.

Combining Planning Types

One possible approach to getting the benefits and reducing the problems discussed above for oral task planning is to combine different types. A study by Ahmadian and Tavakoli (2011) found that adding both in-task planning and task repetition improved fluency, accuracy and complexity of storytelling by students. Taking the time they needed to tell their stories (in-task planning) and repeating those stories to others (task repetition) resulted in better performance. In addition, Arian and Mamaghani (2019) found that combining pre-task planning with in-task planning improved both fluency and accuracy for picture narrative tasks (telling a story to a partner using pictures as prompts). In short, when student could plan their narratives, and then check those plans during the task, their language use was better. It is clear that such combinations of task planning have the potential to support performance, but research on planning combinations for orally interactive tasks, with more than two planning types, is lacking. This has led to the focus of the model created in this paper which will now be explained.

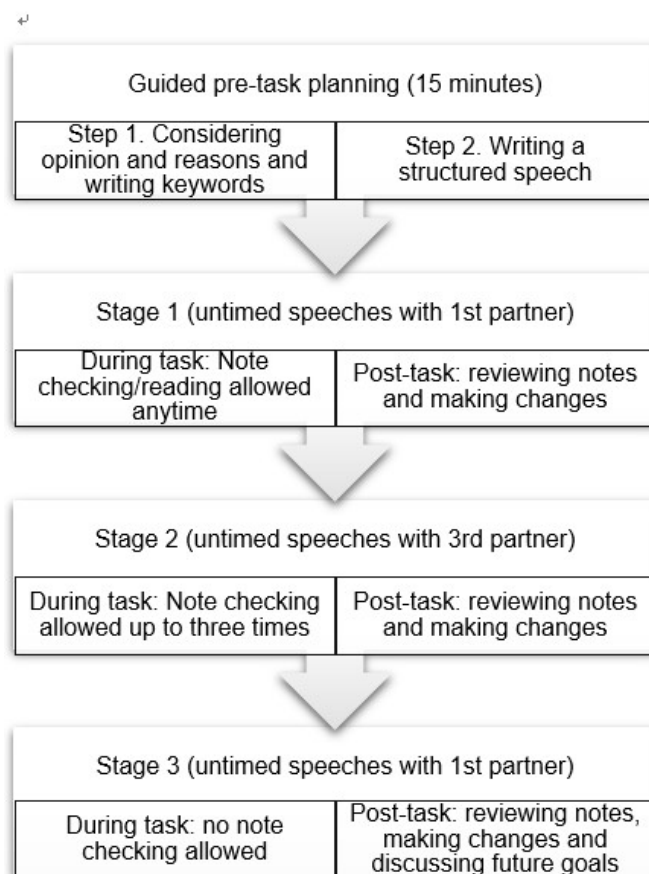
The Scaffolded Three-Stage Model

Model Purpose

Using the research discussed above for pre-task, in-task, post-task and task repetition planning, a model was created to combine all four types to improve interactions and oral task performance across English communication courses. The model was designed to integrate and gradually remove planning across successive repetitions of tasks with a sense of scaffolded task difficulty. By doing so, students were expected to become more interactive without the need for note checking. In addition, the model could show how much such combinations may be able to help students improve fluency, accuracy and complexity of spoken English in parallel. Figure 1 shows the model design and procedure.

Figure 1

The scaffolded three-stage model (30-40 minutes)



Model Design and Procedure

Guided pre-task planning.

Prior to the task, 15 minutes of class time is used to allow students to consider their preferences/opinions about the topic and what their reasons are. It is recommended that three choices are given to students (such as three possible trip locations to choose from) to help reduce the complexity of the task and allow them to focus more on their English, rather than creating their own ideas from scratch. This planning time can be longer, depending on the time available and the level of the students. While considering their thoughts, students write keywords to help organize their ideas. They then use the keywords to write a structured speech (about one-minute in length for low-level learners is recommended).

Task repetition.

Students repeat the exchanging of their speeches (and possible follow-up questions) with three different partners during Stages 1-3 (see Figure 1). By repeating the same task three times they are expected to become more fluent in the delivery of their speeches (as found by Lambert et al., 2017) and be better prepared to ask and answer questions about the speeches with each successive repetition.

Scaffolded in-task planning.

During their untimed speeches, students are allowed to check their pre-task speech notes. The use of this in-task planning is expected to help students become more capable of improving their fluency, accuracy and complexity of language use during each successive performance when combined with the pre-task planning (see Arian & Mamaghani, 2019) and task repetition (see Ahmadian & Tavakoli, 2011). Scaffolding of the in-task planning is used to help students become less dependent on their notes and more fluent within each successive repetition of the task. During Stage 1, students can simply read their notes if they wish to. However, they can only refer back to them a maximum of three times during Stage 2 and they cannot check them at all in Stage 3. The three stages will often take about 15-25 minutes to complete if speeches remain untimed.

Post-task planning.

After the completion of Stages 1 and 2, students have time (about three minutes is recommended from experience) to review their speech notes, make any changes they wish to and prepare for the next stage. This allows students time to reflect and improve on difficulties they had with explaining their ideas, asking and answering any potential questions and using the English needed to do it all. After Stage 3, students discuss their overall performance and future goals for improving at similar tasks with their partner and/or teacher.

The following three research questions were created to examine the self-reported effects of the model:

RQ1) How do students report feeling about using the scaffolded three-stage model for interacting with classmates?

RQ2) How useful do the students report the model to be for improving their spoken English within interactions?

RQ3) In what ways do the students report wanting the model to be altered?

Method

Participants and Context

134 non-English major Japanese first-year university students studying at a private university in Tokyo took part in the study by using the model and completing self-reported surveys about it. The students were mixed gender (52 females and 82 males) with a mean TOEIC listening and reading score of 424 (SD = 151) out of a maximum possible score of 990. This categorized the students as having an 'Elementary Proficiency Plus' level of receptive English, and were considered to be low-level learners.

The students were all in one of six different classes studying weekly 100-minute English communication classes in a 14-week course taught by one of the two researchers. The purpose of the course was to improve English speech giving and oral interaction skills with everyday conversation topics. Students were expected to deliver weekly speeches to partners and ask each other questions, as well as perform short speeches for a final course test. The majority of the students clearly had a limited ability to interact orally in English, with two or three simple exchanges of sentences being the best observed by either teacher.

Procedure and Data Collection

As all classes at the university were being taught online as a safety measure during the coronavirus pandemic, students took part in the study using Zoom. The students were given the following speech topic at the start of the third-week of their course in the main Zoom room:

Which of these hobbies do you most and least want to try? Sky diving, rock climbing, or cooking?

After they were given the question, student worked by themselves for 20 minutes to undertake the guided pre-task planning (see above) to prepare keywords about their choices and reasons and then write a one-minute speech using those words. They then used the three-stage model (see Figure 1) to interact with three different random partners within Zoom breakout rooms controlled by the teacher. The teachers did not intervene with the interactions during the three stages, but remained available to help students if they were called to the breakout rooms (which was rarely the case). Once students had finished each stage, they returned to the main zoom room to review notes before their next speech.

After the third stage was completed, the students were given a link to a Japanese version of the survey (see the appendix for an English version) and completed it privately and anonymously. The survey asked the students about their impressions of using the model, how they felt it may/may not have helped them improve their oral interactions and how they felt the model could be altered. The survey used a six-point Likert scale for students to rate their responses from 1 (very untrue) to 6 (very true). Students also completed an open-ended question about how they felt the model could be improved. This was used to help gather data to improve future versions of the model.

Results and Discussion

RQ1: Reported Feelings About The Model

Table 1 shows a summary of the student reported feelings towards using the model for interactions. On the whole, the feedback from the students about using the model was very positive. From a maximum score of 6 (meaning 'very true'), most students reported the model to be easy to understand ($M = 4.99$, $SD = 0.87$),

fun to use ($M = 5.16$, $SD = 0.92$), motivational for speaking ($M = 4.99$, $SD = 0.91$) and good for improving confidence to speak ($M = 4.50$, $SD = 1.07$). Although the exact reasons for this positive feedback were not present in the data, the use of the model can be said to be a welcomed form of additional guidance and support for oral interactions by the students. Thus, teachers who struggle to get students to speak during orally interactive tasks should consider using such a model.

Table 1

Student-Reported Feelings Towards the Model (N=134)

The Model...	was easy to understand	was fun to use	motivated me to speak	made me more confident to speak
MEAN	4.99	5.16	4.99	4.50
SD	0.87	0.92	0.91	1.07

Notes. 1 = very untrue; 2 = untrue; 3 = somewhat untrue; 4 = somewhat true; 5 = true; 6 =very true

RQ2: Reported Improvements with the Model

Table 2 shows a summary of the student reports about the effectiveness of the model to help improve their spoken English. It can be seen that students reported a moderately positive effect of the model on their overall speaking skills ($M = 4.36$, $SD = 0.83$), fluency of speech ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 0.94$) and ability to reduce spoken mistakes ($M = 4.31$, $SD = 1.03$). Even though these findings appear to be very promising for the use of the model, it is possible that the students did not fully remember how the model may have affected their performance across time or understand in what exact ways it may have helped them improve (which pre and post-test comparisons would show more clearly). In addition, it cannot be determined with the data available which planning type had the greatest influence on these reported improvements. However, the students did

report that the combined planning used did help them improve their accuracy and fluency of English use. Despite this, students reported less improvements for improving their complexity of language with lower mean scores for it helping with using new/harder words ($M = 3.59$, $SD = 1.08$) and new/harder grammar ($M = 3.54$, $SD = 1.13$). With only a few minutes of post-task planning used by students between each speech to adjust/improve English, and with no direct teacher feedback or support, this lower scoring of complexity improvements is perhaps not surprising. If oral improvements in grammar and vocabulary use are a main goal of an English communication course, then supplementary coursework may be needed to assist with this alongside the model, or the model itself could be adapted to include such practices (having students use specific language within their pre-task notes for example).

Table 2

Student-Reported Effects of the Model (N=134)

The Model helped me...	improve my overall speaking skills	speak more fluently	make less spoken mistakes	say new/harder words	say new/harder grammar
MEAN	4.36	4.32	4.31	3.59	3.54
SD	0.83	0.94	1.03	1.08	1.13

Notes. 1 = very untrue; 2 = untrue; 3 = somewhat untrue; 4 = somewhat true; 5 = true; 6 =very true

RQ3: Student Suggestions For Model Changes

Table 3 shows a summary of the translated student responses to the open-ended question about how the model could be altered. Not all of the students gave responses, but those who did often explained their opinions clearly. After reviewing the responses several times, categories and sub-categories were formed and the responses grouped within them. The categories within Table 3 are ranked by how many students mentioned them (with most mentioned at the top).

The most reported factor was wanting to have more time and examples for speech notes preparation during the pre-task planning stage. As discussed in the introduction, a lack of information about 'good' performance can cause confusion and hesitation amongst students. 15 minutes was the time allowed in the study and perhaps giving students more time may help them feel more prepared to speak, depending on how much class time the teacher is willing to use (or assign it as a homework for example). Giving students example speeches is also recommended before using the model (as was later done for the students after this data was collected) to help further clarify expected performance.

Partner interaction was another common factor which students wanted more of with the model. The students were only preparing to deliver speeches with no specific guidance for follow-up to those speeches (such as asking each other questions). It is highly recommended that after students use the model a few times that they then are asked to interact more after the speeches to further develop language use and interactional skills. This is addressed more in the future research section below.

More support for language use improvements was also reported by many students. As seen in Table 2, the model was reported to be more useful for improving fluency and accuracy than complexity of language use. As discussed earlier, if this model is used within oral communication classes, it may be important to incorporate guidance on the use of specific vocabulary/grammar into the learning or the model itself.

The medium of interaction (Zoom) was reported as a challenge by students, especially as it was sometimes hard for students to see or hear their partners. Even though it was easy to use the model online (via pair breakout rooms within Zoom), it did sometimes create issues. As students' rights to privacy and issues with technology are beyond the scope of this study, they will not be discussed further, but are worth careful consideration by teachers.

Three other time-related factors reported by the students were task repetitions, task time and post-task review time. Again, consideration of how many stages of speeches, how long to allow for each stage and how

much time to give for reflection after speeches is important. The model used approximately 30-40 minutes of time for the completion of three stages of speeches, but this can of course be longer if required and if more classroom time is available to do so. In addition, some students reported wanting to practice speeches with groups, so perhaps an additional stage of group speeches would be useful to provide them with more practice and feedback from each other.

Table 3*Summary of Student Suggestions for Model Alteration*

Category	Sub-category	Example student responses
Speech notes preparation (16)	More time to prepare (11), see example speeches (5)	"I want a little more time to prepare", "I want a longer preparation time to make my speech", "An example speech will give you more confidence"
Partner interaction (11)	Time for questions (4), suggestions how to improve (4), opinions about speech (2), evaluation of speech (1)	"More time for questions about the speech", "Exchange opinions about the other person's speech", "Discuss what improvements you can make"
Support for language improvements (10)	Help with vocabulary (5), grammar (4), phrases (1)	"Learning new words", "Try to use new words each time", "Add rules such as including this grammar"
Median of interaction (9)	Have face-to-face interactions (5), partners' camera/mic on (4)	"I want to do it face-to-face because I can see their facial expressions better", "There was a problem with the mic and it was difficult to hear the speech"
Task repetitions (8)	More speech repetitions (8)	"Do speeches many times", "Increase the number of speeches", "Repeat it with more partners"
Task time (6)	Longer total task time (4), longer speeches (2)	"More time to speak in English", "More time to tell others my speech"
Task group size (6)	Chances for group practices (6)	"We also want to try group discussions with 3 or 4 people", "It would be better to practice with three people to get more opinions"
Post-task review task (4)	More time to review speeches between repetitions (4)	"The break time was a little short", "I want a little more time to rework the content of the speech"

Notes. Numbers in brackets represent the number of students who mentioned the category/sub-category

Conclusions and Future Research

This paper investigated the self-reported effects on English oral interaction and language improvements with the use of a model combining decades of task planning research and findings from around the world. The findings were generally very positive with most students reporting the model to be easy and fun to use, motivating and confidence-building. Students also reported the model as helpful for improving general speaking skills, fluency and accuracy of English use. However, the ability of the model to help use new or more difficult English was not so highly reported and students expressed preferences for more support to learn such new language while using the model. In addition, students reported wanting more time to prepare and review speeches, more chances and time to practice speeches and more opportunities to interact with partners and groups about the content of their speeches.

As a result of these findings, the authors are developing a semester-long research project for integrating the model into English communication courses in the form of textbooks. This extended use of the model will be

scaffolded across time to add additional support for preparing, reviewing, repeating and improving language use within speeches and post-speech interactions. Observational data will be gathered to further examine the improvements made by students with the longer-term scaffolding of the model and how it may help improve interactions and language use by students over time.

References

- Ahmadian, M. J. (2012). The effects of guided careful online planning on complexity, accuracy and fluency in intermediate EFL learners' oral production: The case of English articles. *Language Teaching Research*, 16(1), 129-149.
- Ahmadian, M. J., & Tavakoli, M. (2011). The effects of simultaneous use of careful online planning and task repetition on accuracy, complexity, and

- fluency in EFL learners' oral production. *Language Teaching Research*, 15(1), 35-59.
- Arian, T., & Mamaghani, H. J. (2019). Semi-Online Planning: The Route to Fluency, Complexity, and Accuracy of EFL Learners' Oral Production. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 53.
- Baddeley, A. (2003). Working memory: looking back and looking forward. *Nature Reviews Neuroscience*, 4(10), 829-839.
- Baleghizadeh, S., & Shahri, M. N. N. (2017). The effect of online planning, strategic planning and rehearsal across two proficiency levels. *The Language Learning Journal*, 45(2), 171-184.
- Bui, G., & Huang, Z. (2018). L2 fluency as influenced by content familiarity and planning: Performance, measurement, and pedagogy. *Language Teaching Research*, 22(1), 94-114.
- De Bot, K. (1992). A bilingual production model: Levelt's 'Speaking' model adapted, *Applied Linguistics*, 13, 1-24.
- Ellis, R. (2002). The methodology of task-based teaching. Retrieved from https://www.kansai-u.ac.jp/fl/publication/pdf_education/04/5rodellis.pdf.
- Estair, S. & J. Zanon. (1994). *Planning Class work: A Task-based Approach*. Heinemann Publishers
- Gass, S., & Mackey, A. (2007). Input, interaction and output: An overview. In K. Bardovi-Harlig & Z. Dornyei (Eds.), *AILA Review* (pp. 3-17). Benjamins.
- Lambert, C., Kormos, J., & Minn, D. (2017). Task repetition and second language speech processing. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 39(1), 167-196.
- Levelt, W. (1989). *Speaking: From Intention to Articulation*. MIT Press.
- Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. Ritchie and T. Bhatia (eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413-468). Academic Press.
- Skehan, P. (1998). *A cognitive approach to language learning*. Oxford University Press.
- Stroud, R. (2019). The effects of strategic planning and rehearsal on second language group discussion task performance. *The Language Learning Journal*, 1-14.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1986). *Thought and language*. MIT Press.
- Yuan, F., & Ellis, R. (2003). The effects of pre-task planning and on-line planning on fluency, complexity and accuracy in L2 monologic oral production. *Applied Linguistics*, 24(1), 1-27.
- Willis, J. (1996). *A Framework for Task-based Learning*. Addison Wesley Longman Limited.

Appendix

Survey Questions (English version)

What did you think about the model?

(please score parts 1 and 2 from 1-6)

(1 = very untrue; 2 = untrue; 3 = somewhat untrue; 4 = somewhat true; 5 = true; 6 =very true)

Part 1. The model...

- was easy to understand
- was fun to use
- motivated me to speak
- made me feel more confident to speak

Part 2. The model helped me...

- improve my overall speaking skills
- speak more fluently
- make less spoken mistakes
- say new/harder words
- say new/harder grammar

Part 3. The model would be better if...

(Please write as much detail as you can)

Collaborative Learning in Higher Education in Japan: Toward an Intercollegiate Program

Akiko Tsuda

Nakamura Gakuen University

Kayoko Kinshi

University of Hyogo

Christopher Valvona

Okinawa Christian University

This paper reports on a collaborative learning project in which 42 students at three universities across Japan exchanged emails in English introducing themselves and different elements of their hometown. The goal of the project was to encourage students to learn more about their own culture, increase students' written communicative ability through regular interactions in English, and develop students' core understanding of email functionality and etiquette. Starting with a brief overview of collaborative learning, the paper provides details of the research project and presents the results of a pre- and post-project survey completed by students, as well as reflections by the three researchers. The survey results and researchers' reflections indicate that students enjoyed the email exchange experience and their confidence to communicate in English increased, as did their understanding of email methods and etiquette. With certain alterations, the researchers aim to carry out the project again on a larger scale.

本研究では、自分自身や郷土の異なる要素について英語で書いたEメール交換による3大学の協働学習について報告する。このプロジェクトの目標は、自分自身の文化について学び、定期的な英語での相互交流によりライティングのコミュニケーション能力を向上させ、Eメールの構造やエチケットの理解を深めることである。本研究では、協働学習について概観し、研究プロジェクトの詳細について述べ、学生による事前・事後調査の結果と3人の研究者による振り返りを明らかにする。調査結果と研究者の振り返りから、学生がEメールの交換を楽しんでいたこと、Eメールの方法やエチケットを理解するにつれ、英語でコミュニケーションをはかることについて自信を持つようになったことが分かる。今後も、改変を加え、このプロジェクトをさらに大きい規模で実施する予定である。

Introduction and background

Collaborative learning is a pedagogical approach to active learning that aims to promote relational development among learners through successful learning experiences (Cohen, 1994). This paper reports on a collaborative learning project among students at three separate universities in different areas of Japan. In the project, a multiple email exchange task among learners served as an instructional tool to encourage learners' interactions with one another, expose them to diverse regional cultures, improve their knowledge and understanding of their own background and culture, and teach them basic methods and standards of etiquette for communication via email. The task was designed to foster more communicative, confident, and technologically competent students. This paper provides details of the project (including its aims),

responses from participating students in both a pre- and post-project survey, reflections from the researchers, and thoughts for future directions.

According to Jenkins (2012), English as a Lingua Franca (ELF) applies not only to L1 English speakers, but to speakers whose L1 is not English. In this sense, Japanese students learning English as L2 are described as ELF users. This research aims to design intercollegiate collaborative learning among such ELF users. The project is significant because learners have the opportunity to revisit, reflect on, and disseminate their own culture while improving their English language proficiency through collaborative learning. Moreover, this model of collaborative learning could be influential and may be applied as the learning method in universities across Japan. In 2008, the Japanese Government introduced the G30 Project, and extra funding was provided to 13 designated universities to

attract 300,000 international students. This project was succeeded in 2014 by the Super Global Universities Project, where 37 designated universities were assigned to implement EMI courses to intensify internationalization on campuses (MEXT 2014). As the need for internationalization increases, higher education in Japan is shifting from English taught as a foreign language to EMI for academic subjects (Kirkpatrick, 2017). English serves as the common medium of instruction among speakers from different L1s. Most international students enrolled in universities in Japan use English as a lingua franca (ELF). They do not necessarily have any prior knowledge of Japanese culture, nor any Japanese language proficiency. Therefore, this project will also provide international students with the opportunity to interact with Japanese students living in other areas and learn about regional tradition and culture. The project will help develop all participants' critical thinking skills and raise intercultural awareness, thereby helping foster global human resources who can contribute to local communities in Japan.

Methods

Collaborative Learning Project

This project utilized collaborative learning, which is an educational approach of using groups to enhance learning by working together. Researchers have proposed theories that classify collaborative learning (see Kagan, 1985; Vygotsky, 1997; Johnson & Johnson, 2009). In this practice, learners work together on projects, collaborating as a group to complete tasks or solve problems. In addition, collaborative learning utilizes a learner-centered approach, where students

play the role of responsible participants who have already acquired, to some extent, the social skills required to undertake and complete a task (Matthews, Cooper, Davidson & Hawkes, 1995). In Japanese EFL higher education, there has been previous collaborative learning projects among students. Gaitanidis et al. (2016), for example, conducted collaborative learning in multilingual and multicultural classrooms. They focused on topics related to Japan and discussed the strategy for enhancing interaction among students. In addition, Kishi et al. (2008) conducted collaborative learning between Korea and Japan. They utilized Information and Communication Technology (ICT) tools and demonstrated positive effects such as obtaining knowledge about each country. The project in this paper identifies how students living in three different regional areas interact each other and acquire knowledge about each culture as well as their own.

Researchers and Participants

The researchers for this project have been teaching for more than 15 years at universities in three separate locations in Japan: Hyogo, Fukuoka, and Okinawa. During the project, the researchers took into account ethical appropriateness; the participants were students from each university who took part on a voluntary basis and with a clear understanding that their performance in the email project would not affect their final grades for their classes. Only those who consented to participate actually took part in the email exchanges, and students were explicitly instructed to contact their teacher if they had any difficulties or concerns. Details of the 42 participants are summarized in Table 1. The participants varied in year of study, background, subject of study, and exposure to English.

Table 1: Participants in the Collaborative Learning Project

Prefecture	Private /Public University	Year	No. of Students	Major	Exposure To English
Hyogo	Public	2nd	9 (*including 2 international students)	Economics and Management	English as a medium of instruction
Fukuoka	Private	3rd	15	Food Science	English for Specific Purposes in the course Food Business taken in the first and second year
Okinawa	Private	1st	18	English Communication	Intensive university-level English classes

Note. The two international students' first language is not English.

Project Details

This project involved setting up an inter-college email exchange in English. The 42 students were assigned to groups of three, with each group having students who had never met one another and who were based in different locations in Japan (however, logistical issues related to the different numbers of students in each

location led to some groups having two people from the same location). Throughout the autumn semester of school year 2020–2021, students were given instructions by their respective instructors (the researchers for this project) to periodically write an email to the other two members of the group on a given theme. The themes were as follows:

- #1: Self-introduction
- #2: Introduction of the student's hometown
- #3: Introduction of a local dish
- #4: Introduction of a local festival or craft

Students were instructed to write to both other members of their group in the same email, and to CC their instructor in the initial email of each task. This was to allow the instructors to check that the first email had been sent. Subsequently, students were encouraged to reply and continue the exchange without the need to CC the instructor, as it was believed that the students might relax more in their communications if they did not feel they were being viewed and/or judged by their instructors.

As the email assignments progressed, the levels of scaffolding for the students decreased. For the first email, students were given detailed instructions on the assignment, information to include, phrases to use, and even a model email (see Appendix A). By the final email assignment, the students were given instructions and one or two useful phrases. We also attempted to raise the complexity of the exchanges as the project continued; the first assignment was only an email, but in subsequent emails, the students had to conduct independent research, source and attach/embed images, and provide links to videos. Meanwhile, the instructors provided no explicit language feedback, as doing so could risk turning the project into more of an evaluated homework activity instead of a task that highlighted the enjoyment of communicating and learning in English.

Students completed pre- and post-project surveys written in both English and Japanese. The pre-project survey was designed to gauge students' knowledge and awareness of the technicalities and rules of etiquette regarding composing and sending emails. The post-project survey was designed to gather student opinions on the project and to ascertain the extent to which the students felt they had personally developed through the project.

Project Objectives

In a study about the effects of intercultural contact on L2 motivation among Japanese students, Aubrey and Nowlan (2013) write that "without frequent personal encounters with the cultural group [of the learned language] itself, the aspiration of empathizing, communicating effectively and ultimately integrating with another ethnolinguistic community becomes a vague, almost empty goal." Following a similar logic,

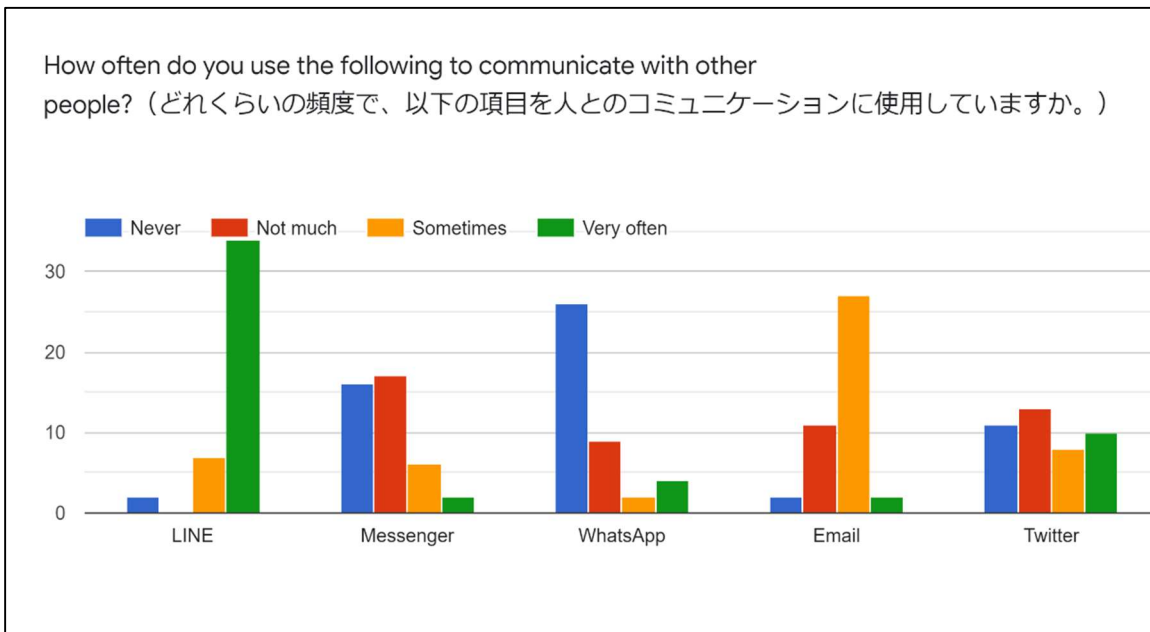
we hoped that by being introduced to people from not only other countries but also other regions of their own country, and communicating in a shared L2, students would feel increased enthusiasm to participate in and enjoy the experience of communication (specifically written communication) in English, and also strengthen their written English communication skills. In addition, the project was thought to be a chance for students to learn about different regions and cultures in Japan and beyond. They would not only learn about their correspondents' hometowns but, arguably more importantly, also have to research and learn about where they were from, and then find ways to express that information in English. We hoped that the project would encourage independence among the participating students, in that they would communicate freely and regularly with their email partners, without constant instruction or pressure from their teachers. Finally, a significant goal of the project was to raise students' basic knowledge of the technicalities and etiquette of email correspondence. In recent years, the researchers believe they have observed a trend among the younger generation in Japan toward using LINE and similar platforms for both L1 and L2 communication, considerably more so than regular email (though this was only an assumption by the researchers at the start of the project, the pre-project survey aimed to address this question directly). This is not necessarily a regrettable development, except that email remains an important tool for communication in the workplace. Students would undoubtedly need knowledge of using email efficiently and appropriately, ideally before graduating and entering the job market. The researchers often observed unintentionally abrupt (and, therefore, rude) emails from students that displayed a lack of awareness of the correct register and format for email communication. We hoped that this could be remedied through the project.

Outcomes

Pre-project Survey

A total of 43 students completed the pre-project survey, but one student subsequently dropped out before the project began. Hence, only 42 students took part in the actual email project. For the survey, we used Google Forms. The questions were written in both English and Japanese. Pertinent or noteworthy results are presented in this section. One question was designed to confirm what the researchers had already suspected in terms of student usage of communication tools and platforms. The results are presented in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Frequency of Using Different Platforms for Communication among the Participants.



The results were largely unsurprising in that, as expected, students predominantly used LINE for communication, and rarely or never used Facebook Messenger or WhatsApp. The number of students who “sometimes” used email was relatively high, also in keeping with the researchers’ assumptions.

Another question was on students’ perceived ability to compose an email correctly and politely in either English or Japanese. Similarly, the researchers’ prior assumptions were confirmed; as shown in Figure 2, only 14% of the respondents answered “Yes,” and 30% stated “No.”

Figure 2. Confidence in Composing Emails.

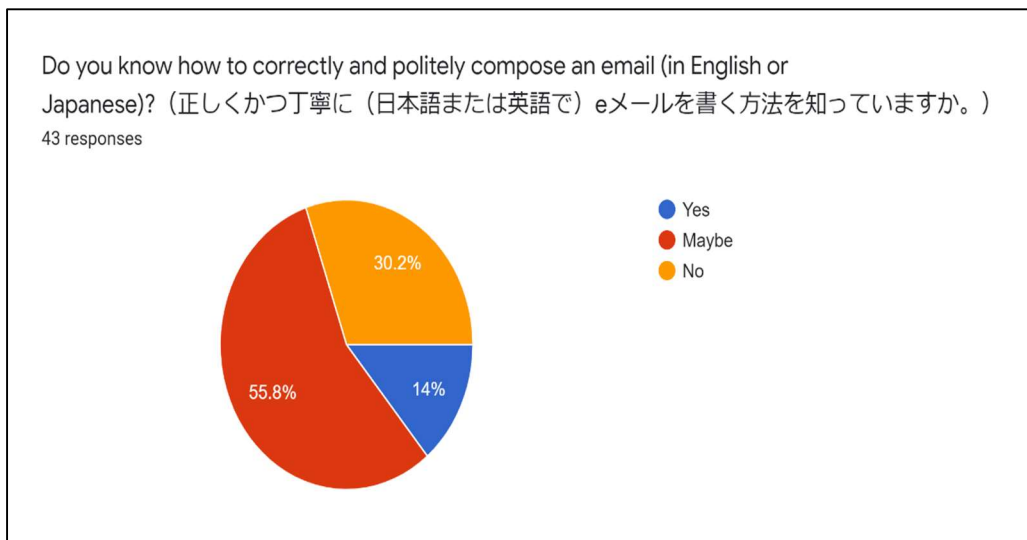


Figure 3 shows that more than half of students did not know the meaning of “CC” or “BCC” in relation to writing emails, and only 22% were confident that they did know. Although not entirely surprising, these figures clearly indicated a problem for students who will soon be job-hunting without such basic knowledge of email

communication. Meanwhile, Figures 4 and 5 indicate that students are much more comfortable with the concepts of “Reply,” “Reply all,” and file attachments.

Figure 3. Awareness of Email Terms "CC" and "BCC."

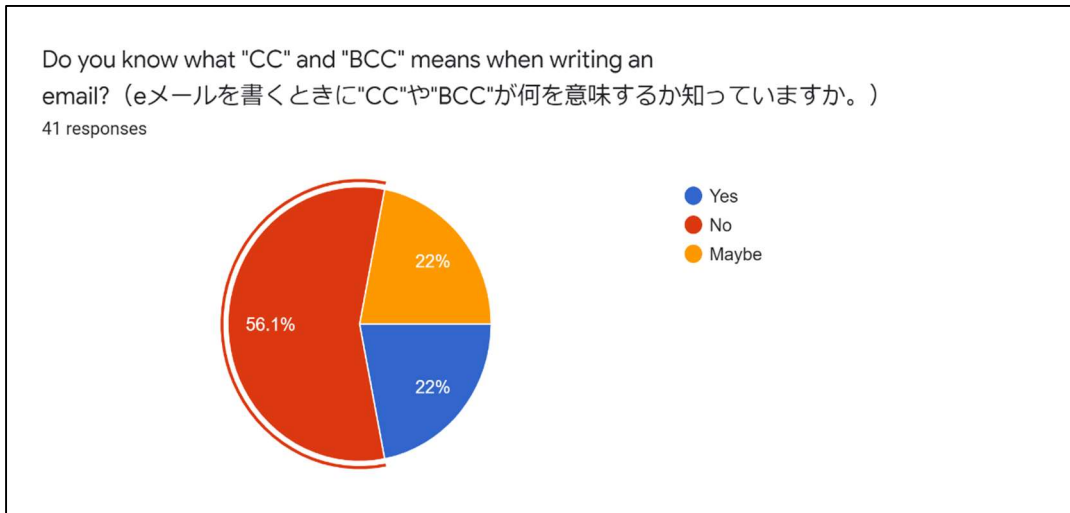


Figure 4. Awareness of Email Options "Reply" and "Reply All."

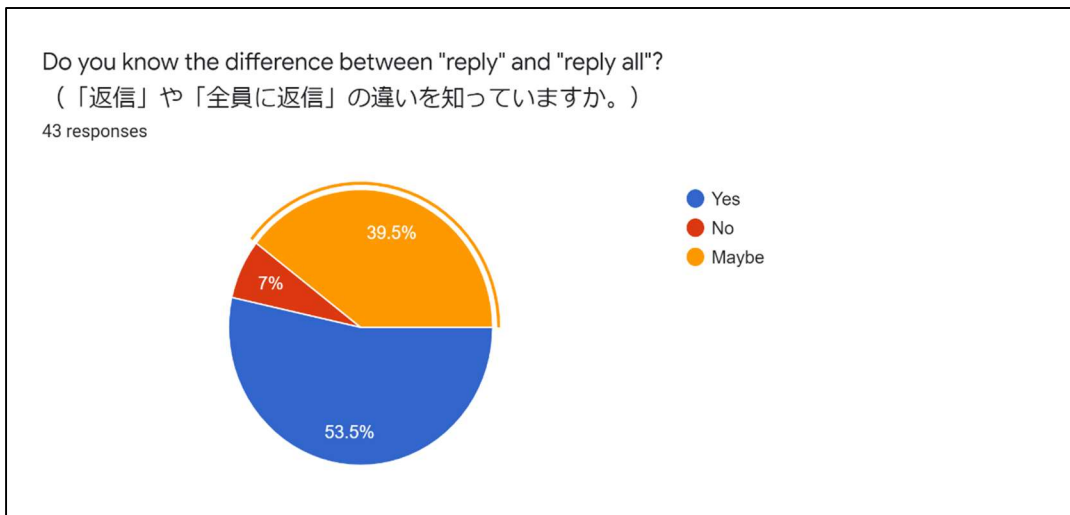
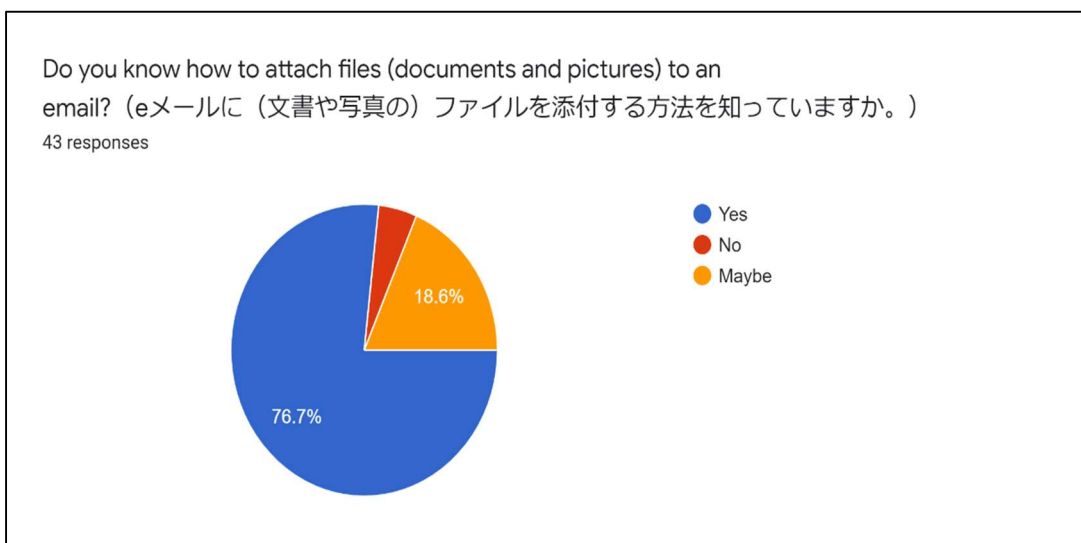


Figure 5. Awareness of Email Attachments.

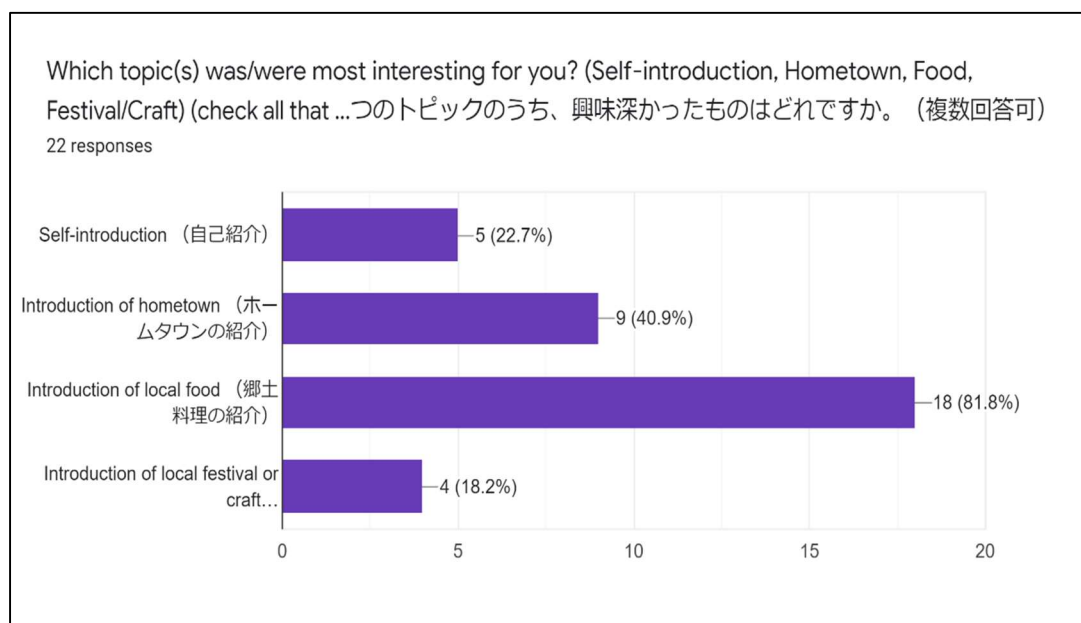


Post-project survey

After the completion of the four email assignments, we distributed an online survey to all students via Google Forms and in both English and Japanese. Of the participating 42 students, 22 replied to the survey (see Limitations).

To hone the project contents in future years, we asked the students which topics they found most interesting. As can be seen in Figure 6, the most popular of the four topics was the introduction of local food, whereas that on local festivals or crafts was the least popular.

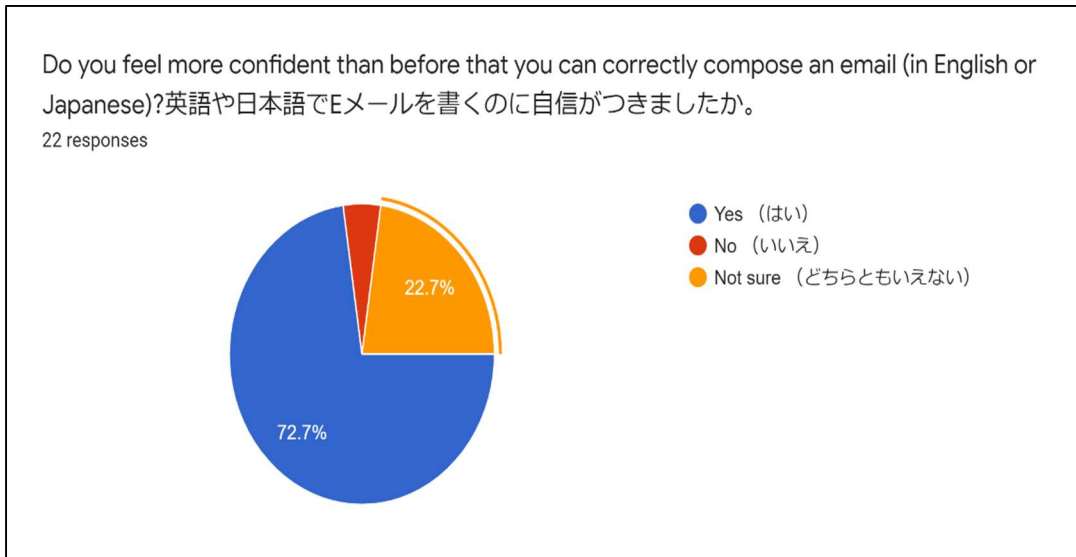
Figure 6. Students' Feedback on Most Interesting Topic.



We also asked the students regarding the other topics they would like to write about, prompting a range of responses including “local dialects and regional languages,” “celebrities, music, and songs,” and “our university.” The suggestions from students will prove valuable to researchers when designing future versions of this project. Regarding their participation in this project, 72% of students reported feeling more confident

than before that they could correctly compose an email (see Fig. 7), which indicated great progress (or great perceived progress, which at the least would have a positive influence on students' confidence to communicate in either language over email).

Figure 7. Confidence in Composing Emails after the Project.



We also asked the students the difficulties they faced when writing emails in English. They identified the following concerns:

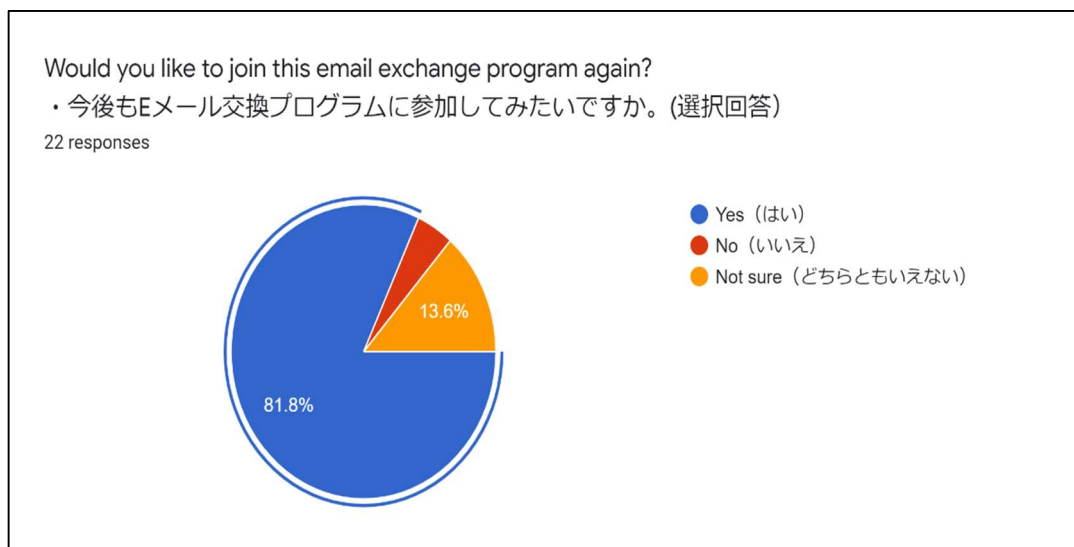
- How to express myself correctly in English (3 responses)
- Vocabulary (3) / Grammar (2 responses)
- How to start and finish an email (2 responses)
- How to write polite sentences (1 response)
- Too narrow a topic (1 response)
- Structure (1 response)
- Writing long sentences (1 response)
- Sending CC (1 response)

(Note: The responses have been either translated from Japanese or edited for clarity by the researchers).

We also asked the students whether they would like to take part in this project again, to which 81% said “Yes” (see Fig. 8). Thus, the students may have found the project to be enjoyable and, together with the results in Figure 7, beneficial. Regarding the advantages of joining the email exchange program, the students responded as follows:

- I can make friends in other prefectures and obtain new information about other areas. (14 responses)
- I wrote long sentences in English/I learned an email format. (3 responses)

Figure 8. Willingness to Participate in a Similar Project.



We also sought the students' opinions regarding improvements for future email exchange programs. They offered the following responses, which will prove useful for future projects:

- We should have sent more emails to each other.
- It is easier to communicate over LINE than via email.
- We should have a longer program.
- I want to communicate with students from more prefectures.
- We tended to forget to send emails to each other. We should communicate in a regular manner.
- I would like to have my English corrected by the teacher. It might be fun if we share emails with teachers.

(Note: The responses have been either translated from Japanese or edited for clarity by the researchers).

Researchers' Reflections

Hyogo

The nine participants from Hyogo all studied courses taught in English as medium of instruction. Therefore, they used English as a means of communication at school. The email exchange project in this research was not part of the course curriculum. The instructor provided each task as the students' assignment at home. Although the commitment to this program varied, the students were intrigued by this email exchange. Specifically, this program offered them a good

opportunity to change their stereotypical views of regional cultures in other areas. For example, apart from ramen, udon is a famous noodle dish in Fukuoka. As for the writing style, they learned a variety of vocabulary and expressions. They used to write "Sincerely" often as a closing remark; however, they learned to use "Regards," "Best wishes," and "Thanks" in their emails. The instructions included "Your hometown can be your place of birth or the place you live in now," and since some Japanese students as well as international students, came from outside the Kansai area, this project allowed them to choose the place they would like to talk about depending on the topic. Although they were recommended to exchange subsequent messages after the first email, they seemed to have sent no further messages to each other. It seems worthwhile to examine what prevented them from sending follow-up messages to their correspondence partners. Nonetheless, through this email exchange, the students were motivated to communicate and become acquainted with students from other regional cultures in Japan.

Fukuoka

The participants from Fukuoka were third-year students majoring in food science. Thus, they were the oldest students and perhaps the busiest, with a large number of required subjects, including laboratory courses and internships. At first, most of the Fukuoka participants seemed to lack confidence in writing in English, as they had no English classes in the academic year and had never been officially taught how to write emails in English through the Japanese education system. Generally, for food science majors, English is not regarded as a very important subject, even by faculty members and universities in Japan, because the

students are instead required to attend many prerequisite laboratory subjects (Tsuda, 2015). Even so, the food industry is now globalized, and English is used as a *lingua franca* among businesspeople.

For the first and second email exchanges, students showed obvious anxiety and attempted to avoid making errors and mistakes. Some merely copied and pasted from the sample given (see Appendix A). From the third exchange, the students seemed more motivated to research topics and write about their local food culture, which was relevant to their major. The project was held in the autumn semester, and the students soon needed to prepare for job hunting. As business communication is typically done by email, not text message chains/threads such as are used over LINE, students perhaps regarded the activities as important for getting ready for the workplace.

Owing to the COVID-19 outbreak, all of the study-abroad programs had been canceled and foreign tourists had disappeared from the city. For the non-English major participants in Fukuoka, the university students in Hyogo studying business through English as a medium of instruction and English majors in Okinawa, with whom they corresponded, served as good role models and motivators.

Okinawa

The students were keen to participate in the program. The reason for their enthusiasm may be that they were all first-year English majors—most students enter the university with a desire to use and improve their practical English communication skills. However, because of the COVID-19 pandemic, much of their first semester had been spent online, and usual exchange programs and events offered by the university to provide opportunities to speak and communicate with other students and English-speaking faculty (e.g., weekly lunch gatherings with English instructors, Sports Day, three-day orientation camp) had all been canceled. Understandably, the students would be mildly frustrated in this situation and would seize the opportunity for more interaction, particularly in English. Further, the students were excited to know more about mainland Japan; most had traveled to the mainland at least once in their lives (often as a school trip). For those living in Okinawa, opportunities to travel, see, and learn firsthand about other parts of Japan are more limited compared with those who live on the Japanese mainland.

Overall, the exchanges went well. From a teaching perspective, one of the desired outcomes was for students to gain a better understanding of email usage (e.g., CC, reply all, attachments) and, more significantly, of the importance of email etiquette. Students predominantly use LINE or other messaging platforms for communication, and are unaware of the negative impression created by abrupt communications (which might be more acceptable on messaging platforms)

conveyed over email. We observed significant improvement in how the students exchanged messages with one another, as well as with the researchers.

As for the content of the emails, we noticed changes in the messages over the course of the project. The first assignment was presented to students with a model email, and the students copied this model closely, often merely substituting words in the model with their own information. Although understandable, this practice was not the free exchange of meaningful information intended by the project. Therefore, as a deliberate measure, we stopped providing model emails from email #2, and instead only gave instructions, tips, and a few useful phrases that students were free to pick and choose from as they pleased. From email #2 onwards, the exchanges appeared to become more natural (at least in the first email of each task in which students were instructed to CC their teacher), and the purpose of the project (to give students a chance to exchange meaningful information English) was better realized.

One point to consider in future projects is the CC issue mentioned above. Students were instructed to CC their own instructor in the first email of each assignment (to check that the email was sent and to record how well students were performing the tasks). They were then told that they did not need to CC the instructor in follow-up exchanges. This was intended to get the students to relax and enjoy exchanging messages freely. However, a consequence is that the researchers could not determine the extent to which the students continued the correspondence after the first email of the task, nor their reasons for not continuing. At the very least, the post-project survey ought to have asked the students how many emails were exchanged.

Summary of reflections

Overall, the researchers feel that goals of the project were met, and the post-project survey indicated the students' satisfaction and desire to join a similar project, with some constructive comments for improvement or better administration. Having reflected on this research, the researchers believe it will be beneficial to do a similar project in the future.

Conclusion and Future Directions

Through this intercollegiate program, the participating students had the opportunity to express themselves and their local culture in English. They appear to have enjoyed the experience, and their confidence in email communication increased. The project was also expected to develop their understanding and ability to apply proper email etiquette.

In the future, we intend to conduct this email exchange program with a new set of students. Keeping the same basic framework, the project may be tweaked in the following ways:

- Increase the scope and scale of the project
- Give more than four email assignments
- Incorporate Zoom, MS Teams, and similar online platforms to allow for both written and face-to-face interactions
- Involve the instructors more directly in the communications, either to provide explicit language support and feedback or, more probably, to encourage discussion and continuation of the email exchanges between participants
- Ask the students to CC the researchers in all communication, to allow for better monitoring and more possibility for detailed analysis of the contents of the interactions and developments in style and language complexity
- Tailor the surveys to investigate students' feelings regarding the project and the extent to which they learned and developed through it
- Connect the project to students' job-hunting activities by adapting the contents of the exchanges to students' job interviews and using them in mock interview practice

Challenges and limitations

It should be noted that preparation and implementation of the project—which was a supplementary part of the classes and not integral to them—was somewhat difficult and time-consuming for the three researchers. Online planning meetings were held approximately every two weeks throughout the project and each email task required discussions about the theme, the level of scaffolding and modelling for students, and the various deadlines. The pre- and post-project surveys also needed careful planning. Furthermore, getting students interested and invested, and then checking that they had sent their first emails (to the correct email addresses) and that the content was appropriate for the task all required time and effort on the part of the researchers. The conclusion of the researchers is that the benefits for students of such a project outweigh such challenges, but other teachers and researchers wishing to try a similar project should bear these in mind.

The researchers have identified four main limitations to the current research project. First, due to differing numbers of participants at the different universities, students sometimes knew one of the two other people they were corresponding with (instead of the stated aim of meeting completely new people). Second, due to the explicit instruction to students not to CC professors in emails after the first one of each task, it was unclear to what extent free exchange of emails continued after the initial emails had been sent. Additionally, if students didn't send follow-up emails, it is not clear why they did

not do so. Third, it was not clear whether decreasing email use among students was a result of decreasing L2 email competency or of a wider email and communications trend that is both an L1 and L2 issue, and investigation of this was not included in the research scope. Finally, due to timing issues, a little over 50% of the total number of participants responded to the post-project survey. In future projects, the researchers will address and attempt to rectify these limitations.

Acknowledgments

This project was supported by KAKENHI grant 20K00864.

The researchers would like to thank the participating students at their respective universities for their enthusiasm and motivation to participate in the project.

We would also like to thank Editage (www.editage.com) for English language editing.

References

- Aubrey, S., & Nowlan, A.G.P. (2013). Effect of Intercultural Contact on L2 Motivation: A Comparative Study. In Apple, M.T., Da Silva, D., & Fellner, T. (Eds.) *Language Learning Motivation in Japan (1st ed.)*. Channel View Publications.
<https://www.perlego.com/book/571261/language-learning-motivation-in-japan-pdf>
- Cohen, E. G. (1994). Restructuring the classroom: Conditions for productive small groups. *Review of Educational Research*, 64, 1–35.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/00346543064001001>
- Gaitanidis, I., Kobayashi, S., Nishizumi, K., Wada, K., & Yoshino, A. (2016). Pedagogical approach for collaborative learning focused on Japan: case studies from classes in liberal arts. *International Education*, 9, 1-73.
- Jenkins, J. (2012). English as a Lingua Franca from the classroom to the classroom. *ELT Journal*, 66(4), 486-494.

- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (2009). *Circles of learning: Cooperation in the classroom*. Edina, Minn: Interaction Book Co.
- Kagan, S. (1985). Dimensions of Cooperative Classroom Structures. In R. E. Slavin, S. Sharan, S. Kagan, R. Hertz-Lazarowits, C. Webb, & R. Schmuck (Eds.), *Learning to Cooperate, Cooperative to Learn* (pp. 76–80). New York, NY: Plenum.
- Kirkpatrick, A. (2017). The Languages of Higher Education in East and Southeast Asia: Will EMI Lead to Englishisation? In B. Fenton-Smith et al. (eds.), *English Medium Instruction in Higher Education in Asia-Pacific*. Springer.
- Kishi, M., Bhang, S., Sawamura, E., Song, Y., Kubota, K., & Kwon, S. (2008). Distance Collaborative Learning between Korea and Japan. *International Journal for Education Media and Technology*, 2(1), 65-78.
- Matthews, R. S., Cooper, J. L., Davidson, N., & Hawkes, P. (1995). Building bridges between cooperative and collaborative learning. *Change: The Magazine of Higher Learning*, 27(4), 35–40.
- MEXT. (2014). Top Global University Project (2014-2017). Tokyo: MEXT. Resource document. <https://tgu.mext.go.jp/en/downloads/pdf/sgu.pdf>
- Tsuda, A., & Furnaux, C. (2014). Issues in developing ESP courses for dieticians working in “globalized communities” in Japan. *Current Developments in English for Academic and Specific Purposes, Garnet Education*. Reading, UK: Garnet Education Reading.
- Vygotsky, Lev. (1997). Interaction between Learning and Development. In Gauvain. M, and Cole. M (Eds.), *Mind and Society* (pp. 79–91). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Appendix A: email assignment #1 and accompanying model

Email assignment #1 - Self-introduction email

Instructions

Task: Send a self-introduction email to the other two people in your email group (see separate handout for list of groups and email addresses)

Notes:

Always CC me into email exchanges: XXXXXXXXXXXX@gmail.com

Make sure you spell the email address precisely (otherwise it will not arrive)

Send an email to two other people, even if one of them is in the same class as you

You can send the same email addressed to two people (i.e. you can send it as a group email. You don't have to write two separate emails)

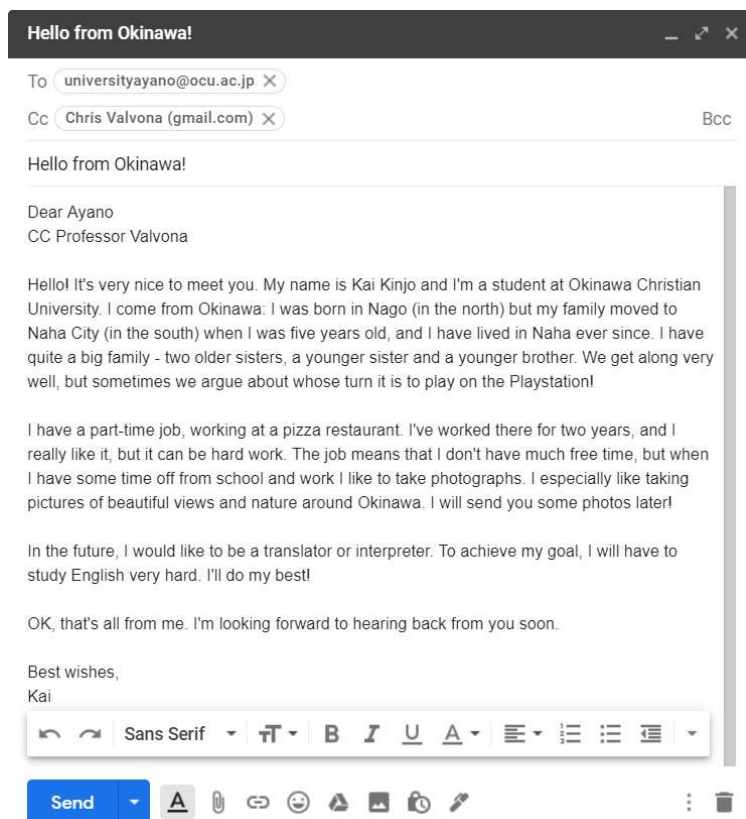
If you are using group emails, always remember to use "reply all"

You can use the example self-introduction below as a model

Only share what you are comfortable sharing

Contact me immediately if you have any difficulties or worries

The deadline to send this first email is Tuesday, December 1st



Personal Factors and Motivation: A Learning Advisor's Experience

Dominique Vola Ambinintsoa

Kanda University of International Studies (KUIS)

Reflection is key to developing learner autonomy in language learning. My role as a learning advisor is to promote reflection to my advisees through different advising strategies and tools. Inspired by my advisees' questions in our advising sessions, I started to practice self-reflection on my own language learning using advising tools. In this practice-oriented paper, I will discuss how I used self-reflection to understand the *personal factors* (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021) related to my language learning, to identify amotivation as the main problem with one of the languages, and to solve the issue of amotivation. I will then suggest some implications for language teaching, mainly highlighting the necessity of promoting learners' self-reflection as a way to find and maintain motivation. Helping them develop self-awareness, identify practical and immediate needs, and identify values in life can result in their realization of the value of the language they are learning.

振り返りは、言語学習において自律学習を育む鍵となる。ラーニングアドバイザーとしての筆者の役割は、様々な方法や手段を通し、アドバイスを求める側の振り返りを促すことである。筆者は、アドバイスを受けた学生からの質問に刺激を受け、アドバイジングツールを自身の言語学習に用いて、振り返りを実践した。この論文では、筆者自身の言語学習においてどのように“個人的要因”(Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021)を理解し、学習言語のうちの1つにおいて問題の核となる無動機に対処するために、どのように振り返りをおこなったのか説明する。また、主に動機の見つけ方とそれを維持する方法として振り返りの必要性を述べ、それが言語教育にどのような示唆を持つのかも論じる。学習者の自己認識の発達や、実践的ですぐに必要とするものを見極め、人生における価値観を明確にすることを手助けすることで、彼らの学習言語の価値認識につながる。

In this paper, I will discuss how I used self-reflection as a tool for developing a deeper understanding of the *personal factors* (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021) that influence my language learning process and for overcoming my amotivation towards my Japanese learning. My main purposes are (1) to share the benefits of self-reflection on language learning, especially on finding and maintaining motivation, based on my own experience and (2) to provide examples of tools that can be used to facilitate self-reflection. Before detailing these two points, I will talk about how I came up with the idea of reflecting on my own language learning. Then, I will discuss briefly what are referred to as personal factors and how they are linked to motivation according to the literature.

Why reflect on my language learning

As a learning advisor (LA), I help learners become more aware of their learning processes, needs, goals, and ways to self-evaluate in order to help them develop their learner autonomy (Carson & Mynard, 2012), or their capacity to take charge of their own learning (Benson, 2011). To raise their awareness, I engage them in *intentional reflective dialogue* or IRD (Kato & Mynard, 2016). IRD consists of intent listening and the use of learning strategies such as restating, repeating, summarizing, empathizing, complimenting, and asking powerful questions (ibid). In addition to advising

strategies, LAs can use advising tools, which are said to further facilitate reflective processes (ibid).

The idea of reflecting on my own language learning came from my role as an LA, which enabled me to understand the uniqueness of each learner's experience with their language learning. The latter involves internal factors such as age, gender, aptitude, personality, style, strategies, autonomy, beliefs, emotion and motivation (Griffiths & Soruç, 2020). These factors, in turn, can be influenced by external factors such as the learning environment, including the geographical location (Benson, 2021), the society and the culture in which the learner belongs (Little, 1999). While the uniqueness of each learner is clear to me, it is not for my advisees. Most of my advisees come to see me, expecting me to directly answer “how-to” questions, such as “How to improve my English”, “How to speak like a native speaker”. Some of them choose me because they know I have learned different languages. They have questions specifically addressed to me, such as “How did you learn the languages you speak”, “How did you get motivated to learn the languages”. Those questions were repeated so many times in my first year as an LA that they prompted me to reflect on my own language learning experiences and on my relationships with each of the three languages I decided to learn (other than my two first languages). As I started to reflect, I realized that for each language, the

levels of motivation to learn were different. That realization reminded me the quote from Gregersen and MacIntyre (2014) below, which I can totally relate as a language learner. That realization encouraged me to go deeper in my self-reflection in order to fully understand the differences I had in terms of motivation.

Languages are learned in order to form relationships, create competencies, adapt to new surroundings and develop as a person. But language learning also can be demotivating because it is difficult, takes a long time and it can be frustrating, anxiety-provoking and boring (p. 109).

As my learning of English and German occurred many years ago, it was impossible for me to write up a whole language learning history, which would be a rich source of data enabling me to analyze my perceptions and beliefs related to the languages I have learned, and to eventually identify the 'seeds' of my agency (Murphey & Carpenter, 2008). However, I was able to recall what Dörnyei and Ushioda (2021) refer to as *personal factors*.

Personal Factors and Motivation

Personal factors related to language learning include goals, interests, needs, desires, and beliefs, which according to Dörnyei and Ushioda (2021), are considered as the main elements of human behavior in motivational psychology. They are directly connected to motivation, which is seen therefore as an individual difference (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021). Motivation accounts for "the choice of a particular action; the persistence with it; the effort expended on it" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 4). The distinction between intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation has been advocated in Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021; Ryan & Deci, 2000, 2017). While intrinsic motivation is triggered by curiosity, a sense of challenge, and pleasure or inherent satisfactions, extrinsic motivation is generated by the desire to achieve a separate outcome, such as having good grades.

The lack of motivation is referred to as amotivation. According to Ryan and Deci (2017), amotivation is the absence of intention to take actions due to a lack of perceived competence or a lack of interest or value. If learners feel they are not competent enough to learn a language because of past failure or a sense of not improving, they may find it hard to keep learning. The feeling of incompetence can also appear at the beginning of the language learning and can influence interest. McLoughlin (2020) puts it, "If something is new and comprehensible, we tend to find it interesting; however, if it is new and incomprehensible, it is merely confusing and potentially infuriating" (p. 66). Without interest, which usually feeds learners' persistence, willingness to learn, and contributes to high achievements (Silvia, 2008), it is difficult to develop and maintain motivation. Therefore, McLoughlin (2020)

suggests finding interest and developing that interest as one way to regulate motivation.

Thus, to understand the presence or the absence of motivation when learning a language, it is necessary to be aware of the personal factors related to the language, and that is what I decided to do. While my first reason to do self-reflection was curiosity triggered by my students' repeated questions, my second reason, which later became the principal one, was to understand why I felt amotivation towards learning Japanese and to eventually solve that issue.

Self-reflection methods

I reflected on the personal factors cited above using brainstorming and concentrating mainly on the times I started to learn them. It is worth pointing out that while the starting times to learn English and German were before my undergraduate years in Madagascar (I learned English in secondary school but just as any school subjects), the starting time for Japanese was just after I moved to Japan.

After the brainstorming, I used advising tools to reflect on my amotivation issue with my Japanese language learning. Kato and Mynard (2016) distinguish three types of advising tools: theoretical tools, practical tools, and cognitive tools. Theoretical tools refer to tools linked to learning strategies. Practical tools, such as weekly plans and learning logs, help learners organize and keep track of their learning. Cognitive tools support learning and cognitive development. They can involve diagnostic tests related to language skills, questionnaires and visual aids related to goals and learning skills such as motivation, confidence, and time management. They are said to be invaluable in self-advising, as it can be difficult to ask a powerful question (which is one of the LAs' strategies to promote deep reflection) to oneself, or to avoid being too self-critical. Due to space limit, I cannot describe each tool. Also, as my choice of what tools to use depended on what I discovered from the brainstorming on my personal factors, I will describe those tools in the section after next.

My personal factors

The brainstorming on the personal factors resulted in specific information, summarized in Table 1, which clearly shows much stronger motivation and more positivity towards English than the other two languages. As my English learning was driven by personal interests, I initiated different actions and made effort to improve each of the language skills. My persistence was intact. I would, for example, exclusively speak English at the language center where I studied (in class, in the library, when hanging out with my classmates). I would read books of different types not only to increase my vocabulary and reading skills, but also because of genuine interest. Though listening was particularly

difficult at first, I persisted in practicing it even during my sleep every single night. It took time to improve from not understanding anything to understanding the gist, and eventually to understanding the content and all the speakers' utterances, but I had always believed that I would succeed. My self-confidence increased as I was able to perceive my improvement from my own performances and from comparisons to peers at the language center. I had both intrinsic motivation (from my interests in and passion for the language) and extrinsic motivation (the desire to have higher scores than the others). The self-confidence, the personality I built from the need for achievement, and my improved language skills enabled me to achieve my ultimate goals related to English.

I decided to learn German mainly because I found the pronunciation fascinating, and it was not a common language to learn in Madagascar. However, my interests in German were not as strong as the ones in English, which is reflected in the number of actions I took. To improve my German, I mainly relied on the materials used and recommended in my courses. Nevertheless, using those materials sufficed to improve my German language skills for four years, and to pass the *Zertifikat Deutsch*, which is an internationally recognized test of German language skills. I also had both intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation for German. I did not reach my ultimate goal, that of winning a trip to Germany (the first prize for the best sixth-year student), because of schedule clash with my university classes.

The relationship with Japanese was different from the relationships with English and German. The biggest difference was the context. It was the first time for me to start learning a language from scratch in the country where it is spoken. I had assumed that would be a great source of motivation, as I would be pushed by the needs and the desires to communicate with the people around and to know more about the culture. However, that was not the case. The context was not sufficient to provide me with the motivation I needed. It is true that I arrived in Japan at the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, which forced me to be isolated. Also, I was at a stage of my life when I was busy learning a new job and finishing my PhD. It is true that "[b]eing at different stages of life leads to different motivations to learn" (Chik, 2018, p. 46). However, these external factors were not the main causes of my issue with learning Japanese. The main cause was amotivation instigated by lack of both interest and a sense of competence.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2021) state that the motivation to learn languages other than English can be stronger, as it is often internally driven by factors such as personal goals, reasons, interests on the one hand, and the desire to connect to the target society and culture on the other hand. For Japanese, I did not have any of those factors. I was not interested in the language, or anything

related to it. Furthermore, Japanese is so different from the languages I had learned that it was impossible for me to see any logics in it. I built a strong belief that I would never be able to learn it. That belief caused a strong resistance accompanied by many excuses, such as the fact that I do not need it in my job or to get around in my immediate surroundings. Secondly, the society I wanted to connect to (colleagues and neighbors) was able to speak English. I came to the conclusion that the only reason for me to learn Japanese was the fact that I live in Japan. For that reason, I had considered learning Japanese as a norm and a rule I imposed to myself. That conclusion even fortified my resistance to learn. However, the believer in language learner autonomy in me felt guilty for not making enough effort and not finding appropriate ways to learn a language. I was the one who language learners turn to when having any issue with their learning; yet I was not able to solve my own problem with my learning. I felt I needed to find solutions involving the regulation of my motivation.

Table 1

Personal factors related to my language learning

At the time I started to learn	English	German	Japanese
Ultimate goals	To have a job involving English or to live in an English-speaking country	To win a trip to Germany	To be able to communicate
Interests	English songs American movies It sounds “cool”! Not spoken by many people I knew	Fascinating pronunciation	Not sure
Desires and needs	To be one of the few people who can speak English in Madagascar To understand all my favorite English songs To speak the language of my favorite singers and athletes To be excellent at all the four language skills and the best in class	To travel to Germany To be one of the very few people who can speak German in Madagascar	To understand and answer to what people say in shops and other places “Since I live in Japan, I should learn Japanese.”
Emotions and beliefs	High self-confidence Enjoyment and satisfaction “Yes, I am good at this!”	Growing self-confidence “I will be able to master this!”	Frustration – amotivation “There is no way I can learn this!”
Actions and effort	Taking courses Reading different books in different genres Using grammar and vocabulary books Listening to the BBC at night Watching BBC news Speaking as often as I could Translating songs Writing a diary	Taking courses Using textbooks and other grammar and vocabulary books	Using Duolingo
Context	Madagascar – Home, language centers	Madagascar - A language center	Japan - Home

Regulating Motivation through Self-reflection

Apart from finding and developing interest, McLoughlin (2020) suggests setting goals and monitoring progress in reaching the goals to regulate motivation. That is a practice I promote to my learners all the time not only to regulate motivation but also to develop learner autonomy. From my own advising experience, I am aware of the importance of having specific goals in the initiation of appropriate actions (see Ambinintsoa, 2020). I believe that goals are “the principal driving force of action” (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2021, p. 83). However, it was difficult to implement that practice to my Japanese learning, as I could not think of specific goals. Thus, I needed to find another way to regulate my motivation, and that way was self-reflection using advising tools (Kato & Mynard, 2016).

Since it was clear that setting goals directly related to learning Japanese was difficult, and that amotivation

was the real problem, I did not choose tools designed to immediately address those issues. Instead, I selected tools that helped me step back from language learning, reflect on a bigger picture, that is, what was important to me in life at that time and in the future, and then, have other perspectives on Japanese learning. Thus, I chose to use *things I want to achieve in life*, *a letter to myself*, and *viewpoint switching sheet* from Kato and Mynard (2016). I allowed myself time to work on each tool, as I know from my LA experience, that a serious issue like amotivation cannot be solved in one advising session.

The tools

Things I want to achieve in life (Figure 1) not only helped me reflect on accomplishments I would like to have in different areas of my life but also encouraged me to think of specific actions I would take to have these accomplishments. Furthermore, having all these areas in one page helped me see the interconnections between the areas, making it much clearer why learning Japanese would be beneficial for me personally.

Figure 1

Things I want to achieve in life

Things I want to achieve in my life

What do you want to accomplish in your life? Think about things you want to achieve in the following areas of your life. Write them down in each box below.

<p>Health</p> <p>e.g.) Eat homemade meals, jog every morning, maintain good results in my annual medical checkup.</p>	<p>Family & partner</p> <p>e.g.) Take my wife and kids to Hawaii for vacation once a year.</p>
<p>Career/Job</p> <p>e.g.) Establish my own company in 5 years.</p>	<p>Relationship</p> <p>e.g.) Contact my old friends, reply to emails before the day is over.</p>
<p>Physical environment: House, apartment, workplace</p> <p>e.g.) Buy a house in Turkey, surrounded by nature and my favorite furniture.</p>	<p>Self-development</p> <p>e.g.) Join a leadership training program, take 5 minutes to think in the target language every day.</p>
<p>Money/Financial status</p> <p>e.g.) Earn money for my children's tuition, save money to take a round-the-world tour after retirement.</p>	<p>Language Learning</p> <p>e.g.) Feel confident in speaking Spanish within a year and be able to travel Spain by myself.</p>
	<p>Other</p>

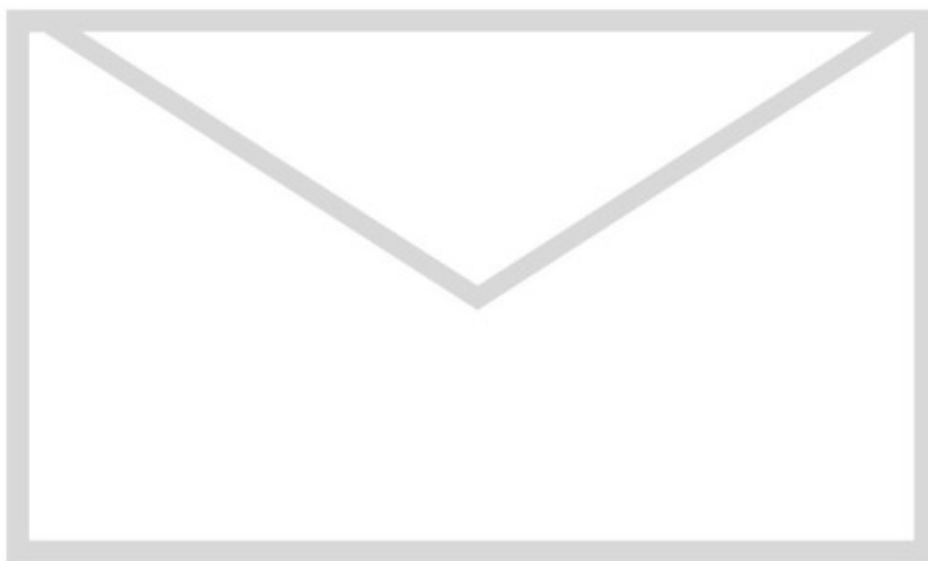
A *letter to myself* was adapted from Kato and Mynard's (2016) *Writing a letter to myself one year from now* (Figure 2). The purpose of the latter is to help learners make the connections between what they are doing and their near future. By writing the letter, they would think

of goals or achievements in some areas of their life, including language learning, one year from the time they write the letter.

Figure 2

Writing a letter to myself

Prepare an envelope and a piece of paper. Write a letter to yourself one year from now, put it in the envelope, and attach it to the space below. Add your signature and write in the date. Open the envelope a year from now.



Signature _____

Date _____

Instead of pressuring myself to find specific goals, I wanted to find a gentler way to motivate myself. I thought about how I would react if my advisee would tell me that setting specific goals is too hard for them or that they have no idea how to motivate themselves. My reaction would be to help them highlight some positive points about themselves, and that is what I decided to do with the *letter to myself*. I wrote down what I thought were my achievements in my life. These include not only academic achievements but anything that I felt happy about, such as places I have been to, activities to maintain well-being, and some personal traits I have. Writing the letter was empowering, as it allowed me to realize that I achieved many things that I had thought impossible and to give myself more credit.

The third tool I used was *viewpoint switching sheet* (Figure 3). As its name indicates, the tool enables learners to have different viewpoints or perspectives on their situation. When using the tool, learners are asked to think about the situation they are in (e.g. issue in language learning, difficulty in making decisions), use their imaginations and select four people (real, fictitious, or even their future selves) having the most influence on them. Then, they imagine what the four people would say or advise on the situation. Like a *letter to myself*, this tool was powerful, as I chose four people who are always understanding and appreciative of my effort, and who know my personality so well that they would know how to convince me without pushing me. Unlike my often overcritical stance towards myself, with demands such as “You must learn Japanese because you live in Japan”, the four people would generally say “It is a

choice, not a must”, “You are capable of doing anything, as you always did, but perhaps it is not the right timing yet”, “Think about when you can speak Japanese, wouldn’t it be great to do everything you want without the help of anybody?”

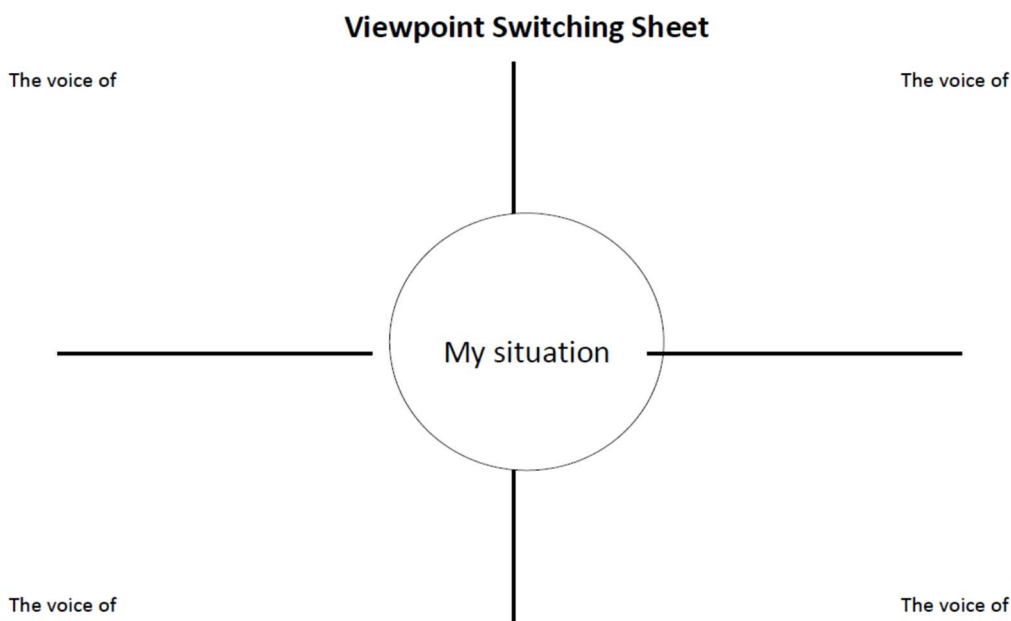
Actions and reactions

The self-reflection with the tools raised my self-awareness and identified a more specific purpose of learning Japanese (beyond “I have to do it”). Though my goals were not clear yet, the main purpose was, which encouraged me to take actions. Examples of those

actions are making a list of vocabulary I wanted to learn, looking for other resources and activities suitable to me, including Japanese learning in my everyday routine, and practicing with people when possible. Additionally, I allowed patience and flexibility in my learning, understanding that learning is a process. Lastly, I acknowledged and celebrated my improvement. I often emphasize these last two points (learning as a process and celebrating improvement) when advising my students, but I could not see their obviousness on my own learning until I practiced self-reflection.

Figure 3
Viewpoint switching sheet

C2



From Kato, S. & Mynard, J. (2015). *Reflective Dialogue. Advising in Language Learning*. New York, NY: Routledge (p. 47).

Implications

This paper showed that the personal factors that are directly related to motivation make the relationship of learners with each language they learn unique and determine their engagement or non-engagement with their learning. That is why succeeding in learning in one language does not necessarily imply success in another one. Also, learners who are not motivated to learn are not necessarily “bad students” or lazy students. The roots of the lack of motivation should be examined. Therefore, it is important to take learners’ personal factors into consideration in language learning. It is necessary to help them develop self-awareness, identify their practical and immediate needs, their values in life, and reflect on their individual language learning histories. To help them, IRD with an LA or a teacher would be the ideal way. However, not all institutions have LAs, and IRD is time-consuming. It would, thus, be indispensable to promote self-reflection through advising tools like the ones presented in this paper. Tools such as vision boards, in which learners can draw or stick pictures representing their values, achievements, desires, and needs can also be used. As Dörnyei & Ushioda (2021), puts it, the creation of an “L2-related vision” can be a prerequisite step towards action-taking in motivational interventions.

As the lack of interest can lead to amotivation, it would be necessary to help learners think about what they find interesting in the language they are learning. Another way is to integrate their existing interests with their language learning. Providing learners with opportunities to share their interests and bring their other identities or selves (e.g., a video game nerd, a j-pop fan, an environmental activist) into their learning is likely to make a difference regarding their motivation (Ambinintsoa et al, forthcoming) and to make their learning more meaningful (Magno e Silva, 2018). Patience and time are requisites for (re)engaging and developing learner interests, but once learners see the connections between their values, their interests, and their language learning, it would be easier for them to set more specific goals and start an action plan. Other ways to help learners reflect on motivation can be found in this website: <https://thesalc.weebly.com/motivation.html>.

Learner autonomy is often defined as a capacity or an ability to take charge of one’s own learning (e.g. Benson, 2011), which implies the necessity for the learner to develop an ability to set goals, monitor, and self-evaluate. It is undeniable that learner autonomy includes ability, but it also entails willingness and readiness, which are terms used in some definitions of learner autonomy (e.g. Dam et al, 1990). It is important to emphasize and investigate willingness and readiness, as they are closely related to interests (Silvia, 2008) and motivation.

References

- Ambinintsoa, D. V. (2020). Using an advising tool to help students go beyond “just learning”, *Relay Journal*, 3(2), 221-228.
- Ambinintsoa, D.V., Rajaonaritiana, H.F., & Rasoanindrina, V. O (2022). Learning beyond the classroom in an EFL Malagasy setting - two learners’ experiences, *Learner Development Journal*, 6.
- Benson, P. (2011). *Teaching and researching autonomy* (Second ed.). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Benson, P. (2021). *Language Learning Environments: Spatial Perspectives on SLA*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Carson, L., & Mynard, J. (2012). Introduction. In J. Mynard & L. Carson (Eds.), *Advising in language learning: Dialogs, tools and context*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Chik, A. (2018). Learning a language for free: Space and autonomy in adult foreign language learning. In G. Murray & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Space, place and autonomy in language learning* (pp. 44-60). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Dam, L., Eriksson, R., Gabrielsen, G., Little, D., Miliander, J. & Trebbi, T. (1990). Group II: *Autonomy—Steps towards a definition*. In T. Trebbi (Ed.), *Report on the third Nordic workshop on developing autonomous learning in the FL classroom* (pp. 96-103). Bergen University Institute for Pedagogic Practice.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2021). *Teaching and researching motivation*, Third edition. New York, NY: Routledge.

- Gregersen, T., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2014). Capitalizing on language learners' individuality. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Griffiths, C., & Soruç, A. (2020). Individual Differences in Language Learning - A Complex Systems Theory Perspective. Cham, Switzerland: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Huang, J. P., & Benson, P. (2013). Autonomy, agency and identity in foreign and second language education. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 36(1), 7-28.
- Kato, S., & Mynard, J. (2016). Reflective dialogue: Advising in language learning. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Little, D. (1999). Learner autonomy is more than a western cultural construct. In S. Cotterall & D. Crabbe (Eds.), *Learner autonomy in language learning: Defining the field and effecting change* (pp. 11-18). Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang GmbH, Internationaler Verlag der Wissenschaften.
- Magno e Silva, W. (2018). Autonomous learning support base: Enhancing autonomy in a TEFL undergraduate program. In G. Murray & T. Lamb (Eds.), *Space, Place and Autonomy in Language Learning* (pp. 219-232). New York, NY: Routledge.
- McLoughlin, D. (2020). Interest development and self-regulation of motivation. In J. Mynard, M. Tamala, & W. Peeters (Eds.), *Supporting learners and educators in developing language learner autonomy* (pp. 63-76). Hong Kong: Candlin & Mynard ePublishing.
- Murphey, T., & Carpenter, C. (2008). The Seeds of Agency in Language Learning Narratives. In P. Kalaja, V. Menezes de Oliveira, & A. Ferreira (Eds.), *Narratives of learning and teaching EFL*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan, 17-34.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2000). Intrinsic and extrinsic motivations: Classic definitions and new directions. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 25(1), 54-67.
- Ryan, R. M., & Deci, E. L. (2017). *Self-determination theory: Basic psychological needs in motivation, development, and wellness*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Silvia, P. J. (2008). Interest—The curious emotion. *Current directions in psychological science*, 17(1), 57-60.

Application of Coaching and Mentoring Strategies to Improve Well Being of Colleagues and Students in Education

Colin Mitchell

Reitaku University

Alessandro Grimaldi

Reitaku University

Satoko Kato

Kanda University of International Studies

Professional evidence-based coaching and mentoring are fields that have grown significantly globally due to its transformational leadership and managerial effectiveness (Bozer, Sarros, & Santora, 2013). This growth led to the JALT Mentoring and Orientation Committee to hold a 'Reflective Dialogue' workshop in PANSIG 2021 which introduced coaching and mentoring techniques to educators in Japan. This article follows on from that workshop and gives a deeper insight into coaching and mentoring. The article focuses on educators acting as both the coach and the coachee. In this situation the coach draws out the information from the coachee, with the coachee being the resource of the discussion (Rogers, 2016). It argues that semi-structured coaching and mentoring techniques, such as the OSCAR model, can be used by educators, in conjunction with reflective dialogue (Kato & Mynayrd, 2016), to develop the professional well-being of their peers. Educators can apply these techniques to both peers and students as either a mentor or a coach to achieve these high levels of effectiveness in reaching individual goals and improving professional wellbeing.

専門的な根拠に基づくコーチングとメンタリングは、その変革的なリーダーシップと経営的な効果により、世界的に大きく成長してきた分野である (Bozer, Sarros, & Santora, 2013)。この成長を受け、JALTメンタリング&オリエンテーション委員会は、PANSIG2021において、日本の教育関係者にコーチングやメンタリングの手法を紹介する「リフレクティブ・ダイアログ」ワークショップを開催した。本稿は、コーチングとメンタリングについてより深く考察するため、同ワークショップの内容を解説。特に、参加者がコーチングをする側とコーチングをされる側の両方を務めることの利点に焦点を当てている。コーチはコーチングの受け手から情報を引き出すことで、その人自身を対話のリソースとする (Rogers, 2016)。OSCARモデルのような半構造化されているコーチングやメンタリングの技法は、内省的対話 (Kato & Mynayrd, 2016) の手法と同様に、教育者同士が自身の職業上のウェルビーイングを促進するために用いることができると論じている。教育者は、メンターまたはコーチとして、仲間同士、そして学生に対してこれらの技法を適用することで、個人の目標達成と職業上のウェルビーイングの向上に高い効果を発揮することが期待される。

Coaching is being used by more organisations as a proactive leadership development tool due to the results of sustainable growth and innovation in employees (CIPD, 2008) At the PANSIG conference in May of 2021, the Mentoring and Orientation committee held an introduction to transformative mentoring and coaching for conference participants using the strategies highlighted in this article. The one-on-one sessions were aimed at facilitating a reflective dialogue between session participants. Specifically, the presentation introduced the structure of asking powerful questions and actively listening to create a safe environment for participants to talk openly about their dilemmas and deepen their awareness of issues they are facing.

These skills were used to generate empathy in our participants and create constructive conversations aimed at facilitating reflection on their learning and development (Lai & McDowall, 2014).

Twenty-one educators participated in the session with eleven taking up an informal mentor/coach role and eleven as the mentee/coachee. A 48-minute video explaining the aims, basic theories, and structure of the session was offered to all participants before the session. Following the sessions, ten mentors/coaches from the session responded to the feedback saying they agreed (4) and strongly agreed (6) that they were able to establish a good relationship with their participants.

Seven of the participants gave qualitative feedback with one stating that "... was an excellent mentor and I appreciate having a knowledgeable and positive listener. I appreciated this experience." and another saying "I loved how I could share anything and that I was given questions that really guided me through organizing my thoughts and aspirations." Overall, the experience was a very positive introduction to coaching and mentoring techniques.

The following paragraphs detail the strategies utilized in the session, provide evidence for their efficacy, and propose what steps can be taken in the future to improve sessions for use as a professional development tool to improve the well-being of educators. The committee believes that terms such as mentoring and coaching require very specific backgrounds and experience which all educators may not have. To reach out to a wider demographic of educators, coaching and mentoring has been broken down into four coaching mechanisms, OSCAR model, and eight basic strategies which can be used in a variety of educational situations.

Well-being and reflective dialogue through coaching and mentoring

Well-being is considered more than simply experiencing happiness; well-being means developing as a person, being fulfilled, and contributing to the community (Ryan & Deci, 2017). Well-being is a multidimensional construct that includes self-acceptance, positive relationships, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and personal growth (Seligman, 2011). Recently, more attention has been paid to teachers' psychology and well-being. Mercer et al. (2016) state that successful language learning largely depends on teachers, which means that caring for their professional well-being is a priority; therefore, teacher education programmes need to pay more attention to supporting teachers by addressing their stress, emotions, motivation and professional well-being rather than primarily focusing on instructional strategies and pedagogical skills.

Coaching and mentoring facilitate establishing high-quality relationships and supports one another's needs by deepening reflection through dialogue. Dialogue with other people offers possibilities to restructure one's established assumptions and beliefs, which can lead one to develop further, and also it establishes strong relationships between the listener and storyteller (Brockbank & McGill, 2006). The dialogue which is structured intentionally to facilitate reflection is called 'reflective dialogue' which is also used in mentoring, coaching, and other related areas (Kato & Mynayrd, 2016).

Background of Coaching

Coaching is outcome-focused and promotes self-directed development through collaborative goal setting and action planning (Grant, 2006). Coaching is not "therapy lite" (Rogers, 2016) and is not intended for clients who are seeking help for mental illness (Aboujaoude, 2020). Therefore, coaching is a proactive development tool aimed at sustainable growth and innovation. Self-reflection and a focus on future planning in coaching allows individuals to recognize their emotions and develop the thought processes to achieve their goals.

The psychology behind what makes coaching effective concerns the systematic application of behavioral science (Grant, 2011). There is a multitude of bodies of knowledge surrounding coaching psychology including self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985), positive psychology (Peterson, 2006), appreciative inquiry (Cooperrider & Whitney, 2005), nonviolent communication (Rosenberg, 2005), motivational interviewing (Miller & Rollnick, 2012), emotional intelligence (Goleman, 1996), design thinking (Brown, 2009), flow theory (Csikszentmihalyi, 1990) social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001), and adult and constructive development (Kegan & Lahey, 2009). Deci and Ryan (1985) note that self-determination and competence are necessary to increase motivation. These results have been consistent over age, socioeconomic status, and culture (Ryan, 2013). Thus, coaching hopes to foster factors such as self-determination within individuals so that they can self-navigate the issues they want to work on.

There are two major roles in a coaching session, the coachee and the coach. The partnership between the coach and coachee is one in which the coach believes the coachee is the expert of his or her life and work (Rogers, 2016). In other words, nobody can truly understand the coachee's unique situation better than the coachee themselves. Coaches actively listen to their coachees and use powerful questions to encourage self-discovery and accountability. Throughout this relationship, it is important for both coach and coachee to be able to recognize the boundaries of the process.

Coaching regulation and the coaching process

Although formal coaching is not yet fully regulated, the regulatory environment for psychology within organizations like the American Psychological Association (APA) and British Psychological Society (BPS) has had a useful impact on developing the coaching profession (Whybrow & Palmer, 2018). Currently, organizations such as the Association for Coaching (AC), the European Mentoring and Coaching Council (EMCC), and the International Coaching Federation (ICF) offer certification programs for becoming a coach. However, coaching techniques can

be applied to a variety of situations informally to develop colleagues and learners.

Coaching conversations ideally provide the space and process necessary for coachees to consider negative stimuli and bring these issues outside of the “heat of the moment” when emotional areas of the brain such as the amygdala can cloud rational judgement. For instance, Patricia Riddell (2018), a psychologist and professor of applied neuroscience at the University of Reading, provides the following example:

Consider the increase in activity in the amygdala of a coachee who has a particularly negative reaction to a particular person in their work-place. This increased arousal might be sufficient to interfere with their ability to perform their job well. However, neuroscience also shows that the level of activation of the amygdala is reduced when the threat is reevaluated and that this involves increased activation of the ventromedial prefrontal cortex. (p. 52)

By guiding the individual to reflect on their own personal situation during coaching sessions, the more rational areas of the brain are activated such as areas of the prefrontal cortex in response to those emotions, allowing for greater self-regulation when these situations inevitably arise again (Modonis, 2010, Murakami, 2015). The positive effects of this are far-reaching when one considers issues colleagues have in education settings, such as self-efficacy in the workplace or leadership responsibilities.

For coaching to be successful the coachee should be open and willing to share. It is important for the coachee to be in sound mental health (Bluckert, 2005), resourceful (Berg & Szabo, 2005), and motivated to find a solution (Hudson, 1999). Through collaborative, individualized, solution-focused coaching sessions the client can develop personal and professional aspects of their lives. Although coachees come to coaching for their own unique individual reasons, there are five commonly cited reasons coachees work with coaches.

1. Long term change.
2. Improve wellbeing.
3. Make decisions.
4. Gain confidence.
5. Make progress.

(Moore, Jackson & Tschannen-Moran, 2016).

The role of a coach is a facilitator of change (Moore, Jackson & Tschannen-Moran, 2016). Coaches should not direct coachees to their goals but rather engage the coachee in insightful open-ended non-judgmental questions. Coaches reflect what they hear back to the coachee which invokes the catalyst for change. The dialogue between the coach and the coachee has a

purpose and therefore should follow a structure. Four coaching mechanisms of action may be used by coaches to enable sustained change. These four mechanisms can be worked into the OSCAR model to allow a natural flow to the coaching session.

Four coaching mechanisms

The first mechanism is growth-promoting relationships which draw on humanistic psychology (Stober, 2006). Current biological explanations for how coaching involves taking advantage of brain neuroplasticity and making new neurological connections (Hammaerness & Moore, 2012), although further research is needed in this area. By actively listening to the coachee and having a mindful presence, coaches can help a coachee to focus attention on their personal goals.

The second mechanism is to elicit self-motivation which focuses on autonomous motivation. Coaching aims to increase autonomous motivation where the coachee has sustainable motivation, or flow, and does not need to rely on the coach anymore (Deci & Ryan, 2002). Coaches want to avoid external motivation, which is when someone does something because they were told to do it. External motivation may work; however, this is only short term and not sustainable. To build autonomous motivation, the coachee needs to realize their ideal outcome and generate what they can do to reach their goal.

The third mechanism is to build confidence. Research shows that people become more successful when they reach into their own values, talents and strengths (Niemiec et al., 2013). Cohen et al. (2009) has observed that positive emotion helps us become more creative, open-minded, and resilient to setbacks. Coaches can focus on positive emotions to improve the coachees' confidence and self-determination.

The final mechanism is the process of change. Behavioral goal setting, such as SMART (specific, measurable, actionable, realistic, time-bound), can be used to track the coachees' goal targets. It is crucial that the coachee determines their accountability as this can be very personalized (More, Jackson, & Tschannen-Moran, 2016). By successfully applying these four mechanisms in a structured manner during a coaching session a relational flow can be made which allows the coachee to shift their perspective and develop new ideas.

The OSCAR model

These four coaching mechanisms can be implemented through a simplified framework. The OSCAR model (Outcome, Situation, Choices/Consequences, Actions, Review) suits an education focus as the 'Actions' and 'Review' parts allow for explicit accountability (Rodgers, 2016). Table 1 shows the structure of the model with some sample questions adjacent.

The OSCAR model is a framework for coaching conversations and thus it has a structured format while remaining flexible and easy to manage the flow of a coaching session. The model is split into five sections. 'Outcome' starts the session by clarifying what the coachee wants to achieve from the session. 'Situation' is to get a clear idea of where the coachee is right now. It is important to note that, questions in this section are to raise the coachees' awareness of their own situation. 'Choices' is where coaches probe the coachee to

discover what alternative courses of action are available. 'Consequences' should focus on positive and negative outcomes of the choices brought up by the coaching session, including time, practicality, cost, and values. 'Actions' is where the coach reviews the choices generated by the coachee and works with them to make an action plan. Finally, the 'Review' stage holds the coachee to be accountable for themselves.

Table 1

Oscar Model Structure with Example Questions

Section name	Sample questions
Outcome	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · What would you like to work on today? · What is your ideal outcome from today's session?
Situation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · What is your current situation? · What is currently happening?
Choices / Consequences	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · What options are available to you? · What sacrifices would you have to make? · Which option has the best benefit?
Actions	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · What will you do next? · When will you do it? · What will you do to make sure you take these actions? · On a scale of 1 to 10, how likely is it that you will take that action?
Review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> · How did the session go today? · How do you feel about your outcome?

Background of mentoring

Coaching and mentoring have very similar features. Mentoring has been defined as a relationship between a more experienced mentor and a less experienced mentee to develop the mentee's career (Kram, 1985), compared to coaching in which a coach does not need specific expertise in the field of the coachee. Mentoring basically has two main functions, which are career support and psychosocial support. In general, career support involves knowledge and skills transfer from mentors to mentees (Ragins & Kram, 2007), and psychosocial support focuses on counselling, modelling, and enhancing a sense of competence to develop personal growth, identity, and self-efficacy (Brockbank & McGill, 2006). Thus, it is said that successful mentoring enhances the sense of self and professional identity. The trend of modern mentoring focuses towards a more relational perspective from a one-directional, hierarchical structure (Ragins & Verbos, 2007). A notion of relational mentoring was established that distinguishes mentoring in high-quality relationships with average or marginal forms of mentoring (Ragins & Verbos, 2007). A high-quality mentoring relationship encourages mutual learning, growth, and development and is based on strong and genuine connections and interactions between the mentor and mentee. The relationship is based on trust, commitment, and mutual respect, which goes beyond the basic career and psychosocial support that is defined by Kram (1985) in the early stage.

The Mentoring & Orientation committee focused on relational mentoring, which is characterized by mutual learning, where both participants influence one another. Rather than the hierarchical position that traditional mentoring relationships follow, these relationships pursue the mutuality and reciprocity that are inherent in growth-producing relationships. Being authentic, adaptive, empathetic, interdependent, and vulnerable in the relationship are the prerequisites for establishing such high-quality relationships (Fletcher & Ragins, 2007).

Reflective dialogue at PANSIG 2021

At PANSIG 2021, eight basic reflective dialogue strategies were introduced to educators. These strategies are based on mentoring and coaching strategies and include repeating, restating, summarizing, emphasizing, complementing, metaphors, powerful questions, and accountability.

The first point is repeating, and this strategy demonstrates that you are listening to the person. Essentially, you repeat key phrases to bring awareness to what is being said. An example of this type of strategy would be:

Coachee: *I am having a difficult time recently*

Coach: *Tell me more about this difficult time you are having.*

The second point is restating which reformulates key phrases uttered by the coachee. It can also demonstrate active listening, but also can add a different perspective to what is being said. This strategy can be used to take a negative viewpoint and turn it into a positive one such as in the example below:

Coachee: *I am too lazy to do anything productive*

Coach: *It sounds like you know yourself well and you want to be more productive*

The third point is summarizing which can be used to keep the conversation on track. It can be easy for the coachee to go off on a tangent and move away from the 'Outcome' phase. Coaches can bring the conversation back on track to the OSCAR model by summarizing the main points relevant to the goals of the coachee.

The fourth point is emphasizing which establishes a mutual understanding between the two parties. A trusting relationship is essential to build a connection and let the coachee open up. As the coachee opens up, the further you can guide them to the outcome they desire. An example of emphasizing might be the following:

Coachee: *I have an important deadline next week. I am struggling to find the time.*

Coach: *I can tell how much this work means to you. It must be very stressful for you.*

The fifth point is complimenting which is a technique to identify an interest or motivational point for the coachee. It is used to encourage the coachee to maintain a positive outlook for reaching their outcome. The technique also aids in helping the coachee feel valued. Some examples of complimenting are:

Coach: *It sounds like you know what you want. That is a good position to be in.*

Coach: *Not many people could do what you do. You have achieved a lot and that is something you can be proud of.*

The sixth point is using metaphors to visualize thoughts and feelings being expressed. Metaphors can bring better understanding, especially during the 'situation' section of the OSCAR model. An example of using a metaphor to visualize the timeline for a difficult project might be:

Coach: *If the project were like climbing a mountain, where are you at now? What can you see from there?*

The seventh point is asking powerful questions to stimulate the reflective process. These questions are related to the core values of the coachee. There may not be an immediate response to the question as

reflection takes time. These silent moments are part of the reflection process and should be welcomed. Examples of powerful questions through the OSCAR model are given in table 1.

The final point is accountability is part of the Actions and Review part of the OSCAR model. It is important that the coachee decides the plans and how they can measure their performance. By encouraging the coachee to make realistic concrete plans, they can start moving towards their outcome.

Example of usage

When conducting formal sessions, getting one of the aforementioned accreditations is highly recommended. However, the four coaching mechanisms, OSCAR model, and eight basic strategies can be adapted to a variety of situations and serve as strategies for educational professional development as well as improving student learning outcomes.

For educators, coaching and mentoring strategies can be applied to help students or colleagues overcome difficulties in their learning and development. For instance, in a research project by Belnap et al. (2016) called Project Perseverance, formal coaching sessions were used to help Arabic language learners studying abroad in Jordan. According to the authors, these discussions specifically aimed to address the progress they had made and help them realize what is and is not effective in their learning within a positive and encouraging environment. Out of the eight interventions used in the study to promote self-regulation, students commented after the conclusion of the program that the coaching sessions with faculty and teaching assistants were one of the most effective methods for maintaining their confidence (just behind structured encouragement from language teachers).

Likewise, the effectiveness of coaching can be applied educator to educator as well to facilitate professional development. Desimone & Pak (2016) highlight effective use of Instructional Coaching over the past decades to improve lesson planning, instruction, classroom behavior management, and help learners reach instructional goals. From their review of Instructional Coaching research, they report that the most important factors in teacher professional development are creating environments where teachers are active in their own learning, maintain consistent contact hours with their coach, collectively participate in sessions, possess coherent direction in their sessions, and focus on the content the teachers are teaching. Although no two educator development programs that involve coaching may be exactly the same, coaching conversations between colleagues or educational leaders should focus on “empowering teachers” (Stark, 2016) by acknowledging the strengths they possess and build upon them.

Conclusion

Although formal mentoring and coaching may require training practice, this article notes the positive effects the methods derived from educators applying basic coaching/mentoring strategies. In either an educator-learner or educator-educator development context, utilization of coaching and mentoring methods promotes improved well-being through the understanding of the mechanisms (growth, motivation, confidence, change) and practice of the strategies (OSCAR Model, reflective-dialogue) as discussed above. Moving forward, formal research is needed to account for the effectiveness of such a program in areas such as professional well-being, satisfaction, and resilience, which have been associated with formal coaching interventions (Burt & Talati, 2017; Jones, Woods, & Guillaume, 2016). This will help organizations such as JALT and other professional organizations that are looking for research-backed development interventions better serve their members.

References

- Aboujaoude, E. (2020). *Where life coaching ends and therapy begins: Toward a less confusing treatment landscape*. *Perspectives on Psychological Science*, 15(4), 973-977.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691620904962>
- Bandura, A. (2001). *Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective*. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 52, 1-26.
<https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev.psych.52.1.1>
- Berg, I.K. & Szabo, P. (2005). *Brief coaching for lasting solutions*. New York: W.W. Norton
- Belnap, R. K., Bown, J., Dewey, D. P., Linnea., B. P., and Steffen, P. R. (2016). *Project Perseverance: Helping students become self-regulating learners*. In P.D. MacIntyre, T. Gregerson; S. Mercer (Eds.), *Positive Psychology in SLA* (pp.282-301). *Multilingual Matters*.
<https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783095360-013>
- Bluckert, P. (2005). *The similarities and differences between coaching and therapy*. *Industrial & Commercial Training*, 37(2), 91-96.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/00197850510584241>

- Bozer, G., Sarros, J. C. and Santora, J. C. (2013). *The role of coachee characteristics in executive coaching for effective sustainability*. Journal of Management Development, 32 (3) pp. 277 - 294.
<https://doi.org/10.1108/02621711311318319>
- Brockbank, A. and McGill, I. (2006) Facilitating Reflective Learning through Mentoring and Coaching. London, UK: Kogan Page.
- Brown, T. (2009). Change by design: How design thinking transforms organisations and inspires innovation. New York: Harper Business.
- Cooperrider, D., & Whitney, D. (2005). Appreciative inquiry: A positive revolution in change. San Francisco: Berret-Koehler.
- CIPD (2008), Learning and Development: Annual Survey Report 2008. Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development, London.
- Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). Flow. New York: Harper & Row.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (2002). Handbook of self-determination research. New York: University of Rochester Press.
- Deci, E. L., & Ryan, R. M. (1985). Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior. New York: Plenum Press.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4899-2271-7>
- Fletcher, J.K. and Ragins, B.R. (2007) Stone center relational cultural theory: A window on relational mentoring. In B.R. Ragins and K.E. Kram (eds) The Handbook of Mentoring at Work: Theory, Research and Practice (pp. 373-399). Thousand Oaks: Sage.
<https://doi.org/10.4135/9781412976619.n15>
- Hudson, F.M. (1999). The Handbook of Coaching. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Goleman, D. (1996). Emotional Intelligence. New York: Bantam.
- Grant, A. M. (2006). *A personal perspective on professional coaching and the development of coaching psychology*. International Coaching Psychology Review, 1(1), 12-20.
- Kato, S. and Mynard, J. (2016) Reflective Dialogue: Advising in Language Learning. New York, NY: Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315739649>
- Kegan, R. & Lahey, L. (2009). Immunity to change: How to overcome it and unlock the potential in yourself and your organization. Boston, MA: Harvard Business Review Press.
- Kraft, M. A., Blazar, D., & Hogan, D. (2018). *The effect of teacher coaching on instruction and achievement: A meta-analysis of the causal evidence*. Review of educational research, 88(4), 547-588.
<https://doi.org/10.3102/0034654318759268>
- Kram, K.E. (1985). Mentoring at Work: Developmental Relationships in Organizational Life. Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman and Company.
- Mercer, S., Oberdorfer, P. and Saleem, M. (2016) *Helping language teachers to thrive: Using positive psychology to promote teachers' professional well-being*. In D. Gabryś-Barker and D. Gałajda (eds), Positive Psychology Perspectives on Foreign Language Learning and Teaching (pp. 213-229). Cham, Switzerland: Springer.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-32954-3_12

- Miller, W.R., & Rollnick, S. (2012). *Motivational interviewing: Helping people change*. New York: Guilford Press.
- Moore, M., Jackson, E., & Tschannen-Moran, B. (2016). *Coaching Psychology Manual* (2nd ed.). Wolters Kluwer.
- Niemic, R. M., Rashid, T., Linkins, M., Green, S., & Mayerson, N. H. (2013). *Character strengths in practice*. IPPA, Newsletter, 5(4).
- Palmer, S., and Whybrow, A. (2018) Past, present and future. In: Palmer, S. and Whybrow, A. (eds.) *Handbook of Coaching Psychology: A Guide for Practitioners*. Routledge, Abingdon, Oxford, pp. 10-27. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315820217>
- Peterson, C. (2006). *A primer in positive psychology*. New York: Oxford Press.
- Ragins, B.R. and Verbos, A.K. (2007) *Positive relationships in action: Relational mentoring and mentoring schemas in the workplace*. In J. Dutton, and BR Ragins (eds) *Exploring Positive Relationships at Work: Building a Theoretical and Research Foundation* (pp. 91-116). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315094199-7>
- Riddell, P. (2018) *Coaching and neuroscience*. In: Palmer, S. and Whybrow, A. (eds.) *Handbook of Coaching Psychology: A Guide for Practitioners*. Routledge, Abingdon, Oxford, pp. 14-24. ISBN 9781138775312 <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315820217-3>
- Rosenberg, M. (2005). *Nonviolent Communication: A language of life*. Encinitas, CA: Puddle Dancer.
- Ryan, R. (2013). *On motivating oneself and others: Research and interventions using self-determination theory*. Paper presented at Coaching in Leadership and Healthcare Conference 2013, Harvard/Mclean Medical School, Cambridge, MA.
- Ryan, R.M. and Deci, E.L. (2017) *Self-determination Theory: Basic Psychological Needs in Motivation Development and Wellness*. New York, NY: Guilford Press. <https://doi.org/10.1521/978.14625/28806>
- Rogers, J. (2016). *Coaching skills: The definitive guide to being a coach* (4th ed.). Open University Press.
- Seligman M.E.P. (2011) *Flourish*. New York, NY: Free Press.
- Stark, M. D., McGhee, M. W., & Jimerson, J. B. (2017). *Reclaiming instructional supervision: Using solution-focused strategies to promote teacher development*. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education*, 12(3), 215-238. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1942775116684895>
- Van Gyn, G.H. (1996) *Reflective practice: The needs of professions and the promise of cooperative education*, *The Journal of Cooperative Education* 31 (Winter/Spring), 103-131.

Adapting Higher Education Language Courses to Achieve Learner Goals amidst the Coronavirus Pandemic

Jonathan Buck

Toyo University

buck@toyo.jp

Ken Ohashi

Toyo University

ohashi088@toyo.jp

As the COVID-19 pandemic continues worldwide, higher education institutions are needing to adapt courses to accommodate policies including social distancing and online learning. Since 2020 most university instructors have experienced policies such as these, coping with it as emergency response teaching (ERT). There is a need to rethink course design in order to maximize learning goals and student performance whether society's situation is normal or coping with public health issues. This manuscript will examine how course design needs to be flexible so learners can achieve goals through different mediums for instance in person, online, on demand, HyFlex, etc. Firstly, it will focus on Learner Management Systems (LMS) and how they can consolidate courses so they can be accessed easily across all mediums. Then, it will explain how online storage tools give learners the ability to access and submit work. After that it will look at various study tools and their benefits and examples of their implementation. Finally, it will briefly review fundamental pedagogical approaches and their connection to this context.

2020年度、高等教育に携わる多くの教員は緊急事態対応としてオンライン環境での学習指導に最善を尽くした。現在もオンライン授業が継続され、教室に戻れてもウィルスの感染拡大を防ぐために相手と適切な距離を置く等コロナ禍以前とは状況が違っている。これからは新たな公衆衛生問題が発生しても平常時と同様の学習目標を確実に達成できるようカリキュラム構成を再考する必要がある。授業を教室で行うだけではなくインターネットでのライブ配信、授業録画のオンデマンド配信、HyFlex等多くのプラットフォーム上で学習目標を効果的に達成するのに必要なカリキュラムの柔軟性について検証する。学習管理システム(LSM)の有用性、クラウドの活用事例、その他学習システムの活用について紹介する。また理論と共にコロナ禍に対応したカリキュラムの事例を紹介する。

The Effect of the COVID-19 Pandemic on Universities in Japan

The COVID-19 pandemic, which began in 2020, caused a major upheaval in education and learning practices. Classes were hastily cancelled or moved online. Curricula and grading standards shifted. Students and teachers took crash courses in *Information and Communication Technology* (ICT). Obviously, this disturbance created several negative impacts such as students missing classes (Hobbs & Hawkins, 2020) and lacking appropriate technology to participate in class (Russell, 2020); instructors teaching rudimentary classes online (Arum & Stevens, 2020), lack of interaction (Arora & Srinivasan, 2020) and thus, both

students and teachers experienced what was a new phenomenon for most of them - *distance learning*.

Classes & Issues

At the start of the delayed Japanese spring 2020 university semester, two-thirds of university classes were expected to be held online (Suzuki & Ikeda, 2020). Classes which were previously held face-to-face moved online through an online communication platform (e.g. Zoom, Webex, Skype). The transition for lectures seemed linear. Instead of teacher-led presentations in auditoriums, the lectures would be pre-recorded or presented live with power points allowing students to participate at their own leisure. However, issues arose during more interactive classes such as seminars or

skills-based ones (i.e., language classes) where students who previously would have worked together in collaborative groups or pairs were suddenly expected to achieve the same goals online. Nae (2020) suggested that Japanese universities are far behind other Asian countries in regards to ICT training and education. Many students did not have the technology or the skills to fully participate in classes. Students often attended classes using smartphones with limited functionality. University wi-fi was overwhelmed by students simultaneously doing online classes. *Learner management systems* (LMS) became more heavily relied upon to process grades, coursework, testing and attendance. Furthermore, these issues were compounded by the fact that, as the pandemic wore on, the medium of instruction of classes started shifting week by week.

In Japan (Kanto in particular), universities followed the recommendations of the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) and the local government. From Fall 2020, university classes began to revert back to traditional face-to-face classes as positive cases declined. However as second and third COVID infection waves occurred, classes again moved back online as states of emergency were introduced. The result was an approach to learning that was in flux where courses were designed with skeleton structure in case of unexpected change. Lecturers often found themselves using LMS's which they were not competent at using. Moreover, they were unable to successfully instruct students on how to use them (Junas et al., 2021). Along with this, a less familiar approach to teaching was introduced - *HyFlex teaching* (HT). HT describes classes which are held both face-to-face and online simultaneously (Kohnke & Moorhouse, 2021). During the pandemic this was often implemented due to students quarantining or to maintain social distancing measures. The authors of this paper experienced such issues and were urged to consider how an educator can design courses in an unstable environment due to forces such as social health hazards and how programs in higher education can continue to achieve pre-pandemic learning goals.

Our Institution The institution in this report is a large university located in Kanto. It has four campuses with a broad range of disciplines offered including humanities, social sciences and education where methods of instruction range from lectures to seminars to lab-work. In the Spring semester of 2020, all classes were moved online (other than some laboratory classes) then in the Fall semester classes for majors were moved to a flexible approach of face-to-face, HT, and online format. All extra-curricular and cross-departmental classes remained online. The class presented in this paper is one of them. The classes are outlined in further detail in the case study section.

The Pandemic and Post-Pandemic Classroom

Due to the effects of the COVID-19 pandemic the conditions of the higher education language courses in Japan have shifted and, as such, a re-examination of course design is needed. As a result of reflection on their experience of education during the COVID-19 pandemic, the authors hope to provide an outline for curriculum design during the pandemic and post-pandemic classroom, focusing on how online tools can provide flexibility for a wide-range of teaching approaches and evaluate the ability of the course to meet pre-pandemic course objectives.

Tools for Online Teaching

The following online tools are categorised into groups with a brief explanation.

- a. **Learner Management Systems (LMS)** These are online systems (usually accessed through a website) which are used for the administration of education. They range in sophistication but usually store materials, grades and quizzes. (E.g. *Schoology, Canvas, Google Classroom, Blackboard, Manaba*)
- b. **Online chat and messaging (OCM)** are non-verbal digital communication such as email messaging. (E.g. *Gmail, Whatsapp, Line*)
- c. **Video conferencing (VC)** tools facilitate real-time video meetings for groups of people. In the case of HE, this would be the main tool for broadcasting live classes. (E.g. *Zoom, Skype, Webex*)
- d. **Content makers (CM)** This refers to a wide range of tools used to create materials for online classes. This can range from quizzes to learning activities to presentations. (E.g. *Quizlet, Adobe Spark, Padlet*)
- d. **Assessment (AS)** are tools which are solely dedicated to assessment. These can be tools which are often found with LMS. (E.g. *SpeedGrader* - a tool to allow efficient, sophisticated grading work.) It can also refer to stand-alone grading tools (E.g. *Crowdmark* - a tool to create rubrics and grading systems for digital work)
- f. **Video streaming and sharing (VS)** allow streaming of video content or sharing. (E.g. *Twitch, YouTube*)
- g. **Online course providers (OC)** These are fully realised online courses. In the case of HE, they are sometimes used to supplement courses where necessary.

Innovative Online Curriculum Design

Martin et al. (2019) extensively researched what constituted excellent online curriculum design. They interviewed eight award-winning faculty members based in the United States about what constituted excellent online courses, and they focused on four sections: Design, Assessment, Facilitation, and Evaluation. A summary of common features of such online courses are outlined below.

Design

- a. *Be Systematic* - Be clear in how you will design your course from start to finish. What do you expect your learners to know at the start and end of the course? Can you show what they have learned?
- b. *Backwards Design* - Start with activities and finish with technologies
- c. *Course Architecture* - The course structure should be designed meaningfully and easy to navigate for students.
- d. *Learner Needs* - Evaluate your learners needs.
- e. *Learner Interaction* - Design activities that maximise your learners' interaction with each other.

Assessment

- a. *Use a variety of course assessment* - This should range from traditional (e.g. essays) to online only work (e.g. discussion forums).
- b. *Use rubrics* - This is a simple way of assessing progress for the learner and the teacher.

Facilitation

- a. *Timely Responses and Feedback* - Check in with the learners regularly and consistently.
- b. *Regular Interaction*
- c. *Timely Grading*

Evaluation

- a. *Continued Quality Assurance* - Encourage peers and colleagues to critique course design.
- b. *Peer Feedback* - Learners judge their own performance with a rubric
- c. *Learner Feedback* - Learners give feedback on the course through informal feedback and questionnaires.

Case Study

In this section, the authors will introduce how the conceptual framework Martin et al (2019) presented was applied to assure learning goals were achieved under ERT conditions due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

After describing the context of the course, what was conducted before, during, and after the spring semester of academic school year 2020 by the team of teachers teaching in this program will be explored.

Context

The course described hereafter is a high-intermediate reading and writing course with an emphasis to improve

student performance in the English language proficiency test - IELTS. It is one of the four main courses in a program provided by the department of International Communication at the university. The course has three objectives. One, have students achieve an IELTS band score of 5.0. Two, improve understanding of the structure of English text. And three, encourage students to increase their language learning capabilities outside the classroom. These course objectives feed into the three program objectives; improve students IELTS scores, improve academic English skills, and boost learner autonomy.

The course is part of a four-course program that includes a lower-intermediate reading and writing course as well as two listening and speaking courses that are level matched with their counterparts. The courses are taught twice a week over a 15-week period for a total of 30 lessons. A basic lesson plan and accompanying teaching materials are shared between teachers for all four courses. Seven full time teachers and one manager are involved in teaching each of the courses as well as the overall program design, course designs, lesson planning, teaching material development, and management of digital files and LMS.

The 2020 spring semester was scheduled to be the first semester teaching a new curriculum due to a periodic curriculum revision cycle. Preparation for the new curriculum had been taking place since the start of the 2019 academic year.

What was done before the 2020 Spring Semester

The aforementioned program curriculum revision was conducted before the outbreak of COVID-19 so it was designed to be taught in a classroom. When schools were temporarily closed by the Japanese government in February 2020 (Nae, 2020), the teachers of the program were tasked to consider how the new curriculum could be taught effectively over VC. The course design, available ICT, and teacher familiarity of the available ICT was examined.

The teachers were confident that the new course was designed to meet the course objectives as well as the program objectives since a backward design (Martin et al, 2019) was implemented from before the outbreak of COVID-19. The teachers also believed that students would find consistency throughout the semester since the course was systematically organized by weeks (Martin et al, 2019). The teachers felt the challenge for teaching online would be how to facilitate (Martin et al, 2019) as well as assess student performance during the semester. To consider these points, a decision on what to use as VC, what to use as an LMS, and how teachers would share files with each other was needed.

The teachers were requested to use Webex as the VC since the university had an existing agreement with Cisco from before the pandemic. The seven teachers

met online using Webex a few times in February to understand the system to the point all the teachers felt confident that they could conduct classes with some degree of confidence. Webex seemed like a good system providing teachers with access to multiple whiteboards, a chat system, polling system and action icons such as raising a hand.

A decision to use Google Classroom as the LMS for the course was made by the teachers. The university had two LMSs available to teachers and students. One was from Manaba and the other was Google Classroom. The teachers had different levels of familiarity with both systems. Each teacher tested the teacher user experience of both LMSs and exchanged thoughts on which seemed easier to use. Google Classroom was chosen over Manaba for two reasons. One, Google Classroom's user interface felt more intuitive, therefore easier to understand and possibly easier to explain to students if teachers were asked how to use it. And two, it worked extremely well with Google Drive and other Google Applications. Google Drive made it easy to share digital files between teachers which was very important since the seven teachers taught a unified curriculum.

Once the VC and LMS were decided, teaching material that was originally intended to be used in a classroom setting as hard copies were modified for digital distribution. During this process some classroom intended activities were converted into homework assignments so more lesson time could be used for discussion-based activities to enhance on the assignment (Kohnke & Moorhouse, 2021). Paper based in-class quizzes such as vocabulary quizzes were converted into auto-marking (Martin et al, 2019) Google Forms. Rubrics (Martin et al, 2019) were created so they could be used in Google Classroom to mark writing assignments. A template classroom was created with all the teachers as a teacher. All necessary assignments were made ready for every teacher to use in their own class. The digital files were shared through this template class and the accompanying classroom folder on Google Drive.

The program manager arranged for two certified Google trainers to lead an FD for the teachers. The purpose of this FD was to resolve issues that the teachers encountered while experimenting with Google Classroom and other Google applications to raise the teachers' readiness levels for teaching online (Junus et al, 2021).

What was done during The 2020 Spring Semester

Facilitation was especially important during the spring semester. It was the first time most students had experienced learning from home using VC and an LMS. Early in the semester many students had questions related to how to use Webex and Google Classroom.

Responding to these questions in a timely manner was important to remove student anxiety, as pointed out by Martin et al (2019). As students became more comfortable with the technology, questions relating to class activities and homework increased.

Timely assessment of assignments (Martin et al, 2019) was another aspect that was prioritized by the teachers. Rubrics for writing assignments and auto-marking Google Forms played a sizable role to make this possible. Rubrics were very useful for summative assessment and providing generalized feedback that informed students of what they were able to accomplish in terms of learning goals for each assignment. This reduced the time necessary for marking, making it possible to provide individualized feedback for issues that were unique to each student. The auto-marking function of Google Forms also played a role in providing timely feedback to homework and quizzes. It also opened time for teachers to promptly respond to student emails.

Securing time within synchronous classes for peer-to-peer discussions was also considered important to create and cultivate a learning community within the classes. Discussions varied from pair work for reviewing homework to group discussions targeted to deepen the understanding of the weekly topic of the course (Kohnke & Moorhouse, 2021).

After a month of synchronous online teaching with Webex, the teachers felt the need to consider an alternative VC. Many students and teachers were experiencing issues with audio and video quality, especially in classes with larger student numbers. Google Meet and Zoom were considered as possible alternatives. Google Meet was considered since it was part of the Google for Education package and the teachers assumed it should work well with Google Classroom. Zoom was considered since it was known to be used by many institutes and some teachers had experience using it with other institutes and were reporting that they did not experience audio and video issues. The teachers felt that Zoom would be a better choice for the new VC after conducting a few trials to evaluate functionality as well as audio and video quality. The functionality was similar, but the audio and video quality on Zoom was better. A request to change VC was swiftly granted and Zoom became the new VC from May.

What was done after the 2020 Spring Semester

An evaluation of the course was conducted at the end of the semester by the teachers and manager. The evaluation consisted of exchanging general thoughts on the experience of ERT, positive and negative aspects of the new curriculum, and specific points for revision such as typos in teaching material that needed to be rectified.

Course evaluation from students were examined carefully to understand how students felt about the new course and their experience of ERT. Actionable points, such as allocating more time for students to submit assignments, were extracted so the feedback could be incorporated when revisiting the structure of the course and how it could be implemented better in the following semester since it was still unclear if teaching would return to the classroom in the fall semester.

Discussion

Conducting an English course that adopts a communicative approach in a time of ERT and achieve pre-pandemic learning goals while teaching online was a challenge. The challenge was found in four fronts: familiarity with ICT, access to appropriate technology, student discussions, and coping with uncertain teaching conditions.

As Nae (2020) points out, many teachers and students do not have sufficient training with ICT. Many ICT related questions can be found on the internet in forms of tutorial videos and wikis. The downside of this seemingly positive situation is that finding the appropriate solution can be time consuming. The teachers in this program were able to assist each other with many of the issues they faced to improve their readiness for teaching online (Junus et al, 2021). Experimenting with VC and Google applications before the semester as a group played a large role in raising ICT competence. The FD with certified Google trainers before the semester was extremely useful. The teachers were able to clarify issues they faced during their experimenting. The trainers provided answers to questions that the teachers anticipated might be asked by students. Due to the preparation done before the semester, the teachers could provide in-class ICT support to most of the issues raised by students during the semester. The teachers communicated with other teachers to seek answers for issues they could not answer by themselves. This network of knowledge was very valuable.

As Hobs and Hawkins (2020) point out not all students and teachers have access to appropriate technology. Stable access to the internet that can support VC seemed to be the biggest issue. Measures to minimize data size seemed to have positive effects. Such measures include lowering video quality on the teacher's VC setting, and students turning off their cameras when they are not engaged in activities that require talking to other students or the teacher. Another issue was students using tablets and smartphones during synchronous lessons had difficulty using some of the functions such as the *raise hand* icon due to the difference in user interface. The teachers were able to resolve most issues through their experience of testing VC with different devices before the semester. Most

issues that teachers did not know how to resolve could be resolved by asking other students if they knew a solution.

Early in the semester, having students discuss in breakout rooms presented challenges. The biggest challenge was that students were not able to remember the questions they were required to discuss once they dispersed into separate breakout rooms. Some teachers presented discussion questions in slideshows prepared prior to the synchronous lesson and asked students to take a picture of the shared screen with their smartphones before entering the breakout room. Others posted the questions in the VC chat so the students will be able to read them after entering breakout rooms. Some teachers shared the discussion questions and instructions as a document file through the VC chat. All methods seemed to be equally effective.

As mentioned earlier in the paper, there was some uncertainty as to whether the lessons would be maintained online or return to the classroom and teachers needed to be flexible. With the course introduced in the case study, this uncertainty was not a big issue. A backward design (Martin et al, 2019) was implemented to assure the learning goals were achieved and the lessons were systematically organized week to week. The semester finished with all lessons being taught online, but the teachers felt the course could be taught in the classroom with minimal changes, such as converting some homework activities back to a classroom activity.

Conclusion

The authors believe it is possible to achieve pre-pandemic course goals under ERT circumstances. Students that were enrolled in the course and took an IELTS test at the end of the semester reported achieving a band score of 5.0. In the end of semester course evaluation questionnaire, students also reported they felt more confident reading English text as well as writing in English by the end of the semester due to improved understanding of English text structure. Some students expressed their desire to study abroad increased from completing the course in emails. The authors believe that the pre-pandemic course goals were achieved at a reasonable level from the feedback received from students.

The authors also believe there are three factors that need to be considered when designing a course with ERT in mind. First is to implement a backward design (Martin, 2019) with achieving course objectives as a goal. Second is to structure the course systematically (Martin, 2019) so students can quickly familiarize themselves with it. Systematic design can contribute to easy transitioning between teaching online and in the classroom. Third is timely facilitation (Martin, 2019). To accomplish this, the use of rubrics and auto-marking quizzes played a role in managing time for responding

to student inquiries and conducting periodic communication.

Other than the course design, raising levels of teacher readiness to teach online (Junas et al, 2021) was important for conducting lessons online smoothly. The authors feel that a development of a program evaluation rubric should be considered for easier evaluation of program goal accomplishment when switching the medium of teaching from classroom to online and HyFlex.

References

- Arora, A. K., & Srinivasen, R. (2020). Impact of Pandemic COVID-19 on the Teaching – Learning Process: A Study of Higher Education Teachers. *Prabandhan: Indian Journal of Management, 13*(4), 43-56.
<http://indianjournalofmanagement.com/index.php/pijom/article/view/151825>
- Arum, R., & Stevens, M. L. (2020). *What Is a College Education in the Time of Coronavirus?* The New York Times. Retrieved August 12, 2021, from <https://www.nytimes.com/2020/03/18/opinion/college-education-coronavirus.html>
- Hobbs, T. D., & Hawkins, L. (2020). The Results Are In for Remote Learning: It Didn't Work. *Wall Street Journal, 9*.
- Junas, K., Bundi Santoso, H., Oktavia Hadi Putra, A., Gahndi, A., & Siswantining, T. (2021). Lecturer Readiness for Online Classes during the Pandemic: A Survey Research. *Educ. Sci, 11*(3), 1-14. <https://www.mdpi.com/2227-7102/11/3/139>
- Kohnke, L., & Moorhouse, B. L. (2021). Adopting HyFlex in higher education in response to COVID-19: students' perspectives. *Open Learning: The Journal of Open, Distance and e-Learning, 1*(1), 1-14.
<https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/02680513.2021.1906641>
- Martin, F., Ritzhaupt, A., Kumar, S., & Budhrani, K. (2019). Award-winning faculty online teaching practices: Course design, assessment and evaluation, and facilitation,. *The Internet and Higher Education, 42*(1), 34-43.
<https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1096751618305669>
- Nae, N. (2020). Online Learning During the Pandemic: Where Does Japan Stand? *Euromentor, 11*(2), 7-24.
- Russell, V. (2020). Language anxiety and the online learner. *Foreign Language Annals, 53*(2), 338-352.
<https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/abs/10.1111/flan.12461>
- Suzuki, H., & Ikeda, T. (2020). Japan univ. lecturers worry over crumbling class quality as virus forces courses online. *Mainichi Shinbum*.
<https://mainichi.jp/english/articles/20200509/p2a/00m/0na/002000c>

Managing Assessment Data in Windows Excel & Google Sheets

Anton Paul Vegel

Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

Using spreadsheet software to manage assessment data is a viable alternative to online services that are not always available or reliable. However, there remains the need for a concise and tailored resource to guide practitioners. Personal experience and a review of manuals, guides, and academic literature on spreadsheet software gradebooks show a lack of practicality, robustness, and relevance. Research in computer literacy and teacher burnout further supports the need to provide practitioners with domain specific and functional guidance in technology. This paper thus provides a concise and tailored guide for educators regardless of experience to acquire the knowledge and skills necessary to build and manage a gradebook using spreadsheet software.

評価データの管理に表計算ソフトウェアを使用することは、常時利用性及び信頼性が確保されていないオンラインサービスの代用となる方法である。一方で、実行者を導く上での簡潔かつ洗礼されたリソースの必要性を、考慮する余地がある。私的経験と表計算ソフトウェアを活用し作成された成績表に関するマニュアル・ガイド・学術文献の評価内容を踏まえ、実用性、堅牢性、妥当性が欠如しているという結論に至った。加えて、コンピュータリテラシーと教師の燃え尽き症候群に関する研究は、実行者に対し領域的特性及び機能性を踏まえたガイダンスの提供が必要とされることを裏付ける。従って、本論文では教育者が表計算ソフトウェアを用いた成績表の作成・管理に必要とする知見を、個々の経験値に左右されずに習得可能な、簡潔かつ洗礼されたガイドとして提供する。

This paper first describes the motivation underlying this guide – why I approached a guide to manage assessment data in spreadsheet software. A review of computer literacy and teacher burnout both support the need to offer concise and tailored resources for practical purposes. A guide is then given to introduce anyone regardless of skill level to the basics of spreadsheet software and the skills and knowledge required to make and manage a gradebook.

To position this overview more clearly in the milieu of online resources, readily available resources have been reviewed for standardized language use and clear organization. Additionally, for those who find spreadsheet software frustrating or intimidating, this overview attempts to provide not only a clear understanding of the basic functions but also a practical resource to potentially replace online manuals, guides, and gradebook services.

Motivation

The impetus behind this guide comes from both first-hand experience as well as the current state of available resources (manuals, guides, and academic literature). First-hand experience suggests that a functional understanding of spreadsheet software is not just a nice skill to have but rather a very necessary literacy for educators. Furthermore, the state of available resources does not seem to make this issue easily approachable for educators.

I used web-based services to manage assessment data for many years. Engrade was the first suggestion when I first started teaching ESL at Kent State University in 2012. However, Engrade eventually cut its free service in 2016 in favor of a pay-based system after being acquired by McGraw Hill in 2014 (Engrade, n.d.). LearnBoost was a good alternative to Engrade offering many of the same features, yet it was retired in 2019 (LearnBoost, n.d.). Although alternatives to these

services were available (and are still today), managing assessment data independent of online services seemed like a better alternative. I familiarized myself with spreadsheet software, and soon after, sharing assessment data became a necessity – literacy classes I taught were reorganized, and co-teachers were required to organize and merge grades. I found some co-teachers lacked functional knowledge of spreadsheet software and sharing basic tips greatly helped. Eventually, I found myself in a coordinated program that used a premade spreadsheet to standardize grades. While final grades came in, I noticed calculations were off. I was able to identify the problem and offer a solution to the program coordinator. Through these experiences I realized that understanding spreadsheet software does not just afford knowledge about the functions and calculation but also the skills to read, write, identify problems, and fix errors.

Beyond these experiences, I also found a lack of concise and tailored resources. Manuals generally offer a robust review of functions, but these can be off-putting due to their exhaustive nature. Guides are also helpful, but they often only include certain aspects needed to build a gradebook. Both manuals and guides can be found on many university websites, but again, not all are concise and tailored. In academic literature too, there seems to be a need for improvement. Although academic literature about managing assessment data in spreadsheet software goes back to at least the mid-80s, not all of this literature is compatible with current software. Other more recent work simply does not offer enough for a novice to become a more functional user, and while many articles give clear snapshots, they lack a concise and tailored approach. For example, Lobo (2006) describes two functions for a spreadsheet gradebook (recording and editing macros) neither of which are necessarily required for a gradebook. Mansor (2012) similarly showed how to use spreadsheet software to manage attendance and participation grades, and although extensive detail was given to merging and displaying data, the actual calculations required to finalize grades were left without description. The need for a concise and tailored resource is still present despite the plethora of manuals and guides currently available. A look at research in computer literacy and teacher burnout further emphasizes this.

Computer Literacy

Selber (2004) framed computer literacy as a functional literacy – one that requires users to “learn to work with computers in productive ways” (p. 498). Selber (2004) also showed how university policy describes computer literacy as a functional literacy – in this case Florida State University’s policy that required students to “demonstrate basic familiarity with computer hardware, operating systems, and file concepts; a working knowledge of word processors, spreadsheet, and data-base programs; and an ability to use the World Wide Web and email” (p. 470-471). Although this policy only offers a general sense of what it means to be computer literate, it offers a specific range of competences, and emphasizes “working knowledge” that parallels the idea of functional literacy. Dobberstein (1994) also gave an early example of this line of thinking calling for computer literacy to be “context sensitive” (p. 431) in which each discipline educates about computers particularly along an “ascending scale of expertise” from basic knowledge to creative use of the technology (p. 430). Not only should computer literacy be taught towards functional goals but also within specific domains. Spreadsheet software requires an understanding of not only domain specific language but also the ability to read and write in the software environment echoing even our most basic idea of literacy. It should come as no surprise then that spreadsheet software has been a focus of computer literacy for decades (Burton, 1985; Duhrkopf, 1990a, 1990b; Klein, 1993).

However, even with a basic understanding of computer literacy clear and educational approaches already worked through, the role of praxis seems oddly misunderstood. Nataraj (2014) tested the prevalent theory that high school level computer competency is enough for university level courses and showed that students entering university lacked necessary skills. Baugh (2004) showed that even after taking prerequisite low-level courses for computer competency, and despite students, faculty, and administration criticizing higher level courses as unnecessary, test results showed university students were not well-versed in spreadsheet software and failed to complete elementary tasks like formatting data. Dobberstein (1994) also pointed out a similar misconception years earlier arguing that even though many people use computers daily, an education of essential concepts, appropriate implementations, and practical skills is still very necessary.

Unified ideas about competency or the innateness of computer literacy may be lacking but calls for ways forward are present. Hicks and Turner (2013) called for building literacy among practitioners. Hobbs and Coiro (2016) called for practical skills along taxonomies like accessing, analyzing, and creating. Dobberteins (1994) called for a context specific approach and moving from basic knowledge to creative use. Selber (2004) called for an approach that focuses on functional literacy and working knowledge.

Burnout vs Support

Research related to teacher burnout and online teaching also suggests a need to support computer literacy development. McCann and Holt (2009) found that initially online instruction causes stress due to the technological tools and techniques required to make it work – with time this stress wains. Cross and Polk (2018) similarly suggested that online instruction is difficult for faculty due to “a lack of support and ignorance of tools and strategies” while emphasizing the importance of “digital tools” (p. 1). Ma, Chutiyami, Zhang, and Nicoll (2021) also found “technology” to be the most common theme in interviews focused on challenges experienced in online teaching at the onset of the COVID-19 era. They further suggested that “both students and teachers should be equipped with technological skills necessary to cope with unexpected change” (p. 20). Although online teaching is not the only teaching context in which teachers experience burnout, it is a context that has peaked researchers’ interest. These findings, though not definitive, help clarify the important role technology plays in education in the 21st century. This paper, following these calls, approaches a practical problem, managing assessment data in spreadsheet software, in a domain specific and functional way while also providing the knowledge needed for users to access, analyze, and create within the technology.

Managing Assessment Data

The main benefit of using an electronic gradebook is having an organizational environment that can reliably keep data while also having calculation tools to make managing categories and their share of the grade easier. Although Ur (2012) refers to

these assessment elements as components and weights, *categories* will be used throughout this guide. Additionally, although there may be small differences between Microsoft Windows, macOS, and different language versions of spreadsheet software, the overall concepts remain.

Spreadsheet Software

The main page of a spreadsheet program is referred to as a worksheet or table. This page appears as a grid with rectangular modules (See Figure 1). The top bar is labeled alphabetically (left to right) denoting the vertical columns. The left-side bar is labeled numerically (top to bottom) denoting the horizontal rows. The modules (where the columns and rows intersect) are called Cells. Active Cells, ones that are selected and ready for input, are marked with a green or blue outline. It is often only necessary to select one Cell at a time. Cells can be resized by hovering the cursor over the Cell boundaries on the top bar or left-side bar until the resize cursor appears. Cells can be used to enter text for example labeling a column (i.e., “Student names,” “Student emails,” “Quiz 1,” “Quiz Totals,” etc.) or labeling a row. Cells can also be easily modified with a variety of colors and shades to help visually distinguish data elements – both Excel and Sheets use a pouring paint bucket icon for this feature. Lastly, Cells can be used to enter Functions, mathematical calculations or logical comparisons (e.g., adding, multiplying, dividing, conditionals). Entering a Function is typed just as any other text, but an initial equal sign denotes its quality as a Function. Once a Function (or text) has been entered into a Cell, it can be applied to other Cells by selecting the small box in the bottom-right corner of an active Cell and dragging it either horizontally or vertically.

Exercise 1 Basic Data Entry

1. Open a new spreadsheet.
2. Enter the data into the Cells to match

Figure 1.

Figure 1: Organization of a spreadsheet gradebook

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
1																		
2		Student Names	Q1 10	Q2 10	Q Total 20			HW1 5	HW2 5	HW Total 10			P1 20	P2 20	P Total 40			
3		A	9	8				3	5				17	19.5				
4		B	7	6				5	4				18	17.5				
5		C	3	6				4	2				16	18				
6		D	6	9				2	5				18	19				
7																		

Basic Data Entry

Here you have created a simulated gradebook with simple categories for quizzes (Q), Homework (HW), and Presentations (P). To sum these category totals, convert totals to percentages, weigh percentage totals, sum final grades, and automatically apply letter grades, Functions are needed.

Functions

Only a few Functions are needed to make a simple yet robust electronic gradebook in spreadsheet software.

Adding: This Function allows for the summing of multiple assignments into category totals as well as the summing of weighted categories into an overall total.

Dividing: This Function allows for the conversion of any total into a percentage. This is accomplished by dividing the points earned by the total points possible (e.g., $15/20 = 75\%$).

Multiplying: This Function allows for the reduction of categorical totals (represented as percentages) to their share of the total grade (weighted categories).

Conditionals: This Function allows for the automation of binary (i.e., "Fail" or "Pass") or categorical (i.e., F-A) letter grades. Essentially, this Function follows logically: If this is true, do this, otherwise do this.

Exercise 2 Adding/Summing

1. The summing function is typed as =SUM().
2. Select a Cell to indicate where the Function's calculation will appear (e.g., E3).
3. In this Cell type the Function, but do not close the parenthesis. Type: =SUM(
4. Click on the Cells you want to sum with each separated by a comma. (e.g., =SUM(C3,D3). This essentially means 9+8.
5. Press Enter (Return). 17 should appear in Cell E3.
6. Drag the active Cell from E3-E6 to apply the Function to the rest of the data and apply the same steps to J3-J6 and O3-O6 as shown in Figure 2

Figure 2: Using the SUM function

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
1																		
2		Student Names	Q1 10	Q2 10	Q Total 20			HW1 5	HW2 5	HW Total 10			P1 20	P2 20	P Total 40			
3		A	9	8	17			3	5	8			17	19.5	36.5			
4		B	7	6	13			5	4	9			18	17.5	35.5			
5		C	3	6	9			4	2	6			16	18	34			
6		D	6	9	15			2	5	7			18	19	37			
7																		

Adding/Summing Data

Note that the active Function of each cell can be checked by selecting the Cell. For example, selecting Cell E4 will reveal =SUM(C4,D4) while Cell E6 reveals =SUM(C6,D6).

Exercise 3 Dividing

1. The dividing Function is typed as =/.
2. Select a cell to indicate where the Function's calculation will appear (e.g., F3)

3. Type an equal sign and select a Cell to indicate the divisor (total points earned) (e.g., =E3).
4. Type a forward slash and type the dividend (total points possible) (e.g., =E3/20)
5. Press Enter (Return). The result will likely be a decimal number.
6. Select the Cell and change the Cell format from "General" to "Percentage" or click on the % symbol in the taskbar.
7. Drag the active Cell from F3 to F6 to apply the Function to the rest of the data and apply the same steps to K3-K6 and P3-P6 as shown in Figure 3.

Figure 3: Creating Percentages

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
1																		
2		Student Names	Q1 10	Q2 10	Q Total 20			HW1 5	HW2 5	HW Total 10			P1 20	P2 20	P Total 40			
3		A	9	8	17	85%		3	5	8	80%		17	19.5	36.5	91%		
4		B	7	6	13	65%		5	4	9	90%		18	17.5	35.5	89%		
5		C	3	6	9	45%		4	2	6	60%		16	18	34	85%		
6		D	6	9	15	75%		2	5	7	70%		18	19	37	93%		
7																		

Exercise 4 Multiplying

The multiplying Function is typed as =*.

Select a Cell to indicate where the Function's calculation will appear (e.g., G3).

Type an equal sign and select the Cell to indicate the first multiplication factor (the category total percentage) (e.g., F3).

Type an asterisk and type the second multiplication factor as a decimal number (the category weight) (e.g., =F3*.30).

Press Enter (Return). The result will likely be a decimal number.

Select the Cells and change the Cell format from "General" to "Percentage" or click on the % symbol in the taskbar.

Drag the active Cell from G3-G6 to apply the Function to the rest of the data and apply the same steps to L3-L6 (with .25 as the second factor) and Q3-Q6 (with .45 as the second factor).

Figure 4 shows three weighted categories. The first (G3-G6) reduces the Q Total to 30%. The second (L3-L6) reduces the HW Total to 25%. Finally, the third (Q3-Q6) reduces the P Total to 45% as shown in Figure 4

Figure 4: Weighted Totals

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
1																		
2		Student Names	Q1 10	Q2 10	Q Total 20			HW1 5	HW2 5	HW Total 10			P1 20	P2 20	P Total 40			
3		A	9	8	17	85%	26%	3	5	8	80%	20%	17	19.5	36.5	91%	41%	
4		B	7	6	13	65%	20%	5	4	9	90%	23%	18	17.5	35.5	89%	40%	
5		C	3	6	9	45%	14%	4	2	6	60%	15%	16	18	34	85%	38%	
6		D	6	9	15	75%	23%	2	5	7	70%	18%	18	19	37	93%	42%	
7																		

Exercise 5 Final Grades

To calculate final grades, simply sum the weighted totals in an empty Cell (e.g., R3) as =SUM(G3,L3,Q3) and drag the Cell from R3-R6. Review *Exercise 2 Adding/Summing* if needed.

Figure 5: Final Grades (Total)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R
1																		
2		Student Names	Q1 10	Q2 10	Q Total 20			HW1 5	HW2 5	HW Total 10			P1 20	P2 20	P Total 40			Total
3		A	9	8	17	85%	26%	3	5	8	80%	20%	17	19.5	36.5	91%	41%	87%
4		B	7	6	13	65%	20%	5	4	9	90%	23%	18	17.5	35.5	89%	40%	82%
5		C	3	6	9	45%	14%	4	2	6	60%	15%	16	18	34	85%	38%	67%
6		D	6	9	15	75%	23%	2	5	7	70%	18%	18	19	37	93%	42%	82%
7																		

Exercise 6 Final Grade Letter Grades

To automatically assign letter grades, use the IF Function. First, make a simple "Fail/Pass" binary.

1. Select an empty Cell to indicate where the response to the conditional will appear (e.g., S3).
2. To make a simple fail/pass conditional hinged on 60%, type: =IF(R3<.60,"Fail","Pass").
3. Drag the active Cell from S3-S6 to apply the function to the rest of the data as shown in Figure 6.1.

Figure 6.1: Pass/Fail

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T
1																				
2		Student Names	Q1 10	Q2 10	Q Total 20			HW1 5	HW2 5	HW Total 10			P1 20	P2 20	P Total 40			Total		
3		A	9	8	17	85%	26%	3	5	8	80%	20%	17	19.5	36.5	91%	41%	87%	Pass	
4		B	7	6	13	65%	20%	5	4	9	90%	23%	18	17.5	35.5	89%	40%	82%	Pass	
5		C	3	6	9	45%	14%	4	2	6	60%	15%	16	18	34	85%	38%	67%	Pass	
6		D	6	9	15	75%	23%	2	5	7	70%	18%	18	19	37	93%	42%	82%	Pass	
7																				

Note that the IF Function can also be essentially “flipped” with the results remaining the same: =IF(R3>.59,"Pass","Fail").

To program more letter grade categories than shown in Figure 6.1, nest IF Functions in the last position of each conditional and leave parenthesis open until the end (color added for emphasis).

1. Select an empty Cell to indicate where the response to the conditional will appear (e.g., T3).
2. Modifying the Formula from Cell S3 to add “less than 70%,” type (in blue): =IF(R3<.60,"F",IF(R3<.70,"D",
3. To add another category for “less than 80%,” type (in orange):

4. =IF(R3<.60,"F",IF(R3<.70,"D",IF(R3<.80,"C",
5. To add “less than 90%” and a final false response for “not less than 90%,” type (in green):
 - a. =IF(R3<.60,"F",IF(R3<.70,"D",IF(R3<.80,"C",IF(R3<.90,"B","A"
6. Finally, close all the parentheses.
 - a. =IF(R3<.60,"F",IF(R3<.70,"D",IF(R3<.80,"C",IF(R3<.90,"B","A"))))

Figure 6.2: Letter Grades

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U
1																					
2		Student Names	Q1 10	Q2 10	Q Total 20			HW1 5	HW2 5	HW Total 10			P1 20	P2 20	P Total 40			Total		Letter Grade	
3		A	9	8	17	85%	26%	3	5	8	80%	20%	17	19.5	36.5	91%	41%	87%	Pass	B	
4		B	7	6	13	65%	20%	5	4	9	90%	23%	18	17.5	35.5	89%	40%	82%	Pass	B	
5		C	3	6	9	45%	14%	4	2	6	60%	15%	16	18	34	85%	38%	67%	Pass	D	
6		D	6	9	15	75%	23%	2	5	7	70%	18%	18	19	37	93%	42%	82%	Pass	B	
7																					

Note that just like with a “Fail/Pass” binary, more complex nested conditionals can also be “flipped” with the results remaining the same: =IF(R3>0.89,"A",IF(R3>0.79,"B",IF(R3>0.69,"C",IF(R3>0.59,"D","F"))))

Exercise 7 Visual Elements

So far, all examples have been monochrome without any special consideration to layout or design save only what headings were necessary.

Although the examples (despite their simplicity) are not impossible to read, increasing visual clarity certainly has its merits – especially if the spreadsheet is intended to be shared. The two most immediate solutions are spacing and color. Spacing, which has so far been neglected in this overview, can be manipulated by inserting or deleting a row or column (and thus shifting others up/down or left/right). AutoFit can also be used to automatically resize Cells in relation to the size of the text entered in them.

Figure 7: Visual Clarity

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K	L	M	N	O	P	Q	R	S	T	U	V	W
1																							
2		Student Names	Q1 10	Q2 10	Q Total 20	%	Q 30%		HW1 5	HW2 5	HW Total 10	%	HW 25%		P1 20	P2 20	P Total 40	%	P 45%		Final Grade		
3		A	9	8	17	85%	26%		3	5	8	80%	20%		17	19.5	36.5	91%	41%		87%		
4		B	7	6	13	65%	20%		5	4	9	90%	23%		18	17.5	35.5	89%	40%		82%		
5		C	3	6	9	45%	14%		4	2	6	60%	15%		16	18	34	85%	38%		67%		
6		D	6	9	15	75%	23%		2	5	7	70%	18%		18	19	37	93%	42%		82%		
7																							

Merging Data

Merging data in a shared class, coordinated program, from different platforms like Google Classroom or Edmodo, or from a university database requires special considerations. The easiest way to ensure merging data is error free is to understand how CSV (Comma-Separated Values) files work. CSV is a non-proprietary file type spreadsheet software can read/write. When data from Edmodo and Google Classroom is exported, it is via a CSV file that contains students' names, numbers, and assessment data. How easily this data can be sorted and merged with another spreadsheet depends on how identifying information (names and numbers) has been organized. Some early thoughtfulness can alleviate future headaches. Be consistent with identifying information.

- How you or students enter names (first name-last name vs. last name-first name).
- How you or students enter student numbers relative to the student names

If some students use first name-last name conventions, others use last name-first name conventions, and still others put their student number before or after their name, sorting data will be difficult. With these issues avoided, data can be easily sorted and merged with another spreadsheet. If these issues are present, a slower, more careful approach will have to be taken. To be sure data is copied correctly, identifying information needs to be sorted to match the target document using the Sort & Filter tool which by default sorts by the first column A-Z or Z-A. To avoid disentangling identifying information from assessment data and receiving a Sort Warning, be sure all relevant data is selected before sorting. If the data cannot be sorted easily due to the above-mentioned issues, there are a few solutions:

- Modify one CSV file's conventions to match the other, then sort.
- Manually import each row of student data carefully.

Merging data from a CSV file to a spreadsheet is fairly easy with foresight. Becoming fluent with this process helps ensure data is merged without error.

Conclusion

The goal of this paper was not only to show why such a guide is needed but also to provide a resource that can be easily shared and referenced. Although manuals, guides, and academic literature are widely available, concise and tailored resources are not. Computer literacy as a functional literacy requires a working knowledge of computer software, especially those relevant to specific contexts, but support is a neglected aspect of literacy praxis even among adult educators. Understanding how to read, write, identify problems, and fix errors in spreadsheet software as an educator is not just a helpful skill but basic due diligence.

References

- Baugh, J. M. (2012). Assessment of spreadsheet and database skills in the undergraduate student. *Information Systems Education Journal*, 2(30), 1-12. <http://isedj.org/2/30/>
- Bolt, R. F. (1992). *Reliability of the test of spoken English revisited* (RR-92-52). Educational Testing Service. https://www.ets.org/research/policy_research_reports/publications/report/1992/hxjk
- Burton Jr., R. O. (1984). One Teacher's Experience: A Computerized Grade Book. *NACTA Journal*, 28(2), 18-20. <http://www.jstor.com/stable/43764079>
- Cross, T., & Polk, L. (2018). Burn bright, not out: Tips for managing online teaching. *Journal of Educators Online*, 15(3), 1-6.
- Dobberstein, M. (1993). Computer literacy for the rest of us. *Computers and the Humanities*, 27(5-6), 429-433. <https://doi.org/10.1007/bf01829393>
- Duhrkopf, R. (1990a). Spreadsheets as gradebooks I. Simple calculations. *The*

- American Biology Teacher*, 52(4), 249-250. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/4449096>
- Duhrkopf, R. (1990b). Spreadsheets as gradebooks II. Conditional statements & links. *The American Biology Teacher*, 52(5), 310-312. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/4449119>
- Engrade. (n.d.). *Deactivation FAQs*. Retrieved March 14, 2022, from <https://help.engage.com/hc/en-us/articles/220807227-Deactivation-FAQs>
- Excel fundamentals*. (2013). St. George's Information Services. Retrieved April 01, 2021, from <https://www.sgul.ac.uk/about/our-professional-services/information-services/library/documents/training-manuals/Excel-Fundamentals-Manual.pdf>
- Hicks, T., & Turner, K. H. (2013). No longer a luxury: Digital literacy can't wait. *The English Journal*, 102(6), 58-65. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/24484127>
- Hobbs, R., & Coiro, J. (2016). Everyone learns from everyone. *Journal of Adolescent & Adult Literacy*, 59(6), 623-629. <https://doi.org/10.1002/jaal.502>
- How are grades calculated in a percentage gradebook?* (2021, January 13). UVACollab Help. Retrieved April 01, 2021, from <https://uvacollab.screenstepslive.com/s/help/m/assessments//1241087-how-are-grades-calculated-in-a-percentage-gradebook>
- Klein, P. W. (1993). Creating an electronic grade book with a word processor. *Hispania*, 76(1), 130-135. <https://www.jstor.org/stable/344650>
- LearnBoost. (n.d.). <https://learnboost.com>
- Microsoft Excel manual*. (2015). University of Mary Washington. Retrieved April 01, 2021, from <https://adminfinance.umw.edu/tess/files/2013/06/Excel-Manual1.pdf>
- Lobo, G. E. (2006). Technology tips: Two useful functions for Excel grade books. *The Mathematics Teacher*, 99(8), 566-569. <https://doi.org/10.5951/mt.99.8.0566>
- Ma, K., Chutiyami, M., Zhang, Y., & Nicoll, S. (2021). Online teaching self-efficacy during COVID-19: Changes, its associated factors and moderators. *Education and Information Technologies*, 1-23. <https://link.springer.com/article/10.1007/s10639-021-10486-3>
- Mansor, A. Z. (2012). Managing student's grades and attendance records using Google forms and Google spreadsheets. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 59, 420-428. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.09.296>
- McCann, J., & Holt, R. (2009). An exploration of burnout among online university professors. *Journal of Distance Education*, 23(3), 97-110. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ865349.pdf>

Nataraj, S. (2014). The Need for an introductory computer literacy course at the university level. *International Journal of Business Management and Economic Research (IJBMER)*, 5(4), 71-73. www.ijbmer.com

Selber, S. A. (2004). Reimagining the functional side of computer literacy. *College Composition and Communication*, 55(3), 470-503. <https://doi.org/10.2307/4140696>

Tufte, E. R. (1990). *Envisioning information*. Graphics Press.

Ur, P. (2012). *A course in English language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Possibility of Integrating Telecollaboration in Regular English Classes

Yukie Saito
Chuo University

Telecollaboration where learners of different languages interact online with one another for intercultural exchange and foreign language learning (Helm & Guth, 2016) can be integrated into English classes offered online. To seek the possibility, a telecollaboration project of five language exchanges with first-year university students learning English in Japan and students learning Japanese in the U.S. was integrated into an English course. This research investigated how the students perceived the telecollaboration and how their feedback has changed between the first and the fifth exchanges. The results of a questionnaire survey conducted after the five exchanges and students' journals after the first and the fifth exchanges showed the telecollaboration could lead to their deepening cultural understanding, lowering foreign language anxiety, improving speaking, and acquiring pragmatic competence. Based on the results, the possibility of integrating telecollaboration into English classes will be discussed.

異文化間交流と外国語学習のため、異なる言語の学習者が互いにオンライン上で交流する telecollaboration (Helm & Guth, 2016) は、オンラインで提供される英語クラスへの導入が可能になり得る。導入の可能性を探るため、大学 1 年生を対象にオンラインで提供された英語コースに、米国の大学で日本語を学ぶ学生と 5 回の言語交流を行う telecollaboration のプロジェクトを実施した。本研究では、学生の telecollaboration に対する認識と、1 回目と 5 回目の言語交流後のフィードバックの変化について調査を行った。結果、telecollaboration が文化理解の促進、外国語の不安の軽減、スピーキングの向上、語用論能力の習得に繋がる可能性があるということがわかった。結果をもとに、英語の授業に telecollaboration を導入する可能性について議論する。

Although many university students in Japan were required to take English classes online suddenly because of the spread of Covid-19 in 2020, online classes can have some benefits. One benefit is that telecollaboration can be integrated into regular English classes offered online. In telecollaboration, learners from different cultural contexts can experience online intercultural collaboration and interaction (O'Dowd & O'Rourke, 2019). "Telecollaboration is the practice of engaging distant classes of language learners in interaction with one another using Internet-based communication tools to support intercultural exchange and foreign language learning" (Helm & Guth, 2016, p. 241).

Lee and Song (2019) compared the development of intercultural competence among study abroad, telecollaboration, and on-campus language study groups. The study abroad and telecollaboration groups showed similar degrees of improvement in the affective and behavioral aspects of intercultural communicative competence, while the on-campus group showed no significant improvement. The telecollaboration group with online contact with the target culture also developed cultural knowledge.

In the study by Schenker (2017), telecollaboration between novice learners of German in the U.S. and advanced learners of English in Germany made the learners of German have more interest in learning German and studying abroad although their speaking proficiency was not improved. One model of telecollaboration is eTandem, which has been developed from Tandem based on mutual language exchange between speakers of different languages (Helm & Guth, 2016). In the study by El-Hariri (2017), in which Colombian learners of German participated in a German-Spanish eTandem project, showed great potential to reduce the fear of using German in real-life situations.

Benefits of telecollaboration on learning pragmatic behaviors and applying patterns in authentic discourse are also mentioned (Blyth & Sykes, 2020). Pragmatic competence is "a set of internalized rules of how to use language in socioculturally appropriate ways, taking into account the participants in a communicative interaction and features of the context within which the interaction takes place." (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000, p. 20). For example, understanding turn-taking rules to maintain the flow of the talk between very brief pauses between

turns (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain, 2000) may be difficult for Japanese EFL learners, and they might be quiet during a conversation.

Integrating telecollaboration into regular English classes offered online may help promote students' cultural understanding, improve English proficiency, and acquire pragmatic competence. In order to seek the possibility, a telecollaboration project was conducted in the fall of 2020. In this study, as a first step to seek the possibility, it is investigated how Japanese EFL students perceive telecollaboration with university students in the U.S. and how their feedback between the first and the fifth exchange in the telecollaboration has changed. The research questions of this study are the following.

1. How do university students learning English in Japan perceive the telecollaboration?
2. How has their feedback between the first and the fifth exchanges changed?

Methods

To answer the research questions, a questionnaire survey was conducted after the last exchange and feedback on journals that students took after the first and fifth exchange were analyzed. In this section, first, participants in the course and in the telecollaboration will be provided. Following that, the information about the telecollaboration will be explained. Then, the questionnaire respondents and the data collection and analysis of the questionnaire are explained. Finally, the data collection of the students' journals and their analysis are presented.

Participants in the Course and the Telecollaboration

Participants in the course were 20 first-year students in a four-skill integrated English course in a private university in Japan and their English proficiency was about 600 points on TOEIC L & R. The 20 participants and about 20 participants from a university in the U.S. learning Japanese from a Japanese instructor participated in five exchanges of the telecollaboration project. About 30-minute exchange in English and about 30-minute exchange in Japanese were integrated into regular 100-minute classes offered online using ZOOM in the fall semester in 2020. The classes were to be offered face-to-face, but they had to be offered online due to the spread of Covid-19. Although the exchanges were conducted both in English and Japanese, this paper focuses on the part of the exchanges in English.

Procedures and Contents of the Telecollaboration

The students learning Japanese in the U.S. and the Japanese teacher joined the ZOOM class 30 minutes after the class began. In the first exchange, the Japanese teacher and I explained the purposes and the procedures of the exchanges including the explanation about how to use ZOOM. After that, the exchange in English was followed. I explained the contents of the exchange and then, the students were divided into breakout rooms of ZOOM that they were assigned to.

In the first exchange, after the explanation about the content to be covered, they were divided into groups with four to five students in breakout rooms and then, they introduced each other in English, and talked about their favorite places. After that, the students in Japan recommended one place in Japan and the students in the U.S. recommended one place in the U.S. The topic of the second exchange was shopping which was the topic from the textbook used in the Course, Life 4 from Cengage Publication. In a class prior to the second exchange, they brainstormed questions about shopping and wrote in the chat of ZOOM about 20 questions such as "What kind of goods do you often buy?" and "What did you buy most recently?". After the class, I shared the questions that they made on a Learning Management System for the preparation for the second exchange. Another focus of the second exchange was to maintain a conversation by initiating a conversation and using backchanneling. This is because the Japanese students were quiet when I joined the breakout rooms and observed the first exchange. Thus, before the second exchange, I instructed how they can maintain a conversation by asking questions, using backchannels such as "Really" and "That's great.", repeating the part of the talk (e.g., A: I really like traveling. B: Do you? I love traveling, too!) and sharing the same interest (e.g., A: I like watching football games. B: Me, too. I have been a big fan of football.) Backchanneling means giving feedback as a listener (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). To teach how to use backchanneling may be helpful to avoid silence and maintain a conversation. In the third exchange, they asked and answered the questions using questions for international language exchanges shared on Wordwall, which is the website to make questions for language classes as a form of game. Example questions were Could you tell us something about what you study at university? and Could you tell us something about how students have fun?. Both of the students turned in spinning the wheel and asked the question where the spin stopped. One reason for introducing the questions on Wordwall was that integrating a game in English classes can be beneficial for improving motivation and promoting attitudes (Rahmani, 2020). In the fourth exchange, they mainly talked about social issues in Japan, the U.S. and the world including a topic related to Covid-19. In the last exchange, they talked about their study, plans for future

jobs, and future dreams and they also shared their reflection about 2020 and their hope for 2021.

Questionnaire of Students' Perception about the Telecollaboration

To investigate students' perceptions about the telecollaboration, I conducted a questionnaire survey after the last exchange. For the questionnaire survey, questions related to intercultural competence, foreign language anxiety, spoken production and interaction, and pragmatic competence were included. For intercultural competence, the definition by Beacco et al. (2016), the ability to experience otherness and cultural diversity, to analyze that experience and to derive benefit from it, was used as a reference. About foreign language anxiety, foreign language classroom anxiety scale by Horwitz et al. (1986) was used as a reference. For spoken production and interaction and pragmatic competence, Can-do descriptors from CEFR Companion Volume (Council of Europe, 2018) were adapted. Examples are "can connect phrases in a simple way in order to describe experiences and events, my dreams, hopes & ambitions" (B1 Spoken Production), "can enter unprepared conversation on topics that are familiar, of personal interest or pertinent to everyday life" (B1 Spoken Interaction) and "Can initiate, maintain, and close simple face-to-face conversation on topics that are familiar or of personal interest" (B1 Pragmatic Competence). The questions prepared for were those described below in Table 1 and each of them are presented with categories of IC (intercultural competence), FLA (foreign language anxiety), SPI (spoken production and interaction), and PC (pragmatic competence). For answer choices, a four-point scale, strongly agree, agree, disagree, and strongly disagree were adopted. The reason for not adopting a five-point scale with a mid-point is that a mid-point tends to be selected among east Asian participants (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011).

Students' Journals after Each Exchange

After each exchange, the students wrote how they thought about the exchange in English. In this paper, their feedback about the exchange after the first and the fifth exchanges was compared. The data were coded and analyzed using content analysis inductively. Coding is a technique for identifying statements by attaching one or more keywords to a text (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009). Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) stated, "Content analysis is a technique for a systematic quantitative description of the manifest content of communication" (p. 203). For example, if their feedback after the first exchange was related to their feeling, hope to improve their English, performance of speaking English, and

noticing differences between American students and them, it was coded as feeling, hope, performance and noticing. For their feedback after the fifth exchange, sentences including can, could, and was able to, which shows improvement in their English, was underlined and then the underlined parts were compared to the coding on the first exchange.

Results

Results of the Questionnaire

To investigate how university students learning English in Japan perceived the telecollaboration, the questionnaire survey related to intercultural competence, foreign language anxiety, speaking production and interaction, and pragmatic competence was conducted. All of the 20 students in the course answered the questionnaire survey. Table 1 shows the results of the questionnaire survey. As shown in Table 1, regarding cultural understanding, more than 70% of the students strongly agree or agree that they gained a deeper understanding of American culture and American university students' life through the exchanges. About foreign language anxiety, 90% of the students strongly agree or agree that they feel less afraid to speak English with native English speakers; however, 40% of them are still not confident in speaking English with native English speakers. Regarding speaking, more than 80% of them think that they have become able to talk about themselves, their family, school life, hobbies, experience, dreams, and hopes. However, 35% of them did not think that they have become able to talk about their interests without preparation in advance. About pragmatic competence, more than 75% of them strongly agree or agree that they have become able to initiate a conversation, to ask questions spontaneously, to use backchanneling and to maintain a conversation in English. It was noteworthy that 45% of them strongly agree and 35% of them agree that they have become able to use backchanneling.

Table 1

Students' Perception to the Telecollaboration

Questions	Strongly agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly disagree
Q1: I gained a deeper understanding of American culture through the exchanges. (IC)	4 20%	10 50%	6 30%	0 0%
Q2: I gained a deeper understanding of American university students' life. (IC)	7 35%	10 50%	3 15%	0 0%
Q3: I am less afraid to speak English with native English speakers. (FLA)	7 35%	11 55%	2 10%	0 0%
Q4: I feel more confident in speaking English with native English speakers. (FLA)	1 5%	11 55%	7 35%	1 5%
Q5: I have become able to talk about myself, my family, and school life using simple expressions. (SPI)	5 25%	12 60%	3 15%	0 0%
Q6: I have become able to talk about my hobbies and school life using simple expressions. (SPI)	6 30%	13 65%	1 5%	0 0%
Q7: I have become able able to talk about my experiences, dreams, and hopes in English. (SPI)	2 10%	14 70%	4 20%	0 0%
Q8: I have become able to talk about my interests without preparation in advance. (SPI)	3 15%	10 50%	6 30%	1 5%
Q9: I have become able to initiate a conversation. (PC)	6 30%	9 45%	5 25%	0 0%
Q10: I have become able to ask questions spontaneously. (PC)	6 30%	11 55%	3 15%	0 0%
Q11: I have become able to use backchanneling. (PC)	9 45%	7 35%	4 20%	0 0%
Q12: I have become able to maintain a conversation in English. (PC)	3 15%	13 65%	4 20%	0 0%

Results of the Students' Journals

To explore how the students' feedback between the first and the fifth exchange has changed, the students' journals including can, could, and was able to in the feedback after the fifth exchange was selected, coded and analyzed. Table 2 shows the excerpts of the five

students' journals. The students' names in the table are pseudonyms. In the journals, the students wrote the name of the university in the U.S.; however, it is changed to SUN University.

Table 2

Students' Feedback after the First and the Fifth Exchanges

Students	Feedback after the first exchange	Feedback after the fifth exchange
Yuta	I felt a little bit nervous(Feeling), I couldn't speak properly (Performance). So, next time we talk with SUN students, I try to tell my opinion more properly, frequently, and friendly (Hope)	Compared with the first session, we <u>could</u> spend more meaningful time and communicate with(them), and exchange our opinions.
Shun	I think that I should improve my English speaking skill more(Hope). This is because when I talked with SUN students, English did not come out of my mouth immediately (Performance).	In this session, I think that I <u>can</u> talk with SUN students fluently. I have known most SUN students, so I <u>can</u> talk with SUN students the most friendly and enjoyably I have ever had.
Aiko	I wanted to talk more, but I was not able to put it into words several times(Performance). So I eager to expand my vocabulary (Hope). When SUN students entered the ZOOM class, I was so excited(Feeling).	I <u>was able to</u> start talking to members this time as well. Needless to say, with huge smiling!
Kako	I felt that I needed to develop more practical English skills(Hope). I spent too much time thinking about what I wanted to say(Performance). What is important is not to speak in English perfectly, but to show that I am trying to speak something(Noticing). So next class with SUN students, I will try not to make a silent time(Hope). Their willingness to listen to me was so good and pleasing(Noticing) that I will try to act like them(Hope).	By talking to SUN students many times, I <u>was able to</u> speak with less nervousness than at first.
Toshi	I came to class prepared to some scripts, but SUN students didn't prepare any scripts, they just thought about it on the spot and tried to answer the questions.(Noticing) This made me realize that in order to improve my English, it is important to make an effort to have more active conversations with them(Hope).	Throughout the five sessions of exchange with SUN students, I thought that it was fun to communicate in English. I was happy when I <u>could</u> understand what they were saying, but I was also happy when they <u>could</u> understand what I was saying.

All of the five students wrote their hope to improve their speaking after the first exchange and thought that they

improved their speaking after the fifth exchange. For example, Yuta thought he could not speak well because

he felt nervous in the first exchange, but he could communicate with the students in the U.S. in the fifth exchange. Shun also thought that he could not speak well after the first exchange, but he could talk with the SUN students fluently. Aiko also thought that she could not tell what she wanted to in the first exchange, but she was able to start talking to the SUN students. Kako thought that she could speak less nervously in the fifth exchange. As for Toshi, his being able to understand what they said and their being able to understand what he said made him pleased as shown in Table 2. Kako and Toshi wrote that they noticed the difference between the SUN students and them such as their willingness to listen to others, which helped them learn from the SUN students' pragmatic behaviors.

Overall, the exchanges made them reflect their speaking skills objectively by talking to the SUN students and noticing the difference in communicating. In the first exchange, they could not speak well and tell what they wanted to say and after the exchange, they thought that they would like to improve their speaking by communicating with and learning from the SUN students. After the fifth exchange, they felt that they were able to improve their speaking.

Discussions

This study showed that more than two thirds of the students were able to understand American culture and American university students' life. The results overlap Lee and Song (2019)'s comparative research among study abroad, telecollaboration, and on-campus language study groups, the results of which show that telecollaboration group with online contact with the target culture developed cultural knowledge. Though university students in Japan are deprived of opportunities to study abroad due to the effects of Covid-19, the result obtained from this study implies that university students learning English in Japan may develop deeper cultural understanding through telecollaboration even online.

Regarding foreign language anxiety, this study showed that the majority of the students strongly agree or agree that they feel less afraid to speak English with native English speakers. In the study by El-Hariri (2017), the Colombian learners in a German-Spanish eTandem project showed great potential to reduce the fear of using German in real-life situations. As the results of the study by El-Hariri (2017) and this study show, interacting with native speakers of the language that the students are learning may reduce foreign language anxiety. The result of this study indicates that Japanese students learning English in EFL contexts can interact with native speakers of English in English through telecollaboration, which may lower their foreign language anxiety.

The telecollaboration helped the students have positive opinions of learning English as the analysis of the journals shows that the students hoped to improve their speaking. In the study by Schenker (2017), telecollaboration between learners of German in the US and learners of English in Germany made the learners of German have more interest in learning German. This study also showed that by having the opportunity to interact with the students in the U.S., they increased their interest in communicating and desire to communicate more fluently in English. Although the study by Schenker (2017) did not show any improvement in their speaking, the results of the questionnaire and the journals showed that they thought they were able to improve their speaking.

Benefits of telecollaboration on the learning pragmatic behaviors as well as the application of patterns in authentic discourse are mentioned (Blyth & Sykes, 2020). This study showed a benefit of improving the students' pragmatic behaviors in terms of initiating a conversation, using backchanneling, and maintaining a conversation. The questionnaire result showed that four fifths of them thought that they have become able to use backchanneling. This implies that the explicit instruction about how to use backchanneling before the second exchange may have been helpful. This also gives an implication that additional pragmatic instructions in telecollaboration by observing ongoing exchanges may be effective. Also, the students' journals showed that they were able to understand the SUN students' pragmatic behaviors such as their willingness to listen and to learn from them. Beacco et al. (2016) defines intercultural competence as the ability to experience otherness and cultural diversity, to analyze that experience and to derive benefit from it. In this study, the students also analyzed their experience in the telecollaboration project and tried to derive from it.

Conclusion

This study investigated how first-year university students learning English in Japan perceived the telecollaboration, in which they and the students learning Japanese in the U.S. interacted in English and Japanese and how their feedback has changed between the first and the fifth exchanges. The results of the analysis of the questionnaire and the journals showed the telecollaboration was helpful for them to deepen their cultural understanding, improve their speaking, lower speaking anxiety, and acquire pragmatic competence. The telecollaboration has become an opportunity for them to understand what they could and could not do using English by interacting the SUN students and noticing the difference between them and the SUN students.

One benefit of telecollaboration is that students can interact with students in the same generation. In this telecollaboration project, the Japanese university students were able to interact with the university students in the U.S. who were in the same generation using English and Japanese. Being able to talk to the students in the same generation may have contributed to reducing foreign language anxiety. Effects of interacting with students in the same generation in English on the students' foreign language anxiety may need to be investigated. Another benefit of telecollaboration is that students can learn their target language and teach their mother tongue. In terms of that, they can build up a reciprocal relationship. By teaching Japanese, they were able to learn from positive attitude of the students in the U.S. to communicate in Japanese though their Japanese competency was still limited. Thus, though this study focused on the analysis of the part of the English exchanges, effects of exchanges in Japanese on their attitudes to learn and speak English may need to be explored in the future.

The analysis of the questionnaire and the journals showed that the telecollaboration deepened their cultural understanding and lowered their foreign language anxiety. However, to understand differences in their cultural understanding and foreign language anxiety, pre- and post-questionnaires about intercultural competence and foreign language anxiety may need to be conducted. The questionnaire results and the analysis of the journals showed that the students thought they could improve their speaking. However, to investigate the effects of telecollaboration on their speaking proficiency objectively, pre-and post-speaking tests will need to be conducted. For this project, I observed their interaction in the breakout rooms; however, I was not able to videorecord and analyze their interaction. For the analysis of interactions in breakout rooms, I may get permission from both sides of the participants as well as the project partner's teacher and ask the students to videorecord the interaction in breakout rooms of ZOOM and conduct pragmatic or conversation analysis with the video recorded data.

Because of the spread of Covid-19, it is not certain when university students will be able to study abroad as in the past. However, by integrating telecollaboration in regular English classes, it may be possible that university students learning English in Japan enjoy the benefits of studying abroad such as deepening their cultural understanding, lowering their speaking anxiety, improving their speaking, and acquiring pragmatic competence. As Helm and Sarah (2016) mention that with the wide availability and accessibility of the Internet, telecollaboration may be a mainstay of foreign languages. Because of the influence of Covid-19, teachers and students in the world had to rely on online communication tools such as ZOOM; however, using

online communication tools enables teachers to have their students engage in interactions with other students in the world. English teachers may need to have students take online classes due to the uncertain circumstance. However, in the era when we can use online communication tools thanks to the advancement of technology, the integration of telecollaboration into regular English classes can have a great potential and be a door to the world for students learning English in Japan to communicate with students in other countries in English.

References

- Beacco et al. (2016). Guide for the development and implementation of curricula for plurilingual and intercultural education.
<https://rm.coe.int/16806ae621>
- Blyth, C., & Sykes, J. (2020). Technology-enhanced L2 instructional pragmatics. *Language Learning & Technology*, 24(2), 1–7.
- Celce-Murcia, M., & Olshan, E.(2000). *Discourse and context in language teaching: A guide for language teachers*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. and Morrison, K.(2007). *Research Methods in Education*. 6th ed. London: Routledge.
- Council of Europe. (2018). Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. Companion volume with new descriptors. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe.
<https://rm.coe.int/cefr-companion-volume-with-new-descriptors-2018/1680787989>
- El-Hariri, Y. (2017). eTandem Language Learning and Foreign Language Anxiety among Colombian learners of German. *Colomb. Appl. Linguist. J.*, 19(1), 22-36.

- Horwitz, E. K., Horwitz, M. B., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70(2), 125-132.
- Helm, F., & Guth, S. (2017). Telecollaboration and language learning. In F. Fiona & L. Murray (Eds.) *The Routledge handbook of language learning and technology* (pp. 241-254). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Ishihara, N., & Cohen, A.D. (2010). *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet*. Harlow, UK: Pearson.
- Kvale, S., & Brinkmann, S. (2009). *Interviews: Learning the craft of qualitative research interviewing*. California, U.S.: Sage Publications.
- Lee, J. & Song, J. (2019). Developing intercultural competence through study abroad, telecollaboration, and on-campus language study. *Language Learning & Technology*, 23(3), 178–
- O'Dowd, R., & O'Rourke, B. (2019). New developments in virtual exchange for foreign language education. *Language Learning & Technology*, 23(3), 1–7.
- Rahmani, E.F. (2020). The Benefits of Gamification in the English Learning Context. *Indonesian Journal of English Education*, 7(1), 32-47.
- Shenker, T. (2017). Synchronous telecollaboration for novice language learners: Effects on speaking skills and language learning interests. *Apprentissage des Langues et Systèmes d'Information et de Communication*, 20(2), 1-17

Readiness for Online Learning: A Students' Perspective Survey

Dr. Michael Greisamer

Himeji Dokkyo University

During the spring of 2020 Universities in Japan for the first time began either partially or fully to teach classes online. This sudden change in the way students are taught created a new style of learning, for them as much as the teachers, and as such, initiated discussion about the quality of learning and the effect on students. The implementation of online learning has the potential to substitute or supplement traditional language teaching far beyond the initial purpose; the safety of staff and pupils via social distancing during the Covid-19 pandemic. The purpose of this research is to highlight this potential and assess student responses to the first semester of online teaching and explore in what ways online education enhances language education for university students. A large number of university students (N=642) in the Kansai area were surveyed. The data is collected from university students in the Kansai area via an anonymous survey with a sample set of 642. Questions focused on their readiness to embrace online learning, their anxieties and what effects learning online has had on their learning in general. The results indicate that while the students accept the situation proactively they would rather get back to on-campus face-to-face (F2F) classes. As online learning is now expected to continue at least for the next semester, the author will discuss the results of the survey as well consider what effective strategies students can use to manage their continued online learning. Questions of student satisfaction and student retention will also be considered.

Key Words: Online Learning, University, Anxiety, Japanese Learners, Survey

2020年春、新型コロナウイルスの世界的パンデミックのため、日本の大学では全面的にオンライン授業に移行しました。安全に学生が学習を続けられる方法として始まった新しい授業スタイルに、学生、講師が挑戦しました。その中で、オンライン学習の導入は、当初の目的をはるかに超えて、従来の言語教育の代替または補足する可能性があると考えました。そこで、学生がオンライン授業に関してどのように感じているのかを調査しました。調査は初めてオンライン授業をした2020年春学期に行われたものです。質問は、オンライン学習を受け入れるための心身の準備、不安、およびオンライン学習が一般的な学習にどのような影響を与えたかに焦点を当てました。関西地域の大学に通う642人の学生から匿名で収集した結果、対面授業に戻ることを望む学生の方が多いことが示されています。しかし、安全に遠方においても授業が受けられる点は、今後の新しい授業スタイルの一つになると言えます。オンライン授業での学生のモチベーションの継続と満足度をさらに高めるための構想を論じています。

The teaching of classes online started at most Universities nationwide in the spring of 2020 due to the uncontrolled spread of the COVID-19 virus in Japan. The pandemic has disrupted the normal functions of life across the world including studying and education (Greisamer, 2020). It pushed all schools to follow the Japanese Government Ministry of Education's guideline to change from F2F to online; with which none were accustomed or prepared (Henriksen, Creely, & Henderson, 2020). This shift left many schools with little time to adjust to online teaching and put most of the burden on the teachers to prepare and learn how to use the online learning platforms with little training or support. For students, the prospect of online learning is also something new. This is exacerbated for part-time instructors who often have to learn a different platform for each school, as there has not been any common platform adopted country wide. Students had to adapt

to learning from home with the tools that they have to work with. For many the resources that are usually accessible to them such as: reliable Wi-Fi, access to a computer and practice using the online platform are not readily accessible for this new home learning situation. This exploratory paper focuses on an anonymous survey given to learners about their applicability to embrace, or otherwise, the online learning experience and what effect it has had on their learning in general.

Literature Review

When the pandemic took hold in mid-February 2020 schools were forced to close, parents were forced to deal or cater to bored, confused young adults as their daily routine was disrupted (Nae, 2020).

Educational surveys can provide insight into participants' opinions and thoughts, thereby improving the quality and efficiency of the process. Other studies that have given similar results to this study that demonstrate learners' thoughts towards online learning are: Chew, 2016; Halupa, 2016; Rahmtallah, E. & Al-Saim, A. 2021, & Atmojo, Priyo & Nugroho 2020. For example, Yunus, Hasim, Embi and Lubis (2010) research on online learning in a Malaysian University revealed that both the instructor and student participants were satisfied with how the online courses improve their language skills.

Furthermore, in conjunction to this study, Atmojo, Priyo & Nugroho (2020) found in their survey that their students faced some challenges in online learning. These challenges included: unstable internet connection, unable to meet classmates and lack of experience with online platforms.

There is evidence that online learning can cause a range of mental and psychological challenges for second language learners that are unique to online learning (Halupa, 2016). Whether asynchronous or synchronous, there is a certain level of comprehension required that cannot utilize the essential nonverbal cues in a society based on inherent understanding. These new and unfamiliar formats of study and work can be a source of anxiety. This issue is more prevalent in high-context cultures such as Japan. A society where contextual information is implicit, as explained by Xie, Rau, Tseng, Su and Zhao (2009), high-context learners comprehend better when nonverbal cues are used in communication. This is because high-context learners tend to prefer indirect or non-confrontation forms of communication unlike the instant binary aspect of an online platform. Being at university not only teaches students cognitive skills but non-cognitive skills. These non-cognitive skills include socialization, people skills, extracurricular activities and life lessons.

Anecdotal evidence suggests that in Japan attending university is considered the last chance of freedom before joining their rigid society. These essential skills are transmitted subconsciously or unintentionally to students and are collectively referred to as the "hidden curriculum,"; in contrast to the academic curriculum with the objective to developing students' cognitive skills-literacy and numeracy (Kelly 2009).

This survey is compiled to investigate learners' thoughts and opinions about their first semester of online learning. A plethora of studies acknowledged the sudden move to online learning to be forceful but necessary to continue education. (Halim, Hashim, & Yunus, 2020; Hodges, Moore, Lockee, Trust, & Bond, 2020). Researchers and educators are eager to identify whether online learning is able to provide equivalent results and academic achievements when compared with traditional F2F learning. There have been many

comparative studies conducted to examine whether F2F and traditional methods of teaching are more effective than online learning. For example: González-Gómez, Jeong, and Rodríguez (2016) that found that "flipped classroom" provided better results than traditional methods. "Flipped" means that lectures and classes are provided to the home by the way of video-lecture along with other materials leaving classroom time focused on student centered activities. The case that online learning is better than traditional learning is evident with increased rate of course completion, student satisfaction and higher motivation levels. (Bernard, Borokhovski, Schmid, Tamim, and Abrami, 2014).

Several studies also reached the same conclusion that online learning achieves an improvement in results higher than traditional methods (Lockman & Schirmer, 2020; Ryan, Kaufman, Greenhouse, She, & Shi, 2016). Online learning has many advantages; however, it has its limitations. For example, in 2015, Adams, Randall and Traustadóttir conducted a comparative study of two different groups that demonstrated online learners were less successful when compared with F2F learners. Along with this study, students expressed that they missed the interaction and comradery of their peers and instructors.

Japanese Universities are behind the world and other Asian countries concerning online training and education (Nae, 2020). In Japan as Hodges et al. (2020) describes it "Emergency Remote Teaching" (ERT) with teachers scrambling to put their lessons online without the proper training or support, and over an extremely short time-frame. One of the problems is that Japanese higher education institutes have been slow to implement learning management systems (LMS). According to Funamori (2017) universities are not yet focusing on the need to adapt to the digital age, unlike America, which is one of the developers of the IT revolution in education. That is that the foundation for distance learning is already in place and established. This paper will discuss the results from the students' point of view of their first semester online.

Methodology

This study involved a simple questionnaire as a survey of Japanese undergraduate students (n = 642) regarding their perspectives on online learning. Various schools in the Kansai area participated in the online anonymous survey. Data for this study was compiled through the analysis of learners' perceptions based on their individual experience with online learning.

Design and Procedure

This survey is created to analyze the responses of participants about their first semester of online learning. Data for the study was collected through an online Google Form and piloted by a class of 25 students. The survey is required to be approved by schools for ethics compliance permission for the students to participate. Anonymous and voluntary most schools approved the survey and it was distributed to students at the end of the semester.

The Instrument

One of the most popular quantitative research instruments is the questionnaire (Plonsky & Derrick, 2016). It gives participants an opportunity to express their thoughts and feeling on their expectations of learning. They are also relatively easy to construct. And as Dörnyei (2012) suggests questionnaires are extremely versatile with a unique ability to gather large amounts of data very quickly in a form that can be suitably and conveniently analyzed. A questionnaire can generate factual, behavioral and attitudinal types of data not readily available with other formats. This survey is designed to reflect the learners' feelings, attitudes and ideas about studying online.

The survey has 20 questions; 18 multiple-choice and 2 open-ended questions. The first 4 are demographic questions followed by 14 Likert scale questions designed to assess specific aspects of online learning from the students' perspective. For each of the items, students were asked to provide a response on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly

Likert scale results

Table 2 displays the results for the Likert scale part of the survey. "I enjoyed not being able to meet classmates" had the highest percentage with a combined total of 68% responding disagree or strongly disagree. When asked if too much homework was a major source of stress and anxiety, 58% either agreed or strongly agreed in conjunction with the results from the open-ended question. (See Table 2).

Two questions that give surprising results are as follows:

- "I think online classes are an effective and efficient method of learning." in which 56% either disagreed or strongly disagreed, compare to 12% who either agreed or strongly agreed.

agree'. The remaining two open-ended questions are designed to provide qualitative data. As Brown (2001) proposes, this qualitative data could provide additional valuable information in interpreting the results obtained from the quantitative questionnaire. Data collection was conducted in July/August of 2020 at the end of the spring semester.

Results

The results are divided into 3 parts: demographics, Likert scale and open-ended questions.

The two clear observations from the demographic features are that most students who participated were first-year and predominately female students.

Among the 642 students who completed the questionnaire, 60% are first-year students, 29% are second-year and only 11% are third and fourth-year students. 85% of the participants were female and 15% were male students. The main study tool used by students is a personal computer (PC) or laptop at 80%, 10% for smartphones and 10% for tablets. The main platform used to communicate in their study groups is Zoom. Other popular platforms are: Manaba, Google Classroom, Microsoft teams and Moodle. Participants were allowed to choose multiple answers; many chose Zoom with one of the above platforms. (See Table 1)

The data in Figure 1 and Table 1 illustrates that Zoom is the most utilized platform with 81% of the participants either using zoom alone or with a combination of another platform. Zoom is a video and online chat services through peer-to-peer software platform and is developed for distance education and social relations.

- "I prefer online classes to face to face classes." in which 59% either disagreed or strongly disagreed, compared to 16% who either agreed or strongly agreed.

These findings are significant and that suggests students would rather be at school learning F2F more than online learning (Greisamer, 2020)

Table 2: Student answers to Likert scale questions in percentage

Questions	(n = 642)	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
At first online learning was difficult but now I have the confidence to do it.		3%	9%	42%	36%	10%
I enjoyed having the freedom to study at my own pace and in my own home.		4%	16%	35%	29%	16%
I enjoyed not having to travel / commute to school.		5%	18%	27%	25%	25%
I enjoyed not being able to meet with classmates.		32%	36%	16%	9%	7%
To me, to have the instructor in the classroom while learning is important.		2%	8%	34%	32%	24%
I think my English ability has improved this semester.		10%	35%	43%	9%	2%
I think online classes are an effective and efficient method of learning.		13%	43%	32%	9%	3%
I would like to take some online classes even after the pandemic.		18%	35%	26%	10%	11%
Poor internet connection was a major source of stress and anxiety for me.		15%	24%	33%	16%	9%
Not being in the classroom was a major source of stress and anxiety for me.		14%	34%	26%	17%	9%
Too much homework was a major source of stress and anxiety for me.		3%	13%	26%	24%	34%
Communicating with my teacher was a major source of stress and anxiety for me.		28%	55%	11%	3%	3%
Because of online classes I could manage my time and have more time to myself.		9%	31%	34%	16%	10%
I prefer online classes to face to face classes.		18%	41%	25%	7%	9%

Comparison of 1st year respondents vs 2nd-4th year respondents

From the data, 60 percent of the respondents are 1st year students which might indicate a variance in the results if separated from the other respondents.

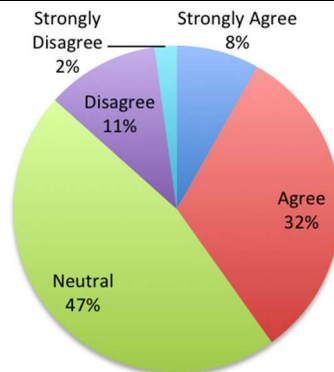
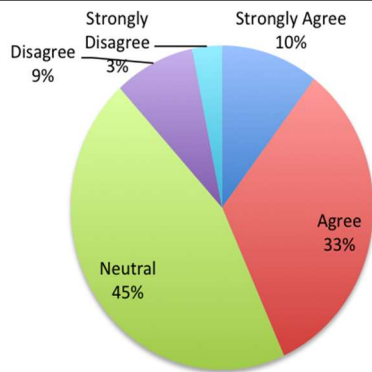
It could be expected that first year students may have different feelings and anxieties of going to campus than 2nd year students as they have yet to experience being on-campus. Without the guidance and reassurance of

contact and face to face interaction of the instructors the likelihood that many could feel greater apprehension to the online system of learning.

However, the data indicates that there is only a slight variance in the answers with 1st year students slightly more opposed to online learning. Both groups have a high indication against online learning. Figure 2 depicts several charts of the different comparisons. The data is divided into 1st year (60% of total) vs 2nd-4th year respondents (40%).

1st year vs 2-4th year respondents

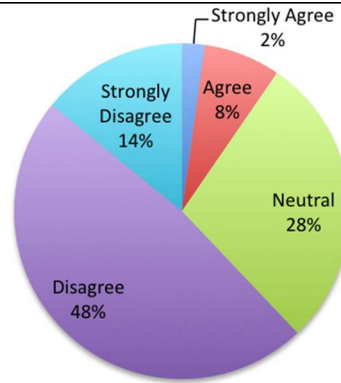
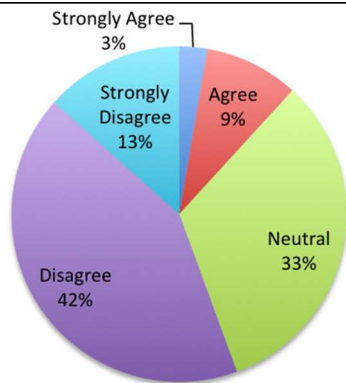
At first online learning was difficult but now I have confidence to do it.



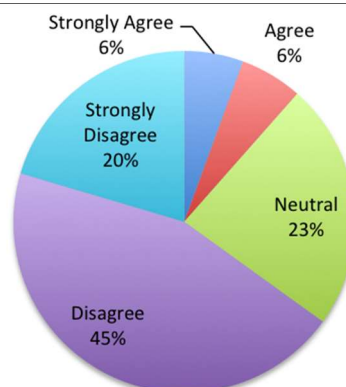
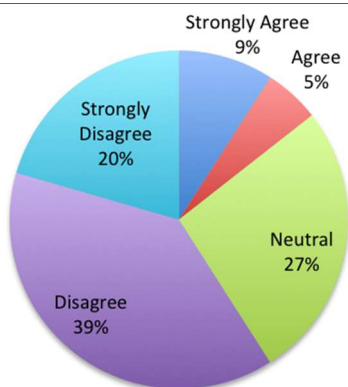
1st year respondents

2nd-4th year respondents

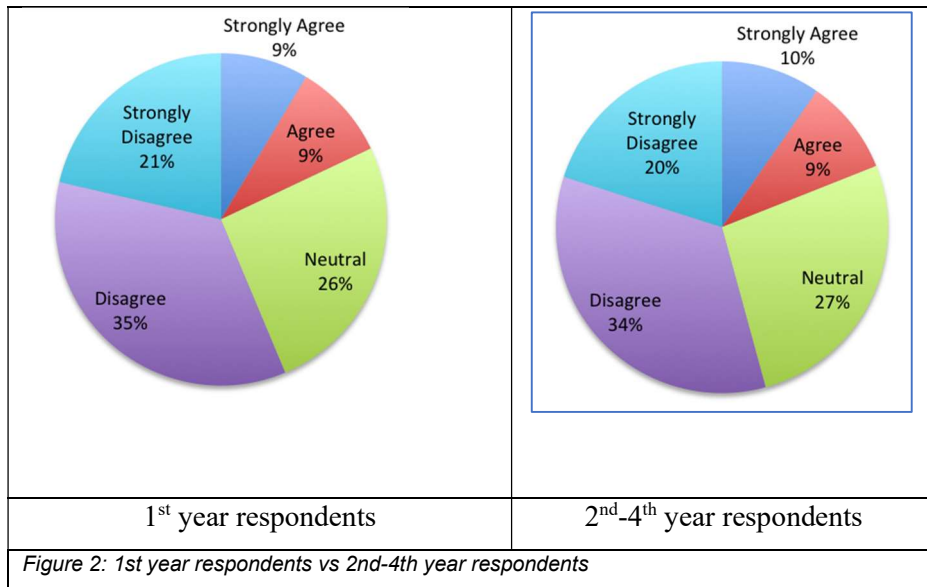
I think online classes are an effective and efficient method of learning.



I prefer online classes to face2face classes.



I would like to take some online classes even after the pandemic.



Open-ended results

Findings from the questionnaire are further elaborated in the supplemented open-ended questions designed to obtain qualitative data from the students:

1. What gave you the most anxiety from online learning?
2. What gave you the most joy from online learning?

Of the 642 respondents, 414 narrative comments were received for question 1 (most anxiety) and 435 comments were received for question 2 (most joy).

The analyzing process included examining each answer and designating categories. Many respondents wrote in Japanese and their responses required translation.

The result for the first question (most anxiety) is that 30% noted that the assignments were too difficult or the load was too heavy. This is significantly greater than the second most anxiety generating issue of cannot meet classmates or teacher at just 13%. (See Table 3).

Table 3: Summary of what gave the most anxiety from online learning (open-ended question)

	(n = 414)	%
Too much Homework	124	30%
Cannot meet classmates/ teacher	53	13%
Poor Internet/Wi-Fi connection	37	9%
Not enough feedback from Teacher/ poor class structure	30	7%
Zoom	25	6%
Physical pain eyes/neck	23	6%
Cannot understand what to do / If I passed the class	20	5%
Sitting in front of computer / multiple people talking at once /missed chance to talk	17	4%
Poor time management	14	3%
Poor school support	12	2%
Nervousness /Embarrassment of online classes	11	2%
Computer problems	11	2%
Being a first-year student	10	2%
Unable to attend because of part-time job /noisy family	6	1%
Silence during video class	6	1%
Nothing special	15	4%

The results also suggest that the volume of assignments is not equal to the amount of time given. A respondent said: *"I had a lot of homework and was stressed"* and correspondingly another commented: "課題の量、難易度の高さ" (The amount and difficulty of the tasks). At the beginning of the semester when the country was in full lockdown, teachers may have thought that students were confined to their home, so they had more time to study, perhaps this issue is the source of the overload. Or on the other hand, students may instinctively say that there is too much homework. One respondent recognized that it is not always the teacher that is to blame: "Accumulation of homework due to my laziness". highest generator of anxiety is: "Cannot meet classmates or teachers" at 13%. This suggests that students miss the face-to-face interaction of normal classes, as one respondent says: "That we can't meet any classmates and tutors face to face". At

9% Poor Internet or Wi-Fi connections gave the 3rd highest stress. Without proper bandwidth and updated hardware, it can be stressful to try to study and communicate online: "Poor internet connection was a major source of stress and anxiety for me" was not really an issue. Other relative responses were that there was poor communication and feedback from teachers. Some had trouble using the video app Zoom as one respondent put it: "It is hard to talk to the teacher privately and I often miss my chance to ask a question". Another major concern is the physical stress put on the body from sitting in front of the computer for long periods of time. Studies have indicated that prolong sitting can cause musculoskeletal disorders and reduce productivity (Korhan, O. Hossein, A. 2011).

A respondent commented: "I had to sit in front of PC for 90 minutes. It was very tired and bored [sic] for me". The stress and pain on the eyes and neck is a common

response. From these results it is clear that there are many ways that online learning can be improved to make the online learning a more rewarding experience.

The final question -What gave you the most joy or what did you like the best from online classes, had a variety of insightful answers. (See table 4).

Table 4 : Summary of what gave the most joy from online learning (open-ended question)

	(n = 435)	%
No Commute	99	23%
Pace	80	20%
More time for myself	44	10%
Ease to prepare for class	37	9%
Chatting with classmates and teacher	34	8%
Being at home	29	7%
Less infection risk	17	4%
Ease of taking classes/ asking questions	14	3%
Saving money on transportation and food	12	2%
Get more housework done/ less laundry	11	2%
Can attend class less and anywhere	9	1%
Improved computer skills/typing	8	<1%
More people attend class	6	<1%
More time to submit assignments	4	<1%
Ease of knowing others names	3	<1%
Do not have to show face	2	<1%
Nothing special	16	4%

No commute has the highest score at 23% and Pace (learning at my own pace) at 20%. The category of “No commute” had many different responses including: Not going to school, not having to move, not having to go to school and not having to ride the bus or train. This demonstrates the displeasure of having to commute to school every day and the stress that it causes, and is most likely echoed in the thoughts of the teachers too.

“It’s good that I don’t have to commute to my university”, is a popular response.

The second largest group was “Pace” which refers to the pace of learning and included responses such as: More time to study, able to work at my own pace, not worried about attendance, study at my own timing, can study when I feel like it, I am able to repeatedly check my work and I could review lectures freely. Taking the

anxiety away seemed to help students focus better; as one respondent put it: *“I can stay safe, be relaxed to taking classes, and study [sic] my own pace in my home”*.

The third highest with 10%, More time for myself is related to time management, efficiency and freedom. Many realized that they could control their actions to study more effectively and increase their own free time. Ease to prepare for class is at 9% which included the response of being able to sleep more. Connected to the morning commuting time let students sleep longer and then have more time to prepare for class by not having to get dressed or put on make-up: *“I didn’t have to make up my face [sic] and get up early”*. 8% said that chatting with classmates and teacher gave them the most joy. This included, making group, seeing others faces, making friends and chatting in English. 6% responded

that being at home gave them the least stress. This included the feeling of safety of my own home, not having to go out, not having to worry about the weather and being able to relax at home. 4% thought that the less risk of infection was the best part of online learning. Some replies were: I do not have to worry about getting Covid-19, I have less chance of getting the virus with online classes and if I get sick or pregnant I can still study.

3% thought that the ease of online classes gave them the most joy. As a respondent put it: *"I was able to ask questions in the chat room that I didn't feel comfortable asking in front of others"*. For some students, the intimacy of the chat room provides a relaxed environment that promotes communication.

Discussion

One of the main findings from the survey was concerned with homework. 58% of the students agree that "too much homework was a major source of stress and anxiety", which also corresponds with 30% of the open-ended responses. Does learner perception of homework volume change when learning is shifted online? In the beginning, teachers rationalized that learners would be home with plenty of time to handle a heavy load. This buildup of assignments slowly took a toll as just understanding the assignment on their own was a challenge. It is critical to understand course and homework requirements, and when this is online it adds another step to the process. Teachers should include this step and ensure that the compression process is included in time and effort of the overall assignment.

Under normal circumstances, online educators would be given time to prepare and make necessary pedagogical adjustments to the platform they must use to conduct online lessons. However, this spring there was little to no time given to prepare for a change from F2F to online lessons due to the pandemic. Many students had never experienced a class online and yet were suddenly forced to learn from home.

Part of this reason is that Japan has not invested in the use of technology in schools and has not shown much appetite for online learning. As Ishido Nanako, a professor at Keio University, posits, "People are too worried about egalitarianism. That's one of the major reasons we're still sticking to the conventional education style in which students sit passively in classrooms with pencils and notebooks", (NHK World Japan, 2020).

With most schools adopting conservative approaches to teaching/learning with social distancing measures and continuing in the fall semester with online classes to avoid anyone infecting others, hopefully most students will now be better prepared for online learning. As one respondent replied: *"Adapting to new online*

systems/class systems which differ from each class. Since the important notices were posted randomly in different ways, organizing information was stressful at the beginning". It will be the task of the school administrators to better coordinate the communication and means between students and instructors. This can be achieved by listening to instructors' feedback and comments and providing clear instructions. It would also be of benefit if all establishments used a common means of communicating, rather than the several different platforms.

In order to help reduce stress learners can: Make a prioritization matrix, build a routine and prepare well. Learners will have to prioritize their schedule. This means that they should understand what is expected of them from each class and ranking their task from most important to least. This will help them visualize and comprehend their task, it should help to relieve the stress of the unknown and those who are unprepared. By starting a formatted routine early in the semester students can become more accustomed to the schedule and work that needs to be done. Preparation is a key factor in relieving the anxiety especially that of online learning, which consists of knowing your schedule, preparing your study space, and communicating with instructors and school.

Conclusion

The results indicate that students feel confident learning online once they understand how to adapt to online courses. As noted by the students that have already adjusted after their first online semester with 46% either agreed or strongly agreed (table 2) and that some would like to keep using it in some form or other as a part of their study.

However, the overall findings indicate that while students accept the current situation, they would rather be back to normal lessons with face-to-face classes (59%) and only 8% indicating they found joy in chatting online. This can imply that 92% miss F2F interactions. This in turn, suggests that students miss the human contact known as the "hidden curriculum" that comes with being on-campus.

The change to online learning has been slow to be adopted in Japan and Covid-19 has thrust it onto students and educators and forced them to acknowledge the change, in the face of their own reticence. If online learning is to continue, schools will have to accommodate and support students by ensuring that they have adequate learning devices and the administrative infrastructure. For example, at Nagoya University of Commerce and Business at the beginning of the semester all students were given free laptops to join the online classes (Kyodo News, 2020).

The implementation of online learning has the potential to substitute or supplement traditional language teaching by including a wider geographic student body and providing more practical means to attend classes. In a proactive approach the Japanese government has decided to distribute tablets or laptops to all students at school by next spring. According to Ishio: "Schools may be reopening, but it doesn't mean things are going back to the old style", (NHK World Japan, 2020). As online learning has many benefits and the potential to reach a wider range of learners and providing students with creative alternatives to the traditional methods, a more proactive response is required, coupled with the need to replace what has been considered to be lost- the hidden curriculum.

Limitations / Further Research

A larger sample set of data would have provided stronger evidence and results.

Future directions include a nationwide survey, and a more detailed study to measure not only the opinions but the achievements of online learners after a year of online learning. Without real-time feedback, the route taken by schools may be more deleterious than beneficial. Thus, a flexible system is required to ensure teachers and students get the most out of this new system, and can adapt when required.

References

Adams, A., Randall, S., & Traustadóttir, T. (2015). A tale of two sections: An experiment to compare the effectiveness of a hybrid versus a traditional lecture format in introductory microbiology. *CBE Life Sciences Education*, 14 (1), ar6-ar6. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.14-08-0118>.

Atmojo, A. E. P., & Nugroho, A. (2020). EFL classes must go online! Teaching activities and challenges during COVID-19 Pandemic in Indonesia. *Register Journal*, 13(1), 49-76. <https://doi.org/10.18326/rgt.v13i1.49-76>

Bernard, R. M., Borokhovski, E., Schmid, R. F., Tamim, R. M., & Abrami, P. C. (2014). A meta-analysis of blended learning and technology use in higher education: From the general to the

applied. *Journal of Computing in Higher Education*, 26 (1), 87-122. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12528-013-9077-3>.

Brown, J.D. (2001). *Understanding research in second language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Chew, S.Y., Ng, L.L. (2016). The Relevance of Personality and Language Proficiency on the Participation Style of ESL Learners in Face-to-Face and Online Discussions. *Asia-Pacific Edu Res* 25, 605–613. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s40299-016-0288-z>

Dörnyei, Z. (2012). How to Design and Analyze Surveys in Second Language Acquisition Research. In *Research Methods in Second Language Acquisition: A Practical Guide*. Blackwell Publishing Ltd. 1, 74-93.

Funamori, M. (2017), "The issues Japanese higher education face in the digital age—Are Japanese universities to blame for the slow progress towards an information-based society?", *International Journal of Institutional Research and Management International Institute of Applied Informatics*, 1 (1), 37-51.

González-Gómez, D., Jeong, J. S., & Rodríguez, D. A. (2016). Performance and perception in the flipped learning model: An initial approach to evaluate the effectiveness of a new teaching methodology in a general science classroom. *Journal of Science Education and Technology*, 25 (3), 450-459. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10956-016-9605-9>.

Greisamer, M. A. (2020). *Student Online Learning Survey – Missing the Hidden Curriculum*. *Hawaii TESOL, The Word*. 30,1, 40-43. <http://hawaiiitesol.wildapricot.org/resources/Documents/Word/2020%20Sep.pdf>

- Halupa, C. (2016). Risk: The Impact of Online Learning and Technology on Student Physical, Mental, emotional, and Social Health. International Technology, Education and Development Conference Paper. DOI: 10.21125/iceri.2016.0044.
- Hashim, H., & Yunus, M. M. (2020). Pupils' motivation and perceptions on ESL lessons through online quiz-games. *Journal of Education and E-Learning Research*, 7 (3), 229-234.
Available at:
<https://doi.org/10.20448/journal.509.2020.73.229.234>.
- Henriksen, D., Creely, E., & Henderson, M. (2020). Folk pedagogies for teacher transitions: Approaches to synchronous online learning in the wake of COVID-19. *Journal of Technology and Teacher Education*, 28 (2), 201-209.
- Hodges, C., Moore, S., Lockee, B., Trust, T., & Bond, A. (2020). The difference between emergency remote teaching and online learning. *Educause Review*, 27.
- Kelly, A. V. (2009). *The curriculum: Theory and practice* (6th ed.). London: Sage Publications.
- Korhan, O., Hossein, A. (2011). The Impact of Laptop and Desktop Computer Workstations on Human Productivity. Retrieved from:https://www.researchgate.net/publication/233903895_THE_IMPACT_OF_LAPTOP_AND_DESKTOP_COMPUTER_WORKSTATIONS_ON_HUMAN_PRODUCTIVITY.
- Kyodo News. (April 7, 2020). Over half of univ. students in Japan positive about online lectures. <https://english.kyodonews.net/news/2020/04/fd697eb678cf-over-half-of-univ-students-in-japan-positive-about-online-lectures.html>.
- Nae, N. (2020). "ONLINE LEARNING DURING THE PANDEMIC: WHERE DOES JAPAN STAND?" *Euromentor Journal*, Nagoya University of Commerce and Business, 11(2), 7-24.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/342505298_ONLINE_LEARNING_DURING_THE_PANDEMIC_WHERE_DOES_JAPAN_STAND.
- NHK World Japan. (Tuesday June 16, 2020). Coronavirus crisis shows Japan lagging in online education. <https://www3.nhk.or.jp/nhkworld/en/news/backstories/1137/>.
- Plonsky, L., & Derrick, D. J. (2016). A meta-analysis of reliability coefficients in second language research. *Modern Language Journal*, 100, 538-553.
- Rahmtallah, E. & Al-Saim, A. (2021). EFL LEARNERS' PERCEPTION OF USING ONLINE LANGUAGE LEARNING WEBSITES DURING COVID-19 PANDEMIC. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*. 9. 5-14.
- Xie, A. P., Rau, P. L. P., Tseng, Y. C., Su, H. & Zhao, C. (2009). Cross-cultural influence on communication effectiveness and user interface design. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 33, 1, 11–20.
- Yunus, M., Hasim, H., Embi, M. A. y Lubis, M. A. (2010). The Utilization of ICT in the Teaching and Learning of English: 'Tell Me More'. *Procedia. Social and Behavioural Sciences*, 9, 685-691.

Evaluation of Duolingo to Promote Language Acquisition: A University Case Study

Sian Edwards
Aichi University

James Drew
Aichi University

The use of technology, specifically mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) in the English language classroom has been increasing in popularity in recent years and while many areas of this technological revolution have been well investigated, research into the effectiveness and experience of MALL in a Japanese University context is still lacking. Duolingo is a language-learning platform currently being used by more than 500 million people worldwide making it the leading language learning software and according to the Duolingo website (2012) "an independent study conducted by the City University of New York and the University of South Carolina, an average of 34 hours of Duolingo are equivalent to a full university semester of language education." Due to the scarcity of research in this area and the claims by the makers of Duolingo, research was undertaken to investigate their assertions in the context of Japanese university students of English.

近年、英語のクラスでテクノロジーの利用、特にスマートフォンを使用した言語学習（MALL）の人気の高まっています。このテクノロジーの変革に関する多くの分野がよく研究されている一方で、日本の大学での MALL の効果と体験に関する研究はまだ極めて不十分です。Duolingo は、現在、世界中で 5 億人以上が利用している言語学習プラットフォームで、代表的な言語学習ソフトウェアです。Duolingo のウェブサイトによると、ニューヨーク市立大学と南カロライナ大学が行った独自の研究では、平均 34 時間の Duolingo の利用は、大学の 1 学期分の言語教育に相当するとのこと。この分野の研究は少なく、上記の学習効果を確認するために Duolingo 日本の大学で英語を学ぶ生徒を対象に研究をしました。

There are many benefits of having a high specification computer in our pockets, with most of the world's knowledge theoretically at our fingertips and so due to ubiquitous smart phone ownership by students in most further education contexts, MALL is becoming an increasingly integrated part of many people's learning, whether that is self-initiated or institution led. This can take many forms - students researching essays through their smartphone Internet browser, using the inbuilt cameras and microphones to make video and audio projects, and even using them in place of the more traditional desktop or laptop computers to complete written assignments. Language learning applications (apps) are another way in which some learners and educators are trying to use popular technology to boost language acquisition results. Duolingo is one of the most popular language apps and according to its own website it is "the world's largest online language learning platform, with over 500 million users" (Von Ahn, 2020). Therefore, it may be necessary for English (and other language) teachers to further consider how this technology may be applied in classrooms. This pilot

study was designed to answer the following research questions:

1. How effective is Duolingo in developing L2 acquisition in English language learners in a Japanese university context?
2. What are the experiences of students using Duolingo to study English?

Context

MALL

Mobile assisted language learning (MALL) is becoming more prevalent in educational contexts as a way of furthering both formal and informal language learning. The ubiquitous nature of phones, the ability to access learning materials without the constraints of time and space, the social interactivity, the connectivity, the context-sensitivity and ability to individualize and customize learning materials based on user needs, make it a highly attractive prospect for both educators

and learners alike (Klopfer et al., 2002). MALL offers unique, dynamic opportunities for learning and interaction that traditional classroom settings cannot provide and so a growing body of research is developing to ascertain its effectiveness in second language acquisition and how to best incorporate it into education.

When it comes to language learning, a plethora of apps, such as dictionary, AI translation and flashcard memorization apps, among others, are often used. Some flashcard apps are general purpose (e.g. Anki, Quizlet, Memrise), with user created content and/or shared online community content covering topics from capital cities to sports trivia. Then there is the ever-growing selection of foreign language specific apps, such as Babbel, Mondly, Lingoda and Busuu, to name some of the most popular.

Duolingo

The Duolingo Application (www.duolingo.com) is available as a smartphone application on Android, Apple iOS and Google Play, and also as a regular website, making it universally accessible. As of August 2021, it includes a total of 106 different language courses in 40 languages, including endangered and fictional languages. Duolingo uses a Freemium model (with a premium service also available for a monthly fee) where all content is available free of charge, with advertisements at the end of each lesson. This technology introduces language content based on a functional approach (such as ordering in a restaurant), with an emphasis on grammar-translation activities. It includes tasks such as matching images to words, forming phrases by ordering words, voice recordings, reading sentences and listening to pronunciation. It personalizes its educational experience through machine-learning which allows users to access learning materials at the correct level, and it focuses on implicit learning, where users discover language patterns themselves through the completion of various tasks. This is also supported by explicit instruction in the form of "Tips," where items such as grammar, pronunciation and useful phrases are clarified in a clear and concise manner. Duolingo exploits gamification to keep users motivated through its system of rewards; gems (virtual currency), crowns, XP points and badges. It also incentivizes learning through structures such as study streaks, leader boards and the unlocking of new levels. Duolingo's bite-sized lessons, its guilt-inducing mascots, and its penchant for interesting sentences ("We don't sell planes to elephants") adds to its appeal as a fun way to learn a language. Recently Duolingo has also begun to expand its scope through providing interactive stories, podcasts and in-person events for some of the language-learning programs it offers.

Duolingo and other apps have their own strengths and weaknesses, which while regularly implicitly understood,

are not often explicitly analyzed and applied as part of an effective overall language learning plan. However according to Tommerdahl et. al. (2021), who conducted a systematic review of existing research articles focused on FLL (Foreign Language Learning) apps, 81% of the articles found FLL apps to be "effective in improving the targeted language area." Munday (2016) found favorable attitudes towards the use of Duolingo as part of a university language course, although these attitudes waned in higher level students. These positive feelings were echoed by university students in a study by Loewen et. al. (2019), though there was more fluctuation in motivation levels and overall app satisfaction.

A disadvantage of learning using apps is a potential lack of knowledge and understanding about non-verbal aspects of communicating in the target language (gesture meaning, impolite actions, etc.), and the fact that as smart as some AI programs are becoming, they are simply not human. Nushi and Eqbali (2020) highlight how the grammar-translation model leaves learners far from immersion-style learning, as well as excluding potential learners who do not possess the appropriate L1. Furthermore, on the downside of gamification, Ravenscraft (2019), (who accumulated a study "streak" of 500 days) found himself revisiting easier content - rather than studying new content - when he felt short of time and/or motivation.

Vesselinov and Grego (2012) conducted an eight-week study into the effectiveness of Duolingo, focused on English speakers learning beginner level Spanish. They found a statistically significant increase in the 386 participants' Spanish levels from pre to post tests, but that study time, motivation, and starting level were all key factors. It should be noted that this study was sponsored by Duolingo, and fueled their 2012 advertising campaign: "an average of 34 hours of Duolingo are equivalent to a full university semester of language education." Krashen (2014) questions this claim, as the age of participants averaged 32 – differing from standard university students, which may be relevant in relation to motivation, experience, and learning pace.

Methods

Participants

The participants for this study were low-intermediate, English language major, first-year university students. Eight participants in total took part - two males and six females. All took part in a voluntary capacity, and all research was approved by the university research committee. The participants were divided into two groups, three in the control, and five in the experimental group.

As explained above, Duolingo is a free language learning website and mobile app.

Literacy

The test taker's ability to read and write.

Comprehension

The test taker's ability to read and listen.

Conversation

The test taker's ability to listen and speak.

Production

The test taker's ability to write and speak.

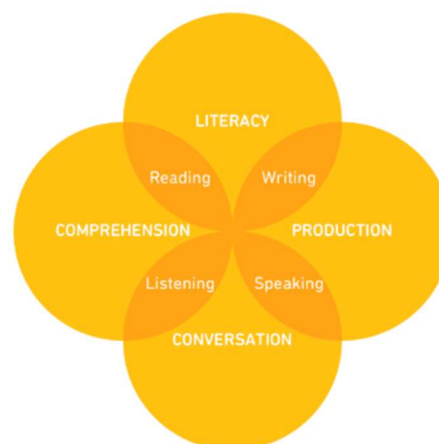


Figure 1.

The Duolingo English test subscores.

Procedure

The following procedure is loosely based on the methodology used by Vesselinov and Grego (2012) in their “Duolingo Effectiveness Study” in which, the Spanish language gains of beginner level students were measured via pre-study and post-study tests. The participants of the current study were required to attend two research sessions. The first session involved explaining the research project, completing questionnaires (Appendix A) and taking the Duolingo English Language Proficiency Assessment exam online. The second session was held eight weeks later. In this session all students once again undertook the Duolingo exam and a post-study questionnaire (Appendix B). The purpose of pre and post testing was to enable comparison within the same framework of any improvement in the level of the students’ English after the eight weeks of interim study. In the intervening weeks the students who belonged to the “control” group did no additional study (beyond their regular university classes). The “experimental” group however was required to study for an additional 30 minutes minimum per week using the Duolingo mobile application. These participants were encouraged to use the app on a regular basis (most days) as opposed to completing a single longer study session per week. Participants however were not given any further advice as to which topics or courses to study and these decisions were left to individuals.

Tools

The Duolingo Application

The Duolingo English Test

The Duolingo English Test is an increasingly popular and widely accepted (Redden, 2020), affordable (\$49), adaptive online test, which takes approximately an hour to complete. It can be taken anywhere on a computer with a good internet connection, rendering test centers unnecessary. It tests the four language skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking but, unlike TOEFL and IELTS, which follow traditional test paradigms, the adaptive nature of this test means the questions change depending on the answers that have gone before. This enables AI software to swiftly and accurately establish the level of the test-taker. This test also differs from more traditional testing forms in that all four skills are blended and tested within the same short exam and the question-styles are dissimilar to the customary styles, such as: listening to spoken words and then selecting the real words or completing the missing letters from a text. While this test has many advantages over its counterparts, namely price, convenience and brevity, it also has some limitations in its rigor. The need for test-takers’ ears to be constantly in view, the requisite to not look away from the screen for extended periods, and the prohibition of note-taking, to name just a few. Once the test has been completed and submitted, between 24-48 hours later results are sent by email. Test-takers receive a computer calculated holistic score of their overall English level on a scale of 10-160, and subscores which are separated into the categories of Literacy, Comprehension, Conversation and Production (Figure 1). The overall scores are not averages of the subscores, but weighted combinations.

Questionnaire 1

The initial questionnaire that participants were required to fill out before the research was undertaken (see Appendix A), had the goal of establishing the general English level of the students, their hitherto experience of studying language using MALL and also their weekly English exposure. The overall intention was to identify suitable participants for the study and this had a conscious predilection towards the more average experience and level participants. The intention was to exclude participants who had lived abroad for longer lengths of time and those who had especially high English levels or unusually high exposure to English, from this study and also participants who had previously studied using the Duolingo application.

In reality however, possibly due to the Coronavirus pandemic and online teaching situation, very few students opted to take part in this study and so whilst participants were suitable insofar as not having lived abroad and having relatively similar English exposure per week and not having used MALL and especially Duolingo before, a few students had a higher level of English (TOEIC 800 plus) than was ideal.

On average, all students took six English classes per week (including conversation, writing and TOEIC classes) and all students also had further exposure to English in their leisure time through activities such as extra individual study and watching YouTube and movies in English. From the initial questionnaire there was no way to establish accurately the level of the participants as not all of the students had undertaken the same tests, highlighting the need for a pre-study proficiency test.

Questionnaire 2

The second questionnaire (see Appendix B) was undertaken to answer research question 2. "What are

the experiences of students using Duolingo to study English?" Its goal was to establish the participants' attitudes to, and experiences of, studying English using Duolingo (experimental group) as well as the participants' impressions of the Duolingo English Test (all participants).

Results

Pre-Study Duolingo English Test Scores

The three members of the control group are participants A, B and C, while the five members of the experimental group are participants D to H. Pre-study test scores for all participants can be seen in Figure 2.

Post-Study Duolingo English Test Scores

Post-study test scores for all participants can be seen in Figure 3.

Control Versus Experimental Group

Figure 4 shows the variation from pre-study to post-study test scores for all participants. While the small overall sample size renders the statistical data unreliable, and the unbalanced nature of the groups detracts from its validity, it is hard to say that the differences in pre- and post-study test scores between the two groups is completely insignificant. When looking at the mean data, the participants in the experimental group improved more than students in the control group in all areas of the Duolingo English Test.

The greatest improvement was seen in the Production section, with a mean gain of +7, followed by Literacy (+5.33), Conversation (+3), Comprehension (+2.67) and a +2 difference in improvement in the Overall Score (Figure 5).

Figure 2
Pre-Study Test Scores

Participant	Overall Score	Literacy	Conversation	Comprehension	Production
A	125	125	110	140	85
B	85	95	60	95	55
C	70	80	40	85	25
D	70	75	50	75	45
E	75	70	70	90	40
F	70	70	50	85	30
G	105	110	85	110	80
H	100	100	80	120	50

Figure 3

Post-Study Test Scores

Participant	Overall Score	Literacy	Conversation	Comprehension	Production
A	120	120	105	140	70
B	95	100	65	110	45
C	80	85	55	95	50
D	85	90	65	105	45
E	80	85	65	95	50
F	80	85	60	95	45
G	105	95	105	115	75
H	105	105	80	120	65

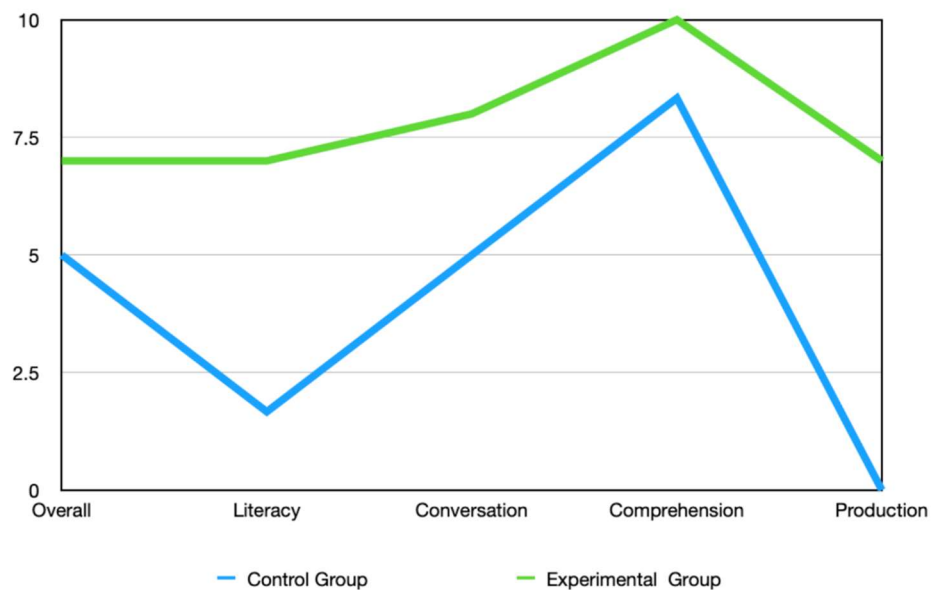
Figure 4

Control vs Experimental Gains

Participant	Overall Score	Literacy	Conversation	Comprehension	Production
A	- 5	- 5	- 5	0	- 15
B	+ 10	+5	+ 5	+ 15	- 10
C	+ 10	+5	+ 15	+ 10	+ 25
Mean	+5	+1.67	+5	+8.33	0
D	+ 15	+ 15	+ 15	+ 30	0
E	+ 5	+ 15	- 5	+ 5	+ 10
F	+ 10	+ 15	+ 10	+ 10	+ 15
G	0	- 15	+ 20	+ 5	- 5
H	+ 5	+ 5	0	0	+ 15
Mean	+7	+7	+8	+10	+7

Figure 5

Mean Test Improvement



Duolingo Study Habits

Figure 6. shows the study habits of the experimental group (Students D to H), collected from the Duolingo for Schools website. “XP Points” (short for experience points) are accumulated as learners study on Duolingo. Learners are generally awarded 10 XP for each lesson, plus various other bonuses for study streaks and other challenges. Lessons are the bite-sized study sessions that make up the full course, which usually take around five to ten minutes to complete. “Course Progress” is the total number of “Skills,” (which are composed of “Lessons”) of which the Duolingo English Course currently (as of June 2021) has 56 in total. There appears to be little correlation between study habits and pre-study to post-study test gains among these participants.

Participant Feedback

All participants completed a post-study questionnaire (Appendix B). The control group gave feedback on the Duolingo English test only, while the experimental group also reported on their study habits and feelings about Duolingo. In terms of study habits, there was a lot of variation. Some studied almost daily, and others twice a week, with sessions ranging from 5 to 20 minutes in length. The evening was the most popular study time (3 of 5), while 60% sometimes used the “Tips” feature. However, the majority (4 of 5) never took notes while studying on Duolingo.

Regarding users' attitudes, there was an overall positive perception of Duolingo (Figure 7). In addition to these general notions, the students particularly enjoyed the competitive league aspect of gamification, and the listening and speaking questions within lessons, while “gold,” “trophies,” and the intuitive user interface aided their motivation. Three of the participants commented on the English being too easy, which reflects the results of previous studies. Despite this perceived lack of linguistic challenge, students still felt that reviewing the basics in this way contributed to improving their English level, with participant G stating that their “small grammar mistakes had decreased.” Indeed, grammar, along with pronunciation, had the most mentions in perceived improved skills, while at the other end of the spectrum vocabulary only received one mention, which further supports the impression that the content is not quite challenging enough for these participants.

When comparing test data from the experimental group with their Duolingo study habit data set, it is difficult to see any patterns emerge. For example, while Student D improved the most in their tests (+15 Overall), they were also active for the least number of days (8), and third out of five in terms of XP Points, Lessons and Skills. However, Student E, who had the best Duolingo study habits by some margin, only improved by 5 points in the Overall Score, and dropped by 5 points in the Conversation category of the test. Student G, who also had very regular study habits, had no improvement in the Overall Score, balanced out by a gain in Conversation, and drop in Literacy (see Figure 6).

Figure 6
Duolingo Study Habits

Participant	XP Points	Days Active	Lessons	Course Progress (Skills)	Test Gains
D	1195	8	68	27	0
E	3981	42	203	56	+10
F	1078	24	60	9	+15
G	2849	41	171	14	-5
H	894	27	50	56	+15

Figure 7

Attitudes Towards Duolingo

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
I enjoyed using Duolingo (DL).	2	1	2	0	0
Using DL improved my English.	0	4	1	0	0
Using DL was a good use of my time.	2	2	1	0	0
Using DL made me feel more motivated to study English.	2	2	1	0	0
I enjoyed taking the DL English Test.	1	3	1	0	0

Discussion

Limitations

It should be acknowledged that this research was carried out under some limitations. The number of participants was low, which makes both the test and survey results statistically unreliable. The results do appear to reveal a bias towards the use of Duolingo being advantageous to language learning, though this is by no means conclusive.

Another limitation is the study duration. It is presumed that the longer regular study is undertaken on Duolingo, the greater the potential language gains, and the more reliable the research data. A further consideration is the fact that participants are university English language majors. This means that participants have regular exposure to and interaction in the target language. Although basic, general quantities of exposure could be taken into account such as the number of classes in English and the level of interaction with English in less formal situations (music, YouTube, etc.) via the initial survey; Factoring individual English exposure, use and level of engagement with English was not possible, so it is probable that incidental English exposure may have had an impact on English language gains and the test results.

The lack of prescriptive instruction on how to use and what to learn on Duolingo was initially considered by the researchers to be a beneficial, more organic way for participants to interact with the technology and arrive at their own tailored level, style and method of study with minimal teacher interaction to create an informal, not strongly enforced way of study. However, this casual approach meant that some participants did not adhere strictly to study recommendations - a minimum of 30 min of study per week, preferably over a few days as opposed to one longer session per week. Some participants were more inclined towards longer but

fewer study sessions. Also, while some participants focused on completing all levels of individual skills (meaning that they studied many “lessons” on the same topic and language points but covered fewer “skills” overall), others studied each “skill” to only a basic level (meaning they studied fewer lessons on the same topic and language points but covered more “skills” overall). Depending on individual test content, the participants’ preferred method of Duolingo study may have put them at an advantage or disadvantage for the final test. These factors cannot be accounted for within the scope of the current pilot study but they should be taken into consideration for future research.

Conclusion

In conclusion, studying using Duolingo presents a unique, modern way to engage Japanese university students in regular English language study. It embodies many advantages such as mobility, convenience, and gamification. It is also free, user-friendly and it provides individualized content. While its benefits are evident, its efficacy in aiding second language acquisition with provable gains however, still remains to be determined. In regards to this pilot study for the research question “How effective is Duolingo in developing L2 acquisition in English language learners in a Japanese university context?” It can be said that this research points to the possibility of a correlation between the use of Duolingo and language acquisition benefits, with those participants who did study using Duolingo demonstrating a higher mean second-test result in comparison to the first. However, as outlined in the limitations section there are many extenuating aspects which need to be taken into account and no firm conclusions can be drawn at this stage without further investigation.

On examination of the participants study habits in terms of study frequency, lesson content, skills practice, study time and XP points achieved, there was no discernable

pattern to the gains made in the post-study test which may point to the fact that other factors such as university classes or informal study may be impacting on test results in ways which cannot be measured.

For the research question “What are the experiences of students using Duolingo to study English?” overall experiences tended to be positive with participants generally having enjoyed using Duolingo and perhaps more importantly feeling it was beneficial, especially in the aspects of reviewing the basics and decreasing small grammar errors. Participants also felt motivated to study in this manner and some appreciated the regular study-habit building it fostered. Most negative feedback and comments were related to the level of the course content found on Duolingo with many participants feeling that the content was too easy.

Further investigation should particularly focus on the results of a larger data set and for the research to be carried out over a longer period of time in the hopes that differences between the pre- and post-test scores will become more pronounced with particular consideration to be given to calculating statistical significance which may prove the efficacy of regular study using the Duolingo application. It is also supposed that results will be more clearly seen in lower-level students as seen in the research of Vesselinov & Grego and so greater efforts should be made to recruit lower-level participants.

Attention should furthermore be drawn to the fact that any perceived language gains derived from the use of Duolingo as a study aid cannot be naturally said to equal sociolinguistic competence in real-life use and interactions and according to Krashen (2014):

Both Duolingo and most foreign language instruction are based on conscious learning, as was the test used in Vesselinov and Grego. There is a great deal of evidence showing that conscious learning does not produce true language competence. Among this evidence is the consistent finding that methods that promote subconscious language acquisition are far more effective than traditional methods on communicative tests and are slightly more effective or just as effective on tests of grammar (Krashen, 1982, 2003).

Overall, regular use of Duolingo does appear to be beneficial to language learning and it does also seem to be an engaging method for Japanese university students to form an English-study habit. This however should be tempered by the knowledge that in general lower-level students make greater language gains using this app and that only studying in this manner will not necessarily make learners fluent or necessarily even conversant in their target language.

References

- Duolingo. (n.d). Duolingo. <https://www.duolingo.com/>
- Grego, J. & Vesselinov, R. (2012). Duolingo Effectiveness Study. Final Report http://static.duolingo.com/s3/DuolingoReport_Final.pdf
- Klopfer, E., Squire, K., & Jenkins, H. (2002). Environmental Detectives: PDAs as a Window into a Virtual Simulated World. IEEE International Workshop on Wireless and Mobile Technologies in Education. <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.457.5222&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Krashen, S. (2014, January). Does Duolingo ‘Trump’ University-Level Language Learning? The International Journal of Foreign Language Teaching. <http://sdkrashen.com/content/articles/krashen-does-duolingo-trump.pdf>
- Loewen, S., Crowther, D., Isbell, D. R., Kim, K. M., Maloney, J., Miller, Z. F., & Rawal, H. (2019). Mobile-assisted language learning: A Duolingo case study. EuroCALL Cambridge University Press. <https://www.cambridge.org/core>.
- Munday, P. (2016). The case for using Duolingo as part of the language classroom experience. RIED. <https://blogderied.blogspot.com/2017/05/the-case-for-using-duolingo-as-part-of.html>
- Nushi, M. & Eqbali, M. H. (2020). Duolingo: A Mobile Application To Assist Second Language Learning. Teaching English with Technology. <https://www.ceeol.com/search/article-detail?id=478437>
- Ravenscraft, E. (2019, May, 4). 500 Days of Duolingo: What you Can (and Can't) Learn from a

Language App. The New York Times.
<https://www.nytimes.com/2019/05/04/smarter-living/500-days-of-duolingo-what-you-can-and-cant-learn-from-a-language-app.html>

Redden, E. (2020, May 19). Duolingo's Moment. Inside Higher Ed.
<https://www.insidehighered.com/news/2020/05/19/more-colleges-accept-duolingo-english-test-scores-evidence-proficiency>

Tommerdahl, J. M., Dragonflame, C. S., & Olsen, A. A. (2021). Efficacy of Mobile Apps in Teaching Foreign Languages: A Systematic Review. *ORTESOL Journal*, Vol. 38, 2021.
<https://ortesol.wildapricot.org/resources/Docume>

[nts/Publications/Journals/2021/Efficacy%20of%20Mobile%20Apps%20and%20FLL-Dragonflame%20et%20al-Vol38%20.pdf](https://www.ortesol.org/Publications/Journals/2021/Efficacy%20of%20Mobile%20Apps%20and%20FLL-Dragonflame%20et%20al-Vol38%20.pdf)

Von Ahn, L. (2020). Language Learning Trends in a Year Like no Other. Duolingo Blog.
<https://blog.duolingo.com/global-language-report-2020/>

Appendices

Appendix A

Pre-Study Participants' Questionnaire

Volunteer Information

1. Name:
2. Student number:
3. Age:
4. Email address:
5. University Department:
6. TOEIC score (if known):
7. Eiken level (if known):
8. Have you ever lived or studied abroad? Yes / No (circle one)

If you answered "Yes" to question 8, please give some details (Q's 9~11):

9. Where did you study?
10. How long were you there?
11. What did you do there? (e.g. working holiday, studying English, high school exchange, etc.)

12. Have you ever used the application 'Duolingo' before? Yes / No

If you answered "Yes" to question 12, please also answer questions 13 to 16:

13. Which language did you study?
14. How often did you study?
15. When did you use Duolingo?
16. How long did you study using Duolingo?

17. Do you use any other application to study English? Yes / No
18. If so, which other applications do you use?

University English Study

19. How many university classes do you take per week?
20. Of these classes, how many are conducted in English?
21. Please list the names of the classes that are conducted in English:
22. How many university classes do you take per week, which are conducted in Japanese but which involve English study, for example grammar classes? (Do not include general language courses like linguistics):
23. Please give the names of the English classes that are conducted in Japanese:

Use of English in Your Daily Life

24. Do you use English outside of your university classes? Yes / No
25. If so, in what way? Please give as much detail as possible, such as reason and frequency.

26. Do you regularly consume (watch or listen to) English media for pleasure? Yes / No

27. If so in what way? Please give details, especially how often you do that.

Additional English Study

28. Other than your university homework, do you regularly study English outside of your university classes?
Yes / No

29. If so in what way? Please give details especially how often you do that.

30. Why are you interested in joining this research project?

31. If you have any other comments or questions, please write them below. You may write in English or in Japanese.

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire!

Appendix B

Post-Study Participants' Questionnaire

Note:

The control group (who did not use Duolingo) only answered the first section (Volunteer Information) and the fourth section (The Duolingo English Test).

The experimental group (who did use Duolingo) answered the entirety of the following questionnaire.

Volunteer Information

1. Name:
2. Date of Birth:
3. Latest TOEIC score (if known):
4. Latest Eiken level (if known):

Duolingo Study Habits

5. During the 8 week experiment, how often did you study English on Duolingo (on average)?

Every day / six times a week / five times a week / four times a week / three times a week / twice a week / once a week (Circle one)

6. When did you usually study on Duolingo?

In the morning (before school or work) / in the afternoon / in the evening (after school or work)

More details:

7. Did you use the 'Tips' option while studying?

Always / Often / Sometimes / Rarely / Never

8. Did you ever make notes (or do any kind of writing with a pen/pencil) when you used Duolingo?

Always / Often / Sometimes / Rarely / Never

Your feelings about Duolingo

9. I enjoyed using Duolingo.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

Why / Why not?

10. What did you particularly enjoy about using Duolingo? Please give as much detail as you can!

11. What did you not enjoy about using Duolingo? Again, please give as much detail as possible.

12. I think that using Duolingo helped my English language ability improve.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

13. In what specific ways do you think that Duolingo helped to improve your English, if any?

14. I wanted to use Duolingo...

...not at all. / ...slightly less. / ...the same amount / ...slightly more. / ...a lot more.

15.. I feel that Duolingo was a good use of my time.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

16. I think using Duolingo is LESS effective for learning English than:

Using English textbooks / Doing other university English homework assignments / Giving presentations in English / Reading English books & comics / Watching English movies and TV shows / Talking to my friends in English / Talking to native speakers in English / Other:

(Select as many as appropriate)

17. I think using Duolingo is MORE effective for learning English than:

Using English textbooks / Doing other university English homework assignments / Giving presentations in English / Reading English books & comics / Watching English movies and TV shows / Talking to my friends in English / Talking to native speakers in English / Other:

(Select as many as appropriate)

18.. I would recommend Duolingo to other Japanese students who want to improve their English ability.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

19. I would like to use Duolingo in my university classes on campus.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

20. I would like to use Duolingo as homework for my university classes.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

21. I think Duolingo would be useful for most 1st-year English major students at our University.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

22. Using Duolingo made me feel more motivated to study English.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

23. I will continue to use Duolingo to study English by myself.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

24. Which features of Duolingo did you find motivated you? Check all that apply.

XP points / Leader boards / Gold / Checkpoints / Encouragement / Lingots / Streaks / Fluency score / Trophies / Other:

25. Which English skills do you think Duolingo helped you develop? Check all that apply.

Listening / Reading / Writing / Grammar / Speaking / Pronunciation / Vocabulary / Other:

The Duolingo English Test

26. I enjoyed taking the Duolingo English test.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

27. How challenging was the test?

Very easy / A little easy / Medium / A little difficult / Very difficult

28. I feel that taking the Duolingo English Test was beneficial for me.

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

29. Do you feel that seeing the details of your test scores (Overall score, literacy, conversation, comprehension, production) was useful for you?

Strongly Agree / Slightly Agree / Neither Agree Nor Disagree / Slightly Disagree / Strongly Disagree

30. What did you think of the Duolingo English Test method (technology)?

31. Do you have any other comments about the Duolingo English Test?

The Case for an Active Learning: A Conducive, Productive and Inclusive, Online and Face-to-Face Pedagogy

Alan Mulvey

Kyoto Tachibana University

Taking a leap into the culture of English communication and bridging the gap between a space to speak and language production, the goal of intercultural competence would be achieved, not by way of the traditional lecture, rather through a more active learning environment, that is, classes that involve groupwork. These more participatory classes are conducive to many, not only students who love English, but also those looking for more autonomy and self-direction as learners, helping internalize motivations to learn. This increase in engagement, and a greatly motivated desire for achievement, are reflected in demand-pull for critical reasoning opportunities in the classroom, and students' satisfaction with groupwork situations therein. This conducive learning environment satisfies diverse students: the introvert, easing social tension; both women and men, giving a space to deepen understanding, and to learn by doing, respectively; and students of a wide range of abilities, nurturing self-direction even in those who find learning English difficult. This self-reliant quality serves students very well in any situation, both face-to-face, and online, where it is essential.

日本語概要 英語コミュニケーション文化の中に飛び込み、話す場と言語生産の間のギャップを埋めることで、異文化間能力という目標は、従来の講義ではなく、よりアクティブな学習環境、簡単に言えば、グループワークを伴う授業によって達成されるでしょう。このような参加型の授業は、英語が好きな学生だけでなく、学習者としての自律性や自己決定力を高めたい学生も多く、学習意欲の内面化に役立ちます。このように学習意欲を高めることは、それ自体が生産的です。さらに、達成意欲も大きく向上します。これは、批判的推論の機会に対する需要喚起と、それを提供するグループワークの状況に対する生徒の満足度に反映されています。このような学習環境は、内向的な学生の社会的緊張を和らげ、男女共に理解を深める場、やってみることで学ぶ場を提供し、幅広い能力の学生には、英語学習が困難な学生も含めて自己決定力を養うなど、多様な学生を満足させるものです。そして、この自立した資質は、対面式でもオンラインでも、どんな場面でも必要不可欠なものなのです。

On the world stage, Active Learning (AL) has been adopted by the UNDP sustainable development goals program to promote “inclusive, equitable, quality education” and women’s education in particular (undp.org). My research started with a curiosity to know if active learning is appropriate to this goal – if a quality education, regardless of gender, appreciated by students in pursuit of their education goals, is embodied in AL.

In Japan, AL was introduced around the year 2000 and by 2014 was officially accepted by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) (Yamada, A., et al., 2018).

Definition of Active Learning

Active Learning is defined extensively (Freeman, 2014; Bonwell, et al., 1991; Prince, 2004; Peck, 2016) as

collaborative, joyful, experiential learning (Kolb, 1984), building critical reasoning skills (Bloom, 1956) towards knowledge acquisition (Vygotsky, 1987).

The particular treatment of AL being measured in this article needs to be defined briefly so that the reader may picture the student in a certain learning environment. AL classrooms investigated in this article see students immersed in small groups, learning from each other – practicing, expanding, and personalizing materials of instruction. You will hear that each group has a leader – in rotation – using well-rehearsed English phrases to workshop assignments with their members (e.g. “What did you put for Number 1?”), to ask for assistance of their teacher (e.g. “How do I pronounce this word?”), and you will hear the teacher take over from and hand back to the leaders’ thanks to their use of key, timely phrases in well-rehearsed situations (e.g. “<Teacher’s

name>, we are ready”). This base of language production means students can stay in English while learning English, and seek help from the teacher, who circulates between groups. The students are never tasked to present in front of the whole class - students present exclusively within their small group or to the teacher when she is nearby. Other groups may be listening in, case by case – and this active listening is encouraged – but the group presenting does not feel that it is presenting publicly. By degrees, students come to trust this learning environment and how it values their autonomy, their relatedness with each other, and their competence as students (Deci, 1985). This is the conducive learning environment referred to throughout this article as Active Learning (AL).

The Current Study

It is the students’ definition of AL that is important in any analysis. I want to know the merits of AL, and so, starting with the question of inclusivity raised by the UNDP goals, I wanted to know my students’ experiences in what they refer to as ‘classes incorporating groupwork’. Is it conducive or productive to them and does it cater to a range of student types? I also wanted to know if it will be effective online.

RQ1: Is AL appropriate for my students in their language class? Are students generally satisfied with the AL treatment, and if so, what is satisfying about it? (Study 1).

RQ2: Is AL beneficial to learning English? If so, in what areas? Does this vary with different types of motivated learners? What type of ideas and opinions tend to go together, i.e. what types of student profiles are there in my class? (Study 2).

RQ3: Is there a connection between motivation to learn English and motivation to use AL? If so, are there other characteristics of students that are engaged by AL? Again, what kind of ideas and opinions tended to go together here to create a profile of students? (Study 3).

RQ4: Is AL a conducive environment online? And does AL give students self-motivation enough to stay on course in their studies remotely? (Study 4).

Methodology

Four studies were carried out over a 2-year period, 2019-20, of Japanese English students in AL classes in universities of Kyoto, Japan.

Study 1

Participants

A 2020 questionnaire of AL classes of 1st and 2nd year English majors in a Japanese university, pre-study abroad program (98 students).

Instruments

In the survey, targeting RQ1 – the appropriateness of the AL environment – students stated their simple preference for active learning classes over the standard lecture. They were then invited to respond freely to an open, non-leading question, その理由は? “The reason is?” (See Appendix 1 for a sample of student responses).

Data Analysis

The responses were categorized under motivation: intrinsic, identified (Deci, 1985), and ideal-self motivations (Dörnyei, 2005). They were also categorized under psychological needs as learners i.e. autonomy, relatedness, and competence (Deci, 1985). Responses were further categorized under critical reasoning skills (Bloom, 1956). And lastly, responses were categorized under different modes of learning.

Study 2

Participants

A 2019 survey of 1st and 2nd year AL English students, from two Japanese universities, made up of English majors in one Japanese university, pre-study abroad program, and various required English classes of social sciences majors in the other university (198 students).

Instruments

In the survey, targeting RQ2 – the benefits of AL and the profiles of students experiencing those benefits – statements were presented, modified from Agawa & Takeuchi (2016), with which students could agree or disagree on a Likert scale of 1 to 10 (approximating interval data), in multi-item scales, related to motivation to engage in the AL treatment and satisfaction with its components (Survey items are included in Table 7).

Data Analysis

The benefits of AL to students were surveyed and from this a profile of students could be built based on how AL motivates them. For this, an Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was used. An EFA is a statistical method used to find underlying relationships in a large set of variables. An EFA is used to group items by underlying statistical trend – using SPSS in this case to analyze survey responses – and output components that profile, in this case, two types of AL student.

Study 3

Participants

Study 3 was a survey in July 2020, of 1st and 2nd year AL English students, from two Japanese universities (the same two as in study 2), made up of English majors in one Japanese university, pre-study abroad program, and various, required English classes of social sciences majors in the other university (258 students).

Instruments

In study 3, targeting RQ3 – characteristics of students who derive motivation from AL – statements and questions were presented to students, with which they could agree or disagree on a Likert scale of 1 to 10 (Survey items are included in Appendix 2).

Data Analysis

The survey items establish, in multi-item scales, the type of student responding and their preferences in AL. The two types of student established by factor analysis previously (EFA, study 2) were established again in this larger cohort, study 3 (258 students), manually, on Google Forms, as a summation of responses to statements and questions overlapping those presented in study 2. The two types of student analysed, were compared in their responses on preferences in AL and compared between the two universities, and compared in their motivation, personality and listening skill characteristics.

Study 4

Participants

Four years of participants, 2017-2021 – 1st year English majors in a Japanese university, pre-study abroad program – in a one-year extensive reading program (96, or so, students per year).

Instruments

An extensive reading (ER) program was surveyed over four years, including pre- and during-pandemic, targeting RQ4 – AL online. ER is a program in which students read by themselves to target word quantities, week by week, and it runs online every year. It has an important, motivating, supporting intensive reading (IR) tuition – a scaffolding for performance in ER – in which students learn how to critically think of word collocation and intra-paragraph context to aid comprehension and their sense of satisfaction as they read. IR tuition is an AL class, and it went online half-way through the period of study.

Data Analysis

Reading scores were compared pre- and during-pandemic and inferences were made on both the qualities of the AL students taking the program and the qualities of AL class tuition to perform well online.

Results

Study 1

On RQ1 – the appropriateness of the AL environment – the survey showed equal affection for active learning or, as students refer to it, “classes that incorporate group-work”, regardless of gender (Table 1).

Responses categorize students experience of AL as addressing ‘identified’ motivations. In the survey, both women and men expressed identified and ideal-self motivations for desiring groupwork – 85% and 82% respectively – over and above intrinsic motivation – 15% and 18% respectively (Table 2).

On their psychological needs as learners (Deci, 1985), both groups placed autonomy, relatedness, and competence, in that order, with significant weighting on autonomy as a need satisfied by groupwork. And, as the survey shows, for the women, the proportion was 51%, 28% and 21%, respectively, while for the men it was 44%, 33% and 23% respectively (Table 3).

Responses categorized under critical reasoning skills indicate that students experience the AL environment as a space that gives them the chance to *understand*, *apply*, *analyze*, and *create*, beyond merely *remembering* (Bloom, 1956), as the survey shows. (Table 4).

Results of the same survey indicated different modes of learning. Women valued the opportunities in AL groupwork to express opinions and ideas, noted in keywords from their responses, ‘opinion’, ‘self’, ‘opportunity’, and ‘partner’. Meanwhile, men appreciated the opportunity to learn by doing, not just by listening, noted in the keywords, ‘class’, ‘teacher’, ‘English’, and ‘understanding’. The survey also showed that women and men used the keyword ‘output’ in equal proportion, indicating a shared appreciation of groupwork for facilitating language production (Table 5). (Sample of responses: Appendix 1).

Table 1

Liking of Active Learning by Both Men and Women

- どちらの授業の方が力がつくと思いますか？ (“Which class do you think is more powerful?”)

	グループワークを取り入れた授業 (“Classes that incorporate group-work”)	先生の話だけを聞くだけの授業 (“Classes that only listen to the teacher”)
n=98	93.9% (92 students)	6.1% (6 students)
Men 31 Ss	93.55% (29 Ss)	6.45% (2 Ss)
Women 67 Ss	94.03% (63 Ss)	5.97% (4 Ss)

Table 2

Women's and Men's Learner Motivation as a Reason for a Preference for Active Learning

	Intrinsic e.g. “Fun”	Extrinsic (Identified) e.g. “Reason to be active”	Extrinsic (Ideal-self) e.g. “Know self / opinion”
Women	5	1	18
Total 33 uses	5 (15%)	28 (85%)	9
Men	4	4	11
Total 22 uses	4 (18%)	18 (82%)	3

Table 3

Women's and Men's Psychological Needs as a Reason for a Preference for Active Learning

Psychological needs	Example reasons	Woman	Men
Autonomy	“Can learn from each other; think for myself”	17	7
	“Can express self / own opinion”	16	4
	“Not get bored to listen just to the teacher”	8	5
	“Want interaction with teacher”	2	1
		Total 43 (51%)	Total 17 (44%)
Relatedness	“Listen / learn other's opinions”	14	7
	“Create good environment”	7	3
	“Communication”	2	3
		Total 23 (28%)	Total 13 (33%)
Competence	“Improve my skills by sharing”	Total 18 (21%)	Total 9 (23%)

Table 4

Women's and Men's Critical Reasoning Skill Acquisition as a Reason for a Preference for Active Learning

Skill	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Women 62 exp.	0	14 (22.5%)	18 (29%)	14 (22.5%)	3 (5%)	13 (21%)
Men 29 exp.	0	5 (17%)	13 (45%)	3 (10%)	2 (7%)	6 (21%)

Women, 62 expressions	Learn (1) Learn better/deeper (3) Learn independently (1)	Apply (1) Participate (3) Do activities (2)	Strengthen/deepen thinking (13) Remark (1) Convey (2)	Think for yourself (3)	Create (2) Give opinion (1) Teach (1) Learn new ways of thinking (1)
Men, 29 expressions		Use (1) Exchange (1)	Activate (1) Investigate (1) Discuss (1)	Agree (1) Compare (1)	Assert (1)
Used by both genders: 30 expressions (33%)	Know (5)(1) Understand (2)(1) Understand deeper (1)(1) Acquire (1)(2)	Express (3)(1) Practice (2)(1) Converse (1)(4)	Concentrate (1)(2)		Cooperate (2)(3) Improve (6)(2) Share (3)(3)

Table 5

Keywords in Male and Female Modes of Learning in Active Learning

Keywords	Male	Female	Ratio (*)	
意見, 発言	Opinion, Remark	9	29	1 : 1.6
自分	Self	3	25	1 : 4.2
機会	Opportunity	2	7	1 : 1.75
相手	Partner	1	6	1 : 3
アウトプット	Output	2	4	1 : 1
授業	Class	8	4	4 : 1
先生	Teacher	4	4	2 : 1
英語	English	6	7	1.7 : 1
理解	Understanding	2	3	1.3 : 1

Notes. (*) Keyword ratios are adjusted (/2) in proportion to male-female samples. Data analyzed with the help of Mr. Junichi Mori, Professor, Kyoto Tachibana University.

Study 2

On RQ 2 – the benefits of AL and the profiles of students experiencing those benefits – the results of the factor analysis (EFA), presented in the table, found two component factors, listed as component 1 and 2 (which profile two types of student), one of which, component 1, accounts for 60% of variance in the data and is as such the majority component when compared to the other component, which is by far in the minority, accumulating only 8.6% of total variance in the data (Table 6).

These two profiles are presented as components 1 and 2, respectively, in the next table. It presents the details of the factor analysis, showing the survey questions posed alongside the trends in responses that establish the two component student profiles, as shown (Table 7).

As shown in this table, the first, dominant, factor describes students intrinsically motivated by active learning – student type 1. They enjoy it and they are active and confident. The second, minority factor describes students who are more externally motivated – student type 2.

Student type 1: Strongly likes AL for practice of survival English, towards fluent communication, aiding their autonomy, as well as their grammar, vocabulary, speaking, listening, reading, and writing skills.

Student type 2: Likes AL for building competencies for studying abroad, for expressing themselves to their teacher, and for IELTS/TOEIC skills. They are less sure that it builds their confidence, or their reading and writing skills.

Table 6

Two Components Identified from an Exploratory Factor Analysis of Responses, with 60.5% and 8.65% of Variance (Validity: Eigen >1)

Component	Total Variance Explained								
	Total	Initial Eigenvalues		Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
		% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.865	60.497	60.497	7.865	60.497	60.497	5.083	39.103	39.103
2	1.124	8.647	69.144	1.124	8.647	69.144	3.905	30.041	69.144
3	.839	6.456	75.600						
4	.530	4.074	79.674						
5	.465	3.576	83.250						
6	.422	3.245	86.496						
7	.390	3.002	89.498						
8	.296	2.275	91.773						
9	.279	2.147	93.920						
10	.232	1.785	95.705						
11	.221	1.701	97.405						
12	.179	1.379	98.785						
13	.158	1.215	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 7

Two Types of Students Identified from Component EFA Groupings of Survey Responses

- 1: Intrinsically Motivated; Need for Autonomy; Attaining Functional Communication Skills
- 2: Extrinsically Motivated; Need for Competence; Unconfident in Skills Development

Rotated Component Matrix ^a			
	Component		
	1	2	
Timing	.799		Question Items on Use of Active Learning
SurvivalEng	.789		Timing: My fluency improved - I can respond in good-time?
GrV	.769		SurvivalEng: My functional skills improved - I can survive in English?
S	.742		GrV: My vocabulary and grammar improved?
L	.713		S: My speaking skills improved?
W	.700	.420	L: My listening skills improved?
LikesMethod	.689	.508	W: My writing skills improved?
R	.672	.458	LikesMethod: I like group-work and having survival English and 'leader' skills?
MethodUsefulActiveConfident	.587	.474	R: My Reading Skills Improved?
MethodUsefulSAP		.852	MethodUsefulActiveConfidence: I think group-work, survival English and 'leader' skills help me to be active and confident?
MethodUsefulExpressMyselfToTeacher		.820	MethodUsefulSAP: I think having group-work, survival English and 'leader' skills is important for studying abroad (SAP)?
MethodUsefulTOEICIELTS		.790	MethodUsefulExpressMyselfToTeacher: I think group-work, survival English and 'leader' skills helps me express myself and represent myself to my teacher?
IdoMethodBecauseTeacherMakesMe		.770	MethodUsefulTOEIC/IELTS: I think having group-work, survival English and 'leader' skills will improve my TOEIC / IELTS test-taking skills?
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. ^a			IdoMethodBecauseTeacherMakesMe: I do use group-work, survival English and 'leader' skills but only because my teacher wants me to?
a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.			

Study 3

On RQ3 – characteristics of students who derive motivation from AL – the survey in this study, study 3, taking forward the profile of the two types of students established, found a correlation between intrinsic motivation in AL (student type 1) and a strong motivation to learn English. Meanwhile, those with extrinsic motivation in AL (student type 2) have less motivation to learn English. Unsurprisingly, compared with non-English-majors in another university, those for whom English is their major are confirmed to be more motivated to learn English, as shown (Table 8).

The next table shows English majors, that are strongly intrinsically motivated in AL, being, on balance, introverted. Meanwhile, those more externally, and less strongly, motivated in AL are of more mixed personality. (Table 9).

In the next results table, we can see a preference for face-to-face active learning in the extrinsically motivated AL students and so too, though much less so, in intrinsically motivated AL students (Table 10).

In the last table in this survey we can see that listening issues are greater online, and students referred to in table 10, who prefer face-to-face lessons, have less listening ability (Table 11).

Table 8

Motivation of the Two Student Types in Active Learning in Two Universities

	Uni. A. Eng. major; S=126 7 AL Class/wk; S=14/class.	Uni. B. Non-major; S=132 1 AL class/wk; S=30+/class.
AL Student Type 1	7.14 (105 Ss; 83%)	6.98 (88 Ss; 67%)
& Eng. Motivation	8.12 (strong interest)	7.4 (medium interest)
AL Student Type 2	4.73	4.53
& Eng. Motivation	6.8 (mild interest)	5.8 (neutral interest)

Notes. Likert Scale 1-10

Table 9

Personality of the Two Student Types in Active Learning in Two Universities

	Uni. A. Eng. major; S=126 7 AL Class/wk; S=14/class.	Uni. B. Non-major; S=132 1 AL class/wk; S=30+/class.
AL Student Type 1	7.14	6.98
& Ex/introvert	4.32 (mild introverted)	3.9 (introverted)
AL Student Type 2	4.73	4.53
& Ex/introvert	5.48 (neutral)	4.3 (mildly introvert)

Notes. Likert Scale 1-10

Table 10

Preference for AL Online in the Two Student Types in Two Universities

	Uni. A. Eng. major; S=126 7 AL Class/wk; S=14/class.	Uni. B. Non-major; S=132 1 AL class/wk; S=30+/class.
AL Student Type 1	7.14	6.98
& Prefer Online	4.4 (somewhat prefer F-to-F)	5.49 (neutral)
AL Student Type 2	4.73	4.53
& Prefer Online	3.66 (prefers F-to-F)	5.32 (neutral)

Notes. Likert Scale 1-10

Table 11

Listening Issues Online in the Two Student Types in Two Universities

Cohort	Uni. A. Eng. major; S=126 7 AL Class/wk; S=14/class.	Uni. B. Non-major; S=132 1 AL class/wk; S=30+/class.
AL Student Type 1	7.14	6.98
& Listening Issues	5.6 (neutral)	7.17 (difficulty online)
AL Student Type 2	4.73	4.53
& Listening Issues	6.24 (mild difficulty online)	5.82 (neutral)

Notes. Likert Scale 1-10

Study 4

On RQ4 – AL performance online – the results tables of this study show that student performance in the online extensive reading program was seen to improve year on year despite the disruption to face-to-face class tuition (Table 12, Table 13).

In the discussion section to come, I will speculate to attribute some of the reason for these positive results on qualities in both AL students and the AL tuition itself.

Table 12

Performance of AL Students in Online Extensive Reading: Words read per day (w/d)

	First 21 days w/d	Subsequent 48 days w/d	Total Period w/d
2017	2148	2434	2274
2018	2244	2318	2151
2019	2437	2572	2507
2020	2804	2505	2163

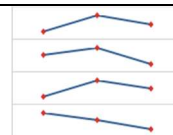
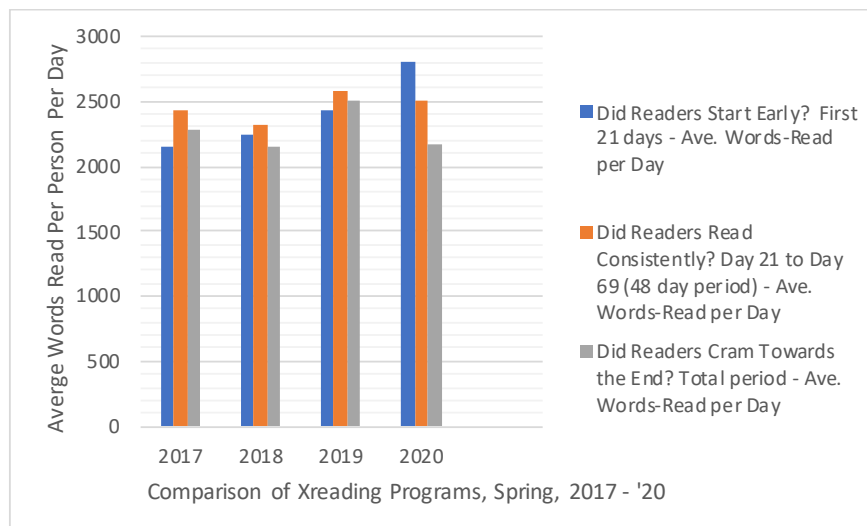


Table 13

Comparison of Performance of AL Students in Online Extensive Reading



Discussion

Study 1

Discussion of RQ1 results – the appropriateness of the AL environment.

A Conducive Environment

Results indicated a conducive environment, satisfying psychological needs.

The results show that intrinsic, identified, and ideal-self motivations are present in students of the current study. Intrinsic motivation is regarded as a preferable motivation that students require for efficacy in learning (Deci, 1985). Close in quality to this, however, are identified motivation, an extrinsic motivation, in which students self-direct their behavior towards identified goals and accept the importance of learning (Deci, 1985) and ideal-self motivation, in which the student seeks to bridge the gap between the actual self and an ideal, L2-fluent self (Dörnyei, 2005).

The results of the AL treatment in this study suggest that students are learning to relax, to look around, actively listen and copy each other, and interact in small problem-solving groups with low social tension and

ample time for self-reflection. Such interaction allows “complex interplays of their interpretations of activity designs, their appropriation of instructional materials, their negotiation of moment-by-moment orientations, and their positioning in interpersonal relationships” (Hasegawa, 2018).

This study of groupwork classes show that they satisfy students’ psychological needs, promote internalization of motivations, self-determination, and the autonomy to think and express; promote a conducive relatedness between students, and a sense of competency and achievement in their abilities in the classroom.

A Productive Environment

The survey indicated a productive environment – satisfying motivation to apply critical reasoning to learning. Classes that involve groupwork give a space to play and manipulate materials in knowledge acquisition (Vygotsky, 1987). The results of the survey mean that critical reasoning skills are developing.

An Inclusive Environment

The survey indicated that men and women share an almost identical profile, indicating inclusivity.

The AL of this study is inclusive of different modes of learning – those who learn by critical reasoning, and those who learn by doing.

It is inclusive too of different learning abilities. For students who find learning English difficult, my AL treatment has advantages since it starts with developing listening ability by using rote phrases that become familiar, and that are embedded in groupwork to reduce the tension of learning in class. As per a Shinshu University study (2012), students with lower academic ability particularly benefit from participating in AL.

These ‘classes that involve groupwork’ seem to address the UNDP goals on education to satisfy a wide range of students.

Study 2

Discussion of RQ 2 results – the benefits of AL and the profiles of students experiencing those benefits.

A Conducive Environment

The survey indicated profiles for 2 types of student, who, in the majority, are intrinsically motivated by AL and so the results may mean that the students in this study can engage in AL autonomously as they pursue their internalized learning goals.

A Productive Environment

The results in this survey suggest that students would agree that what it is that they are experiencing in AL is a route to efficacy in learning and hence, accomplishment.

An Inclusive Environment

The dominant profile established in this study can suggest that the AL treatment experienced by these students has stewarded them towards a greater power to internalize their learning goals, the better to attain them. If AL represents a conducive learning environment, then it should allow an “unforced, self-directed learning, reducing cognitive strain and making learning easier” (Kahneman, 2011), and broadening the pool of students who fit into the profile of the self-motivated student.

Study 3

Discussion of RQ3 results – characteristics of students who derive motivation from AL.

A Conducive Environment

Data associated intrinsic motivation for AL with a greater, stronger motivation to learn English. What may be indicated here is the deepening and internalizing effect of autonomy on learners.

A Productive Environment

The differently motivated students in this study share an introverted character. Their positive responses towards AL showed perhaps the space AL provides for interaction and language production.

An Inclusive Environment

If groupwork in AL makes for an easier study environment for many, AL may suit introverted students by reducing emotional strain in the learning environment.

An Active Online Environment

The AL English major students in this study, with greater, intrinsic motivation are more flexible than extrinsically motivated students as to whether classes are face-to-face or online.

Their slight preference for face-to-face tuition, coupled with the same opinion in most of the other groups, may make a point about the difficulties of listening in English online, and so they prefer face to face classes as a result.

However, the AL treatment discussed can give students more control over their interactions, from their position in small, familiar groups, to become more active, engaged listeners.

Study 4

Discussion of RQ4 results – AL performance online.

A Conducive Environment

The results in the online extensive reading program indicate that AL tuition can curate the conducive learning environment equally well online as face-to-face.

A Productive Environment

One of the reasons it may be conducive to good academic performance *online* is that since it promotes learner autonomy, it is nurturing self-reliant capacities.

An Inclusive Environment

What ways can our classes facilitate anyone who wishes to study online? Where online tuition has become a practical solution for many kinds of student, it is important to have a tool kit as a teacher that works in that environment, and the data in the current study show that AL can be a useful part of that tool kit.

An Active Online Environment

In the positive results in this extensive reading survey, what can be inferred is that support from intensive active-reading classes in building critical reading skills was not disrupted as classes went online. The inference is that AL classes can be successful online – as

successful as face-to-face – in supporting good academic performance.

Conclusions

Students generally, and regardless of gender, are satisfied with the AL treatment and I would encourage teachers to give it a go. As a result of these surveys, I can see that students are satisfied with AL on positive intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and on their psychological needs as learners.

Teachers can think about the results of this study in terms of how well students seem to utilize AL in the areas of functional skill acquisition, preparing for study abroad, and in other areas related to more directed learner needs. And it does this, with the right treatment, by being fun and engaging. It does this with varying degrees of success depending on the types of motivation in learners, but it always encourages learners towards an ownership of their goals.

There is a connection between motivation to use AL in learning English and motivation to learn English. Through the years teaching, surveying and discussing my results, it is always present in my mind that the character of the student learning a foreign language is often demotivated by the social pressures of the classroom and I think they can find in the AL environment, a space to succeed.

My teaching has certainly evolved with this research – in method and manner – and something to keep in mind as a teacher, is the profile of students wherein the intrinsically motivated can have stronger motivation to study English, be somewhat more introverted, and can be very flexible and accommodating, for example, about whether classes are face-to-face or online, partly due to greater listening abilities. Another profile of student, meanwhile, can be extrinsically motivated, have weaker motivation, be less introverted and yet be more dependent on face-to-face classes for the reason that greater listening challenges await online.

Something to keep in mind is that both of those types of students are present together in your classroom. One might suggest that groupwork classes offer a way for these students to play to their strengths and work together to make the environment of learning more conducive for each other, whether online or face-to-face.

AL works online, notwithstanding the unique challenges there. It utilizes the tools of the room or the online classroom software well, and this is not lost on the students, it seems, or on me as a teacher who can more easily manage to direct a student-centered lesson,

catering to the needs of a few or of the individual, even online. AL can certainly be useful in this way. For these reasons, I infer a lot for the successful role of reading tuition online in the discussion of the extensive reading program.

What I didn't get to in the present study was a kind of before and after survey. I wonder can we say that AL deepens motivation? Do some students move from extrinsic to a more internalized or intrinsic motivation to learn English through the use of AL over a semester say, or a year? The data has given me some answers but more questions. Does AL tend to promote internalization of motivations? Are there other treatments of AL that would do the same thing? What treatment would you use, if you use AL?

I would also like to have known, both in an online and face-to-face context, how did students' level of autonomy in AL impact their feelings of autonomy online? Did students with high autonomous motivation – as seen in their evaluation of AL – score better in extensive reading online? Did students' motivation type (intrinsic / extrinsic) relate to their extensive reading scores? This would be future research.

My teaching interest is in facilitating diverse types of learners and bringing an improving teaching method and manner to that task. My aim would be that my students have a positive engagement with education now that hopefully leaves them optimistic to whatever possibilities come up for them in life-long learning and ultimately, active, long lives.

References

- Agawa, T., Takeuchi, O. (2016). A new questionnaire to assess Japanese EFL learners' motivation: development and validation. *Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan*, 27, 1–16.
- Bloom, B. Englehart, M.D., Furst, E.J., Hill, W.H., Krathwohl, D. (1956). *Taxonomy of educational objectives, handbook I: The cognitive domain*. Addison-Wesley Longman Ltd; 2nd edition. ISBN 0582280109.
- Bonwell, C., Eison, J. (1991). Active learning: creating excitement in the classroom. *AEHE-ERIC Higher Education Report*, 1. Jossey-Bass. ISBN 978-1-878380-08-1.

- Deci, E. L., Ryan, R. M. (1985). *Intrinsic motivation and self-determination in human behavior*. Springer. ISBN 978-1-4899-2273-1.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Lawrence Erlbaum. DOI:10.1177/0261927X05281424.
- Freeman, S., Eddy, S. L., McDonough, M., Smith, M. K., Okoroafor, N., Jordt, H., Wenderoth, M. P. (2014). Active learning increases student performance in science, engineering, and mathematics. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 111(23), 8410–8415. Doi:10.1073/pnas.
- Hasegawa, H. (2018) Understanding task-in-process through the lens of laughter: Activity designs, instructional materials, learner orientations, and interpersonal relationships. *Modern Language Journal*, 102(1), 142–161.
- Kahneman, D. (2011). *Thinking fast, thinking slow*. Penguin Random House.
- Kolb, D. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Prentice Hall.
- Peck, M. (2016). *What exactly is student-centered learning?* Retrieved, February 20, 2022, from <https://literacyandlanguagecenter.com/>
- Prince, M. (2004). Does active learning work? A review of the research. *Journal of Engineering Education*, 93(3), 223–231.
- Shinshu University. (2012). *Test results in children studying in traditional and modern classes*. Retrieved January 06, 2021, from <https://shinshu-u.ac.jp/>
- UNDP SDGs. (n.d.). Retrieved November 22, 2020, from <https://un.org/sustainabledevelopment/education/>
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1987). *The collected works of L. S. Vygotsky. Volume 1. Problems of general psychology*. (R. W. Reiber and A. S. Carton (Eds.) Plenum Press. ISBN 978-1-4612-8919-7.
- Yamada, A., Yamada, R. (2018). The new movement of active learning in Japanese higher education: The analysis of active learning in Japanese graduate programs. *Active learning* (Sílvia Manuel Brito, Ed.) DOI: 10.5772/intechopen.80836

Appendices

Appendix 1

Re. Tables 1–5. A Sample of 36 Student Survey Response Reasons (Translated from Japanese) for Preferring “Classes that incorporate group-work” グループワークを取り入れた授業 - その理由は? Keywords pertaining to a sentence-contextual sentiment are grouped and recorded in tables 1–5.

It's boring just listening.

It's easy to lose concentration, on the other hand groupwork can run better because you actually think for yourself and express your opinion.

To cultivate not only listening but also the ability to speak and cooperate.

You can know both your opinion and the other people's opinion.

I thought it would be nice to hear a lot of opinions.

It improves your ability to express your opinions in English.

We can get a lot of opportunities to think and express our opinion to others.

I don't like just listening but if we have a lot of group-work we speak in Japanese, so I don't want to do a lot of groupwork.

There are people who don't listen carefully in traditional classes.

I have more opportunities to speak in English.

It's fun.

I can listen to many opinions.

When working in a group, I and my partner can acquire knowledge and skills.

It's a proactive way to learn and apply what you've learned.

Creating a good atmosphere in the classroom will motivate Ss to be active.

It will help Ss to improve their speaking skills because it helps Ss to produce output.

There are many disadvantages to just listening to the teacher's class such as feeling sleepy or not being able to concentrate enough but I think it is because group work is not only fun but it's also good for students to actively express their own opinions and compare their own opinions with those of the other students.

I think it is better to have an opportunity to speak English positively Because I want to keep my motivation for class.

You can listen to various opinions and a new way of thinking.

I think it is effective and important for learning to express people's opinions It better to have an output in addition to an input.

It's important to speak to the student.

It's important to think of the opportunity to use English for communication.

We can think ourselves.

Because I don't want to sleep.

I can say something myself.

I can hear the opinions of others.

I can know the opinions of other people.

I will acquire the power to think for myself and combine with the other people.

I can take in various opinions.

I can share the opinions of various people.

We are sleepy to listen to teacher.

We don't get bored and can have power to speak English in group-work.

We want to practice speaking English conversation.

Groupwork can be active and output is important because we can practice English communication and have a power to speak English which makes it easier to join the class.

Appendix 2

Survey Questions, July 2020 Survey, Likert 1–10 (10=Yes)

Related to the students' description of the value of AL, and hence a definition of 2 student types (1: Intrinsic, directed and ideal-self motivation, and 2: the more external motivated):

My speaking skills improved?

My reading skills improved?

My listening skills improved?

My writing skills improved?

My survival English skills improved (= I can survive in English)?

My fluency improved (= I can respond in good-time)?

My vocabulary and grammar improved?

I like workshops in small groups and having survival English and leader skills?

I think these groupwork, survival English and leader skills helps me to be active and confident?

I changed from not liking groupwork, survival English and leaderskills to enjoying it?

Some students who don't enjoy leader skills / groupwork still find classes that they like at times. So, at times, its actually fun. Are you one of those students?

Did it get easier to motivate yourself to do leaderskills after you started to do it?

Did it get easier to motivate yourself to do survival English after you started to do it?

Motivation to do active leader skills got easier as my communication skills got better?

Motivation to do groupwork got easier as my speaking skills got better?

I think being a group leader helped me to be active and confident?

I think survival English will help me to express myself and represent myself better?

Related to personality:

I am a quiet, shy student (introverted)

I am a confident, outgoing student (extroverted)

Related to motivation to learn English (Internal, and directed motivation):

I like learning English for myself - it's fun

I like learning English for my future - it's important

Related to skills

It's difficult to hear the teacher online (more difficult than face to face classes)

I prefer online, zoom lessons (more than face to face classroom lessons)

Tutor Voices: Adjusting to Online Writing Tutoring

Nicholas Delgrego

Tsuru Bunka University

2020 brought the COVID-19 pandemic and with it changes to academic life, especially in writing centers. Face-to-face tutoring sessions became nearly impossible, and some Japanese University Writing Centers (JUWCs) switched to an online tutoring format. The interaction between tutor and writer was thrust into an uncharted arena. Some tutoring skills could easily be adapted to an online format, but other unique challenges arose. Three tutors from a private Japanese university were interviewed about their struggle to adjust to online tutoring. The responses were transcribed, coded, and classified according to three categories of online learning challenges: technological, pedagogical, and social (Ferri et al., 2020). Some of the challenges addressed by the tutors included the role of silence during sessions, reading the writer's nonverbal communication cues, and frustration with new technological platforms. The tutors also mentioned methods that helped them overcome some of these difficulties and the benefits of collaboration/conferencing with other tutors.

2020年はコロナ禍により、学術環境やライティングセンターのチュータリングに大きな変化が起こった。対面形式はほぼ不可能となり、オンライン方式への切り替えを行った日本の大学のライティングセンターも多い。チューターと学習者の交流は未知の領域に突入し、オンライン方式に容易に適合できたスキルもあったが特異な課題も発生した。本稿は、日本の私立大学で活動するチューター3人の取材協力により、オンライン方式に取り組む上での葛藤や挑戦をまとめた調査報告である。回答は、オンライン学習の試みに関する先行研究で用いられた技術面、教育面、社会面 (Ferri et al., 2020) という3つのカテゴリーに分けて分類しデータをコード化して分析した。この試みには、学習者が文章を読んだり、新しいプラットフォームを使いこなすまでの沈黙も含まれる。加えて、困難の克服や他のチューターとの協業・会議の利点にも言及する。

University writing centers are resources that offer assistance to writers at any stage of the writing process. The overarching goal of writing centers, as stated by North (1984, 1994), is not to fix writing but to make better writers. One way to produce better writers is through the use of questions as primary tutoring strategies in writing center tutorial conferences (Brooks, 1991; Harris 1992, as cited in Thompson & Mackiewicz, 2014). While skillful questioning is how the production takes place, where it takes place is just as important. Physical writing centers are described as spaces "where students should feel secure in their expression of thoughts and ideas" (Bouquet, 1999, p. 470).

This paper focuses on one Japanese University Writing Center (JUWC) and the challenges addressed by tutors during the shift from in-person tutoring to online sessions during the COVID-19 pandemic of the 2020 academic year. While JUWCs have largely imported operating principles from North American centers (Fujioka, 2012), such as the use of questioning to conduct sessions as well as being housed in dedicated locations on campus (Sadoshima, 2006), some had yet to utilize online services. In a survey of seven JUWCs none offered online writing services in recent years prior to the COVID-19 pandemic (Delgrego, 2016).

Conversely, many North American writing centers had already experimented with online writing center services. Martinez and Olsen (2015) describe the kinds of Online Writing Labs (centers) or OWLs available at North American universities as follows:

OWLs vary in the services and resources they offer, but they generally provide students with online writing resources, such as PDF files or Web pages that relate to the writing process or grammar and mechanics ... Some OWLs hire tutors to offer feedback on student writing through asynchronous means, such as email or Web-based software. Other OWLs have tutors or writing consultants who meet with students and offer synchronous, one-to-one consultations through text-based chat or voice-based conferencing software. (p. 190)

At the time of Martinez and Olsen's research (2015), Online Writing Labs were touted as a means to expand the reach of a traditional, in-person writing center. OWLs are better equipped to provide services to students enrolled in distance education (Prince et al., 2018) or students with disabilities (Ries, 2015). During the COVID-19 pandemic, some North America writing

centers utilized and increased their existing OWLs. JUWCs, with a much shorter history, had not yet developed much OWL support. At the start of the pandemic, some JUWCs could choose to temporarily suspend writing center operations or, as one private JUWC (herein referred to by the pseudonym Oak University) chose to, switch to a synchronous online format for tutorial sessions. Oak University served as the primary source of data for this research.

The sudden onslaught of the pandemic coupled with administrative uncertainty left the JUWC at Oak University with virtually no time to retrain tutors to work online. This created challenges for tutors, who knew keenly that the face-to-face component of tutoring provides a “supportive, nurturing environment” where students can come away with “a positive attitude about their work, while feeling they had improved the quantity and quality of their writing” (Marcus & Farrell, 1989, p. 43). Such support is facilitated by looking for verbal and non-verbal cues (Thompson, 2009) to ensure comprehension and agreement. In online sessions, however, it is much more difficult for the tutor to “read” the writer’s mental or emotional state. Furthermore, concerns about connectivity issues, the writer’s understanding of the digital interface, and dedicated writing space added to the difficulties faced by the tutors.

This research looks at the practices of three tutors at Oak University over the past year, focusing on the challenges the tutors faced in an online setting during a pandemic and how they adapted their practices to overcome these challenges. This research uses a framework, developed by three researchers of social policy, Ferri, Grifoni, and Guzzo (2020), who classified the challenges of online learning as technological, pedagogical, and social. This framework was chosen because it was published after the start of the COVID-19 pandemic. Ferri et al. differentiated issues when learning in a traditional online setting and when learning during an emergency remote setting. In addition to its timely nature, the research could help categorize data into clear and useful groups. Technical challenges refer to connectivity and availability of devices. Pedagogical challenges include shortcomings in teacher/student digital abilities, plentiful yet unstructured online content, reduced enthusiasm and participation on the part of students compounded by a reduced “social and cognitive presence” (Ferri et al. 2020, p. 1) of the teacher. Social challenges such as reduced human communicational contact, inadequate parental support and/or competition for limited space or online resources.

Using the Ferri et al. (2020) framework, the following research questions were investigated:

RQ1: What challenges were faced by tutors in JUWCs during online tutoring sessions?

RQ2: How did tutors deal with the challenges identified in RQ1?

Methods

Participants

Three JUWC tutors participated in this research. The researcher was introduced to the first participant (T1) via Oak University Writing Center’s director. The researcher used chain-referral sampling to recruit two more interviewees (T2 and T3). Chain-referral sampling (also known as snowball sampling) is a convenience sampling method that can be applied when it is difficult to gather target subjects (Ghaljaie, et al., 2017). In this method, existing participants recruit additional subjects among their acquaintances. T1 introduced two coworkers from Oak University Writing Center.

T1 and T2 were enrolled in a doctoral program and T3 had completed a doctorate. All three had English ability at the C1-C2 level of the CEFR scale (Council of Europe, 2001). T1 had six years of tutoring experience, T2 had three years of experience, and T3 had two years of experience. Considering the type of tutoring experience, half of T3’s experience as a tutor was done online, whereas T1 had five of six years in-person experience (83%) and T2 had two of three years in-person experience (67%).

Procedure

For convenience of the participants, ideal interviews would occur in a quiet area in the writing center, but, because of COVID-19, data collection procedures were also altered. Since the center was unavailable, interviewees were asked to schedule a 120-minute block of time for a Zoom meeting. The meeting consisted of a semi-structured interview about their experiences tutoring online. Semi-structured interviews, according to Bernard (1988), are most appropriate when there is only one scheduled opportunity to interview each participant. Due to the participants schedules, it was difficult to schedule multiple meetings. Within the 120-minute timeframe, the researcher helped the participant complete forms for research ethics and participation consent. The interviews were conducted in English and lasted an average of 90-minutes. In accordance with ethical research practices, interviewees were offered remuneration that matched their hourly wage.

Questions created for this semi-structured interview can be found in the appendix. Apart from simple background information questions, the main questions were designed not to lead the participant to a particular answer, but to help them recall tutoring experiences as episodes. As per the nature of semi-structured interviews, each interviewee was encouraged to expand on points of interest. Interviewees were not

asked every question sequentially, but the researcher prepared questions to prompt them if they had difficulty recalling their experiences.

Interviewees were encouraged to think of tutoring episodes and describe them in as much detail as they could. After the interview was concluded, the audio was transcribed. The researcher then coded the data using In Vivo Coding (Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1998) to use the interview participants' own words when analyzing the data. Those codes were then grouped according to Ferri et al.'s (2020) categories of online learning challenges: technological, pedagogical, and social.

Results

The coding of the data into the three categories revealed subgroups within each: technological – connectivity and societal technology; pedagogical – skill, silence, reading the writer, and platform; and social – privacy and focus. The words italicized within the interviewees' utterances are the selected codes.

Technological Challenges

This category refers to unreliable Internet connections and lack of internet accessible devices. All tutors (T1, T2, T3) described connectivity issues. T2 recollected an incident where they struggled to gauge the comfort of the writer because of a poor internet connection:

there's been some more difficulty in terms of, um, interpreting silence whether they're thinking or they're spacing out, or the connection is bad so they cannot hear you. So that's definitely an issue ... it's definitely more difficult than face, face-to-face.

T3 made similar comments and used similar phrasing as T2, "For example, there is this girl, her connectivity problems really delayed the session. Of course, you just had to extend." These problems with connectivity interfered with the sessions. In a face-to-face setting, the tutor might look at cues of the writer, which include the writer scanning the paper, rapid movement of the writer's eyes, or the writer taking notes, etc. As T2 and T3 reported, network instability prevented them from determining if the writer was processing the tutor's assistance or was waiting for additional help.

Additionally, T2 commented on the lack of technological preparedness of JUWCs and the organizational structure of Japanese universities: "Especially now where a lot of things you have to do online. I feel Japan in general is unprepared to do that and this reflects on the university." At first glance, this comment could be reclassified as a pedagogical issue in which writing centers and universities in Japan are "lagging behind other developed countries in terms of adapting to the digital age and transitioning to an information-based

society" (Funamori, 2017, p. 41). Instead, this comment was classified as a technological issue due to the lack of a dedicated online infrastructure with accompanying support for services like online tutoring.

Pedagogical Challenges

This category refers to issues related to the use of a new platform and to transferring face-to-face tutoring techniques online such as managing silence, reading the writer, and physical limitations. With regards to the new platform, T3 described a lack of technological skill of the writer, "Their [writers'] preferred program (such as Microsoft Word or Pages) is different that we have to take that into consideration as well. I mentioned a while ago this writer who unusually closed her video ... That won't happen if it were face-to-face." T1 focused on the lack of technological skill of the tutor: "It was very difficult for me [tutor] ... not very good with technology."

Silence, along with active listening and facilitation, has been pointedly addressed in definitions of tutoring (Ryan & Zimmerelli, 2010). How a tutor manages silence is a crucial component of a tutorial session. One may expect that novice tutors would fill silence with tutor talk, whereas veteran tutors would more easily handle silence. However, even veteran tutors recollected that they struggled with silence in their online sessions. T1 has six years of experience and is one of the most senior tutors at Oak University writing center. In the following excerpt, T1 described how they felt unprepared for online sessions.

In a session, in the face-to-face session, silence is okay. We got used to it and [...] we feel like it's okay to have this [...] periods of silence just because [...] the writer is thinking or you're also thinking as a tutor. But online because, you know, we cannot see each other or [...] we-we're not sure what the other person is doing, then there [...] when there's a silence in the line, then the tutors feel like we need to feel it when something. Like we need to talk or do something. So, I think that's-that's difficult.

T2 and T3 also both made similar comments with T2 stating that they were unable to judge what kind of silence is coming from a writer, "whether they're thinking or they're spacing out." T3 also mentioned that it was difficult to manage silence, much like T1's observation, "It's very difficult to manage silences during an online session."

The next pedagogical issue that was mentioned is the ability of the tutor to "read the writer", a phrase used to describe the process in which tutors can gauge their current level of involvement and support for the writer, in an online session. Rather than overtly correcting the writer, writing center tutors are expected to help lead writers to their own conclusions (Gillespie & Lerner,

2008), but this was difficult to do during online sessions. During the interview, T1 utilized the phrase “read the writer” and said, “you cannot really read, you know, the signs of the writer.” T3 also mentioned the difficulty of reading the writer during the online sessions.

For example, you can see a person when he is thinking versus when he's lost and silent. I'm waiting for you to say something. That silent interaction is lost when it's online ... Yes, it's when I cannot understand why they are silent.

T3 additionally commented on the physical limitations of an online tutorial session related to the pedagogy of writing center tutoring. Usually, a writer and tutor sit adjacent to each other. Most tutors encourage the writer to take notes during a tutorial session and the tutor also take notes (Ryan & Zimmerelli, 2010). These notes are passed back and forth between tutor and writer. A tutor might strike out a suggestion or highlight/circle something of importance. T3 said that because of the constraints of the online session, this was sometimes difficult or impossible. T3 recalled, “I'd scribble something [in a face-to-face session], and then I'd pass it on. When we realized we can't really do that online, and there are restrictions.”

T3 also dwelled on the time that they had accidentally erased all the online comments. The particular online program that all three tutors used allowed them to write comments directly on a shared screen. T3 said they had incidents when they were trying to repeat a suggestion or when trying to erase the most recent suggestion but instead, they accidentally erased everything discussed until that point.

Then again, if you click an icon, everything that you sketched so far gets erased. You think it's like in paint, there's an eraser icon, and you click that and then you erase the thing. Apparently, that icon erases everything that you've discussed so far. It takes some getting used to.

This kind of incident can be extremely demotivating and frustrating for both the tutor and the writer. T3 tried to undo their mistake and recall as much of the advice they had given as possible. This action halved the time left for the tutorial, and the writer was disappointed. It is interesting to note that T3 had talked about the lack of technological skills of the writer. This event demonstrates how T3 also struggled with the technology.

Social Challenges

The final type of challenge involved a social environment that is not conducive to online learning. The writer or the tutor may not have a dedicated space for online tutoring sessions. Likewise, either party may feel uncomfortable inviting a stranger into their private space. In the interviews, the tutors spoke about the

privacy concern and a lack of focus. T3 and T2 both spoke of the importance of safeguarding privacy. T3 stated that a “need for tutor privacy” was of concern. Likewise, T2 said that “Not everybody is comfortable with, you know, showing their house or their face on camera.” T3 further elaborated on the fact that being in a tutorial booth on campus can help provide a positive physical environment for tutoring and online sessions miss that component mentioning that “the feeling of being in a booth actually already helps focus.”

An Additional Observation

Toward the end of the interview, T3 made a comment that could not be classified as technological, pedagogical, or social. T3 noted that the writing center is the primary source of income for some tutors. One issue of conducting sessions online was that new tutors' overall scheduled hours were reduced. T3 did not give an exact reason why the hours were reduced but mentioned that it was likely due to an overall reduction in available hours T3 described their worry as follows.

In our center, once the new tutors pass their first training ... they should be able to get a maximum 10 sessions. Now, they can only get five. I think that's a serious problem ... The new tutors are given less time than they were promised.

While this problem may be unique to Oak University's writing center, it was a point of great concern to T3. It would be interesting to investigate if the tutors' income at other universities were affected in the same way.

Discussion

It is evident from the tutors' responses that online tutoring has created many challenges for this JUWC, and it is crucial for JUWCs to think about how to proceed with tutoring practices in the immediate and long-term future. It is unknown for how long COVID-19 will interfere with face-to-face tutoring. Even if tutoring can return to a pre-pandemic state, there may still be a demand for online tutoring. The following discussion examines how tutors can adapt their tutoring practices to meet these challenges based on examples from Oak University tutors.

Adapted Practices

Tutors facing the challenges of online tutoring may be able to learn from the ways the tutors in this study overcame their struggles by adapting their previously learned practices. The tutors' strategies could be categorized into four areas: use of laughter, flexibility, technical solutions, and open dialogue.

Tutors with proper training can alleviate the writer's stress and support them in the emotional process of writing (Driscoll & Wells, 2020). One tool that tutors already use in face-to-face sessions is laughter. Laughter could be easily applied to online sessions as well, so that tutors can let the writer know that despite the online environment, they can relax. T3 said that they used laughter to overcome extended silence: "When there's a long silence, it's an awkward silence, and we would be laughing because we know that it's an awkward silence."

A good tutor must have a flexible pedagogy (Corbett, 2008). A writer may come to a writing center unprepared, and the tutor must adapt quickly to provide the best tutoring. Each of the interviewed tutors made a reference to idea of flexibility. T1 said that due to technology issues, a tutor may have to repeat or restart and not get irritated. T1 said, "[I would] restart everything again and you have to pick up where you left off." T3 said that they would extend sessions, when possible, to help writers, especially when technical issues occurred.

Tutors also mentioned technical solutions via trial and error. T3 created several "dummy accounts" using the center's online software. They logged in to see what the software looked like from the perspective of a writer. T2 would often ask writers simple questions to ensure that the connection was still active. T2 recalled asking the question "Can you still hear me?" several times as well as listening for sounds such as breathing, paper rustling, coughing to check the status of the connections and the engagement of the writer.

Finally, the most important solution for the tutors was an open dialogue with each other to keep the online writing center experience as close to the in-person writing center experience for tutors and writers. Before the pandemic when tutors encountered challenges at Oak University writing center, they were able to seek advice from other tutors via informal exchanges between sessions in the writing center or on social media. Formally, this JUWC holds weekly tutor meetings/training sessions and encourages tutors to discuss problematic issues with each other. While these meetings were moved online during the pandemic, tutors were able to stay in contact with each other through both informal and formal channels. T1 said that the best way to have productive writing center sessions is when "the [tutor support] process is the same", that is, when tutors can share their challenges and successes.

Limitations

The main limitations of this study were the limited number of participants and the fact that it was conducted at only one JUWC. A future study could interview a wider variety of tutors at different centers. The data gathered from JUWCs at public universities or

universities of varying sizes could be an interesting source of comparison as the size of a university and availability of resources may have an impact during the transition to online tutoring.

Conclusions

This study highlighted technological, pedagogical, and social challenges encountered by three tutors at one JUWC in online tutoring sessions and their adapted practices. The findings of this research can impact the future of tutoring at JUWCs by improving tutor-writer interactions both online and face-to-face. As of the completion of this article, many JUWCs have not returned to their pre-pandemic state. It is unknown what the new normal or post-COVID-19 tutoring environment will look like. Thinking towards a positive future, the author makes the following suggestions for any JUWCs to consider in order to address the challenges of online tutorial sessions or to give tutors effective means to overcome them.

- Incorporate sample online sessions in new tutor training.
- Conduct tutor training for online sessions with both experienced and novice tutors.
- Ensure opportunities for tutors to share their difficulties and success via online platforms.

By listening to the voices of tutors who have coped with the challenges of shifting to online tutoring, we can improve the quality of tutoring in the future. Tutors have taught us how to better assist writers during demanding times.

References

- Bernard, H. R. (1988). *Qualitative methods in cultural anthropology*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Boquet, E. H. (1999). "Our little secret": A history of writing centers, pre-to post-open admissions. *College Composition and Communication*, 50(3), 463-482. doi:10.2307/358861
- Brooks, J. (1991). Minimalist tutoring: Making the student do all the work. *The Writing Lab Newsletter*, 15(6), 1-4. Retrieved from <https://wlnjournal.org/archives/v15/15-6.pdf>
- Corbett, S. J. (2008). Tutoring style, tutoring ethics: The continuing relevance of the

- directive/nondirective instructional debate. *Praxis: A Writing Center Journal*, 5(2), 94-106. Retrieved from <http://www.praxisuwc.com/corbett-52>
- Corbin, J., & Strauss, A. (2014). *Basics of qualitative research: Techniques and procedures for developing grounded theory*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Council of Europe. (2001). *Common European framework of reference for languages*. Cambridge University Press. doi:10.21832/9781847697318-002
- Delgrego, N. (2016). Writing centers in Japan: From creation until now the development of Japanese university writing centers from 2004-2015. *The Journal of J. F. Oberlin University Studies in Language and Culture*, 7, 15-27. Retrieved from <https://obirin.repo.nii.ac.jp>
- Driscoll, D. L., & Wells, J. (2020). Tutoring the whole person: Supporting emotional development in writers and tutors. *Praxis*, 17(3). Retrieved from <http://www.praxisuwc.com/173-driscoll-wells>
- Ferri, F., Grifoni, P., & Guzzo, T. (2020). Online learning and emergency remote teaching: Opportunities and challenges in emergency situations. *Societies*, 10(4), 86. doi:10.3390/soc10040086
- Fujioka, M. (2012). Pragmatics in writing center tutoring: Theory and suggestions for tutoring practice. *Kinki University Center for Liberal Arts and Foreign Language Education Journal*, 3(1), 129-146. Retrieved from <https://kindai.repo.nii.ac.jp>
- Funamori, M. (2017). The issues Japanese higher education face in the digital age—Are Japanese universities to blame for the slow progress towards an information-based society?. *International Journal of Institutional Research and Management*, 1(1), 37-51. doi:10.52731/ijirm.v1.i1.112
- Ghaljaie, F., Naderifar, M., & Goli, H. (2017). Snowball sampling: A purposeful method of sampling in qualitative research. *Strides in Development of Medical Education*, 14(3). doi:10.5812/sdme.67670
- Gillespie, P., & Lerner, N. (2008). *The Longman guide to peer tutoring* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Pearson Longman.
- Marcus, H., & Farrell, P. (1989). Staffing the writing center. In P. Farrell (Ed.), *The high school writing center: Establishing and maintaining One*, 39-44. Urbana, IL: National Council of Teachers of English. Retrieved from <https://wac.colostate.edu/docs/books/hswc/chapter5.pdf>
- Martinez, D., & Olsen, L. (2015). Online writing labs. In B. L. Hewett & K. E. DePew (Eds.), *Foundational practices of online writing instruction* (pp. 183-210). Fort Collins, CO: WAC Clearinghouse and Parlor Press. Retrieved from <http://wac.colostate.edu/books/owi/>
- North, S. M. (1984). The idea of a writing center. *College English*, 46(5), 433-446. doi:10.2307/377047
- North, S. M. (1994). Revisiting "The idea of a writing center". *The Writing Center Journal*, 15(1), 7-19. Retrieved from <https://www.jstor.org/stable/i40135888>
- Prince, S., Willard, R., Zamarripa, E., & Sharkey-Smith, M. (2018). Peripheral (re) visions: Moving online writing centers from margin to center. *WLN: A Journal of Writing Center*

- Scholarship*, 42(5-6), 10-18. Retrieved from <https://www.wlnjournal.org/archives/v42/42.5-6.pdf>
- Ries, S. (2015). The online writing center: Reaching out to students with disabilities. *Praxis: A Writing Center Journal*, 13(1), 5-6. Retrieved from <https://repositories.lib.utexas.edu/handle/2152/62621>
- Ryan, L., & Zimmerelli, L. (2010). *The Bedford guide for writing tutors* (5th ed). Boston, MA: Bedford/St. Martins.
- Sadoshima, S (2006). Waseda Daigaku Kokusai Kyouyou Gakubu ni hossokushita raitingu senta no unei to shidou [How to manage and teach at the writing center at Waseda University School of International Liberal Arts] *Waseda Daigaku Kokugo Kyouiku Kenkyu*, 26, 82-95. Retrieved from <https://waseda.repo.nii.ac.jp/>
- Strauss, A. L. (1987). *Qualitative analysis for social scientists*. New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.
- Strauss, A., & Corbin, J. (1998). *Basics of qualitative research techniques*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Thompson, I. (2009). Scaffolding in the writing center: A microanalysis of an experienced tutor's verbal and nonverbal tutoring strategies. *Written Communication*, 26(4), 417-453. doi:10.1177/0741088309342364
- Thompson, I., & Mackiewicz, J. (2014). Questioning in writing center conferences. *The Writing Center Journal*, 33(2), 37-70. Retrieved from <http://www.jstor.org/stable/43443371>

Appendices

Semi-structured Interview Questions

Background Questions

1. Where have you been working as a tutor?
2. How long have you been working as a tutor?
3. Tell me about how you became a tutor? And why?

Main Questions

1. Can you tell me about the previous semester of online tutoring?
2. What are the differences between face-to-face tutoring and online tutoring?
3. Did you notice any issues, difficulties?
4. Tell me about a difficult online tutoring session?
5. Tell me about a successful online tutoring session?
6. What were the things that worked well, surprises?

Connecting Meaningful Feedback Systems in Blended Learning Environments

Branden Carl Kirchmeyer
Sojo University

Feedback systems in language education are well known for their remedial functions (e.g., written corrective feedback), but can assume more dynamic roles when students have more opportunities to meaningfully contribute to the process. This article examines three feedback systems situated as linchpins of the learning process in a one-semester blended learning (online and face-to-face) English course at a Japanese university. One system used traditional written corrective feedback on individually accessed on-demand tasks to scaffold subsequent pair-based communicative tasks. A second system encouraged students to act as auditors and help guide teachers to improve and refine online content with a short turnaround time between collection of feedback and implementation. A third system provided a range of opportunities for students to use qualitative data for self-assessment and goal setting. The author presents these interdependent feedback systems as parts of a relational process for raising student awareness of and participation in assessment-for-learning.

語学教育におけるフィードバックシステムは、学習の改善機能(書面による添削フィードバックなどによる)がよく知られているが、学習プロセスでの学習者の有意義な取組みの機会を増やすことで、よりダイナミックな役割を担うことができると推測できる。この論文では、学習プロセスの要として 3 つのフィードバック・システムについて、ブレンデッド・ラーニング(オンラインと対面式)による日本の大学での英語コースで学期中に実践した内容を検討する。システムの 1 つは、従来の書面による添削フィードバックで学習者が個別にアクセスするオンデマンド課題を用いるが、その後のペアワークによるコミュニケーション課題の足場かけとする。2 つ目のシステムは、学生が監査役となり、教員がオンラインコンテンツを改善・改良できるよう指導することを促し、フィードバックの収集から実施までの時間が短いものである。3 つ目のシステムは、学生が自己評価や目標設定のために質的データを利用する機会を提供するものである。これらの相互依存的なフィードバックシステムは学生の意識を高め、学ぶための評価の従事へと関係するプロセスの一部として示す。

Blended (i.e., hybrid, flipped, technology-mediated) learning environments invite educators to rethink and retool educational strategies and approaches for increasingly dynamic arrangements of physical and digital interactions among students, teachers, and course content. These versatile, resource-rich environments have both inspired and facilitated changes to many conventional teaching practices, including the provision and planned uptake of feedback in second language (L2) learning (See, e.g., Finnegan, Kauppinen, & Wärnsby, 2015; Irwin, 2019). This article presents feedback systems as complex and interconnected mechanisms of language learning courses, and highlights three such systems as they were used in a blended learning environment (BLE). Designed to collectively encourage students to engage in reflective thinking and enhance their educational experiences during an emerging global pandemic, these interdependent feedback systems served as a

relational process for raising student awareness of and participation in assessment-for-learning.

Complex and interdependent feedback systems

Feedback systems are crucial to the development of cognitive processes that allow humans to mature from babies into rational, communicative, and competent members of society. From birth we are constantly perceiving, processing, and acting on information loops, often using that information to audit our future behavior. In education, teachers embed feedback systems into pedagogical task sequences, mimicking these innate mechanisms and providing students, teachers, and administrators with information that can be used to drive the learning process forwards. The provision and uptake of feedback is directly related to many aspects of language learning in higher education including

second language acquisition (Nassaji, 2016), learner development (Hounsell, 2003), autonomy (Everhard, 2015), and critical thinking (Shirkhani & Fahim, 2011). Indeed, very few course goals could be reached without effective use of both internal (i.e., cognitive) and external (i.e., pedagogical) feedback systems.

Merry, Price, Carless, and Taras (2013) present an illuminating collection of essays and evidence promoting a reconceptualization of feedback in higher education, asserting that “high level and complex learning is best developed when feedback is seen as a relational process that takes place over time, is dialogic, and is integral to learning and teaching” (xx). This holistic approach to feedback acknowledges complex relationships in its pedagogical application that extend beyond superficially corrective functions and include, for example, its ability to reorient learners’ understanding of learning processes, raise learner awareness of the characteristics of quality performances, and develop learners’ “capacities as autonomous self-regulating learners” (Carless, 2013, p. 113).

However, implementing complex feedback systems that address these relationships can be a challenging endeavor. Learner preconceptions and past experiences of feedback systems, institutional or societal values, and the nature of a course’s content and objectives can all affect the degree to which feedback can be effectively designed, implemented, and utilized within a course. Most importantly, individual learners must possess a clear understanding of task specifications, evaluation criteria, purpose of feedback, and the ability to recognize different levels of quality for each task if they are to make use of any relevant feedback (Sadler, 2010). The size and scope of these challenges is indicative of the interconnected nature of feedback systems in language learning, and thus warrants considerable thought and attention from educators in all teaching contexts.

Rethinking feedback in a common context

English education, which is compulsory in Japan, often extends into the tertiary level, with curricula and teaching practices largely left to be decided by university departments. The course of focus in this article included 822 first-year students and eight teachers in a communicative skills-focused English program at a private science and technology university in central Kyushu. For the purpose of this paper data were only collected from students who completed a survey in classes taught directly by the author (n=72). Course objectives targeted students’ conversational abilities, and most of the tasks were designed to elicit spoken English. This context is not unique within Japan and has long necessitated a very different approach to

feedback than situations where, for instance, students have chosen to further develop their English skills, or where academic writing is a course goal.

The feedback systems presented in this article were specially designed with the aim of helping students experience a more participatory and non-passive language learning process. In other words, students were encouraged engage with assessment-for-learning in a way that could benefit them not only in their language learning, but in any skill they hoped to develop. While not fundamentally different from traditional strategies in terms of task sequence, these feedback systems included different aspects of scale, function, and roles that the students occupied. The juxtaposition of these systems served to positively reinforce the meaningfulness of feedback and, on a larger scale, lend to the perceived and actual meaningfulness of all course activities. It was reasoned that these systems would also address a legitimate concern that students would be more easily distracted, distant, or disengaged from participation in an emergency response teaching context.

Like many others, the university had rescheduled their semester-long English language courses from thirty face-to-face sessions to a 50/50 balance of fifteen on-demand lessons scheduled between fifteen weekly face-to-face lessons. Although the originally scheduled courses did not feature on-demand content, they were conducted in BLEs with a high degree of materials and content already existing online via a Moodle learning management system (LMS). The new schedule provided an opportunity for the teaching faculty to experiment with designing online interactive content and, as they transitioned into a more evenly balanced BLE, make strategic pedagogical use of time and sequence. The following sections describe how all students in this course were encouraged to use feedback for three distinct purposes.

Feedback for practical application

In the first example, students were asked to do something they might not have had extensive experience with, which was to actively apply written corrective feedback (WCF) to subsequent *speaking* tasks. Traditionally, WCF plays a remedial function in writing; it aims to draw learner attention to errors made during composition and operates under the assumption that students can learn from—rather than repeat—their mistakes. Despite longstanding controversy regarding its effectiveness, recent research has shown favorable outcomes for WCF in certain contexts (Bitchner & Knoch, 2008). However in day-to-day classroom applications, wherein improvement and retention of grammatical accuracy is not being investigated through focused inquiry, teachers can only assume 1) that

students read feedback, 2) that they are able to understand the nature of their errors and learn from the comments provided, and 3) that they are able to apply this knowledge in future tasks. Figure 1 shows a simplified sequence involving traditional WCF. In this system, the assumption of an outcome undermines the entire process.

Figure 2 describes an alternate feedback system that was implemented in courses taught by the author and one other teacher. In this system, there are no assumptions about the outcomes. Though similar in sequence, students working in the alternate system are given the opportunity to actively use WCF in a meaningful way, through actual communication in which students are genuinely exchanging information to learn about each other.

The “task” referenced in the first step of Figure 2 directed students to generate simple written responses to prompts (e.g., Tell me about someone important in your life), with the intent of using these responses as scaffolds for subsequent speaking activities. This step of the sequence was assigned as part of the course’s on-demand portion, to be accessed and completed individually between the weekly face-to-face sessions. To aid students understanding of the entire task sequence, students were provided with detailed information regarding the task purpose, procedure, and evaluation (see Appendix A). This information, according to Sadler (2010), constitutes “feedforward” and is part of the crucial knowledge base students must possess if they are to make effective use of feedback.

Figure 1

Conventional feedback system using WCF

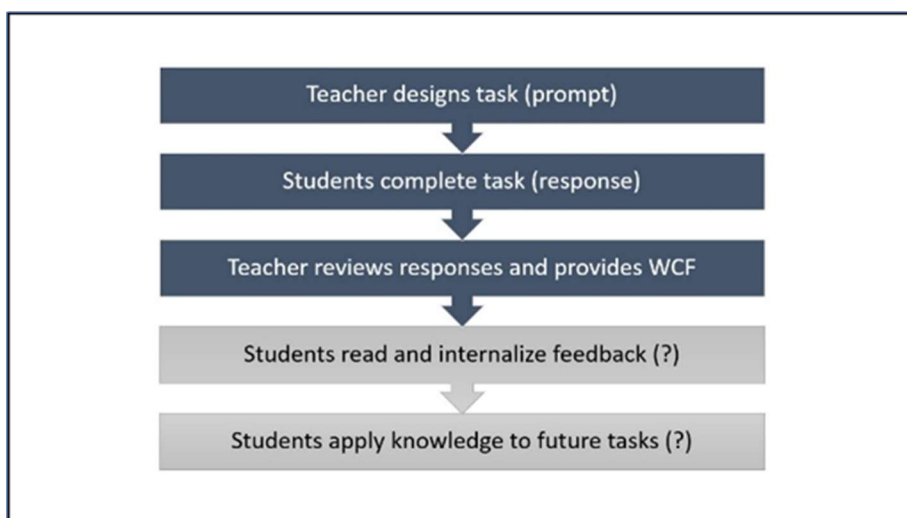
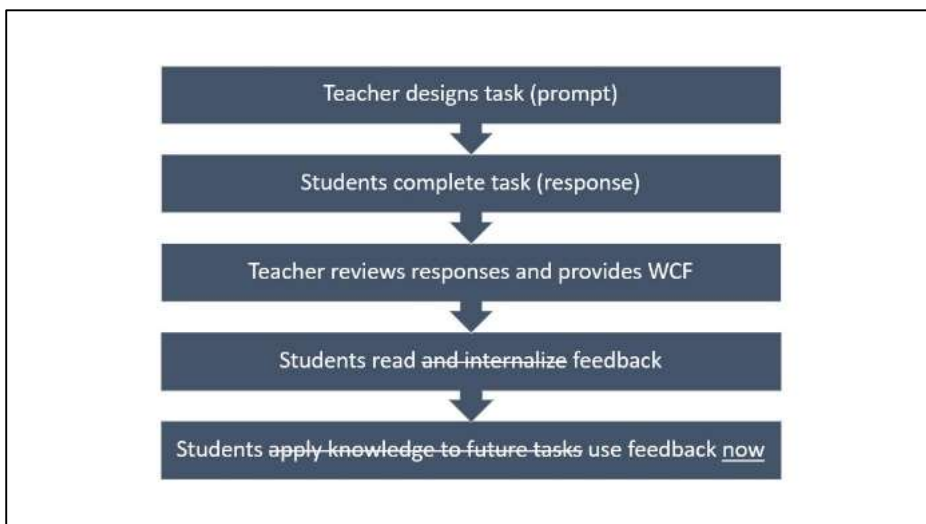


Figure 2

Alternate feedback system using WCF



Students were given four days to generate three-sentence responses to a series of questions (usually seven) that related to a given unit's theme. Students typed responses directly into a Moodle database activity, and teachers had the option of downloading the responses and printing them using a Microsoft Excel template for hand-written feedback or typing their feedback directly into the same database activity. Teachers were encouraged to attend only to errors that impeded comprehension and to provide tips for producing more ideal responses, such as better use of conjunctions to connect ideas into more complex sentences, or to use more conventional words or collocations. General and meaning-focused notes on student submissions were also encouraged, such as comments on the content to one of the responses they provided, or tips addressing an error they repeatedly made throughout the activity. This feedback, along with their original responses, was distributed to students in the next face-to-face lesson via marked-up printed handouts or the Moodle database activity. Students were given time to look through the feedback and ask their teacher if they had any questions. The lesson would then begin with partners interviewing each other using these texts.

The effect of WCF in this sequence did not need to be assumed, as it was visually evident through firsthand observation. Students engaged with the original task, attended to the feedback when reading aloud during partner interviews, and were often able to extend the duration of an exchange. Follow-up questions were more readily asked by partners because responses to the initial question were so readily given. In other words, the frequently experienced conversation barriers of "What should I say?" and "How do I say it in English" still occurred, but happened later in the exchange after students had already become invested in the short conversation.

While it is unlikely that students internalized errors that were highlighted in the feedback, and the effort involved in teacher generated feedback in a course that does not include writing as a course goal may seem questionable, there is still a time and place for writing in a speaking course, (especially during preparatory tasks) and this type of feedback can be an effective tool for promoting engagement in speaking practice activities, particularly among learners with low confidence or interest in L2 speaking. It is important to remember that error-free writing was not the intended outcome of this feedback system. Rather, the goals were 1) to provide students with model versions of their own ideas, stories, and anecdotes that they could use with confidence as springboards to practice short and extended conversations with their peers, and 2) to highlight the potential usefulness of feedback in the L2 learning process—a concept that many Japanese learners of

English may find useful to remember as they struggle to improve their general speaking skills.

Teachers who used this sequence no longer made assumptions about what was being achieved with their feedback, rather they could witness students incorporating the feedback in face-to-face speaking activities. As one teacher commented, "Students appeared to gain confidence from knowing that their work had been seen by a teacher—in that sense it lent a sense of validity to their English. I felt this confidence to be quite palpable both in observing students making use of their work after receiving WCF, and also in a perceived lack of assurance and relative discomfort for students who had, perhaps, submitted their work late and not received feedback."

This sequence, over time, also produced positive washback on student uptake of the initial writing task, as students who failed to complete the writing portion the first time around soon learned that the subsequent face-to-face speaking task was much more difficult without pre-written responses. This feedback system has become a staple activity in the course because it allowed students to begin the face-to-face speaking sessions with confidence, trusting their responses to be linguistically accurate.

Feedback for evaluating content

The second feedback system also asked students to do something that may have been unfamiliar: play the role of auditor and evaluate course content. In pre-pandemic face-to-face lessons, teachers used an internalized feedback system to answer questions like "How is this lesson going?" "How are the students doing?" "Is it engaging?" "Do I need to spend more time on this?" "Is the class ready to move on?" and judging by what could be observed in the teachers' immediate physical vicinity, teachers could change their plans and behavior in real time. However, with regards to on-demand lessons for which teachers created content and students accessed in their own time, teachers could no longer use that internal feedback system to make real-time adjustments to the lesson. The apparent lack of information on student response to on-demand content was cause for concern among teachers and administrators as they worked to respond to the emerging pandemic.

Luckily, the technological affordances present in the existing BLE allowed the curriculum team to create many activities with automated feedback (i.e., customized text displayed to students depending on their responses to prompts) and teachers could see and assess student activity asynchronously. However, student activity logs and scores were only indicative of the degree to which students were able to successfully complete the assigned activities. With new content

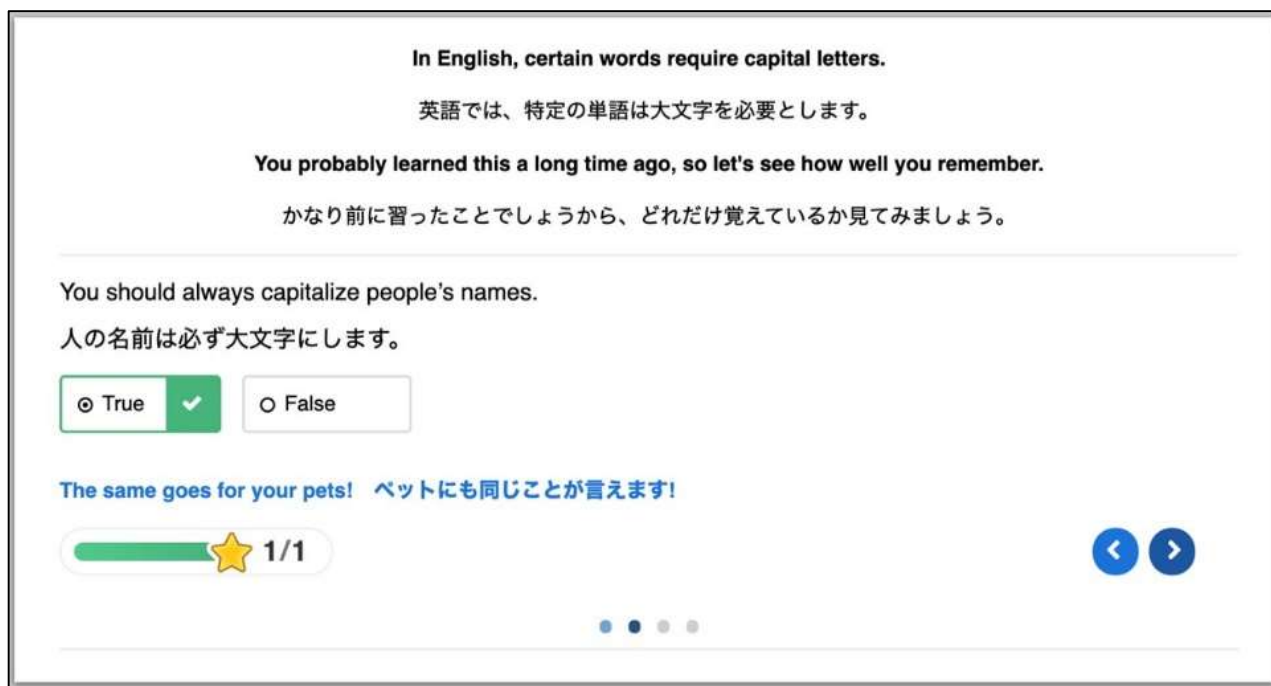
being created, the curriculum team wanted to know about the content and its delivery: “Were the instructions and content clear and easy to understand?” “Were the activities perceived as useful or engaging?” and from an important logistics perspective, “How long did the activities take to complete?” To gather this information, students would need to take on the responsibility of evaluating these lesson modules and communicating their opinions to the faculty. One recurring activity type provides a clear example of how this was accomplished.

On-demand lessons included interactive content modules called Vocabulary Learning Tips. They were adapted from a text by David Barker (2010) called Learning English Vocabulary, which is featured in the department’s Self-Access Learning Center as a

resource for students. These interactive modules were created with H5P, an online content authoring tool installed on the Moodle LMS. These activities were designed to help students adapt effective studying techniques by directly explaining concepts and then providing simple interactive tasks to help students practice or internalize the concepts. Figure 3 shows an excerpt from one of these activities, wherein a simple concept has been presented in the target and first language of students, followed by a series of four True/False questions with immediate feedback that built on their response to extend their current knowledge. Though experienced with producing these kinds of activities, faculty were required to produce a large quantity of independently accessed online tasks in a short time, which is where student generated feedback proved its worth.

Figure 3

Automated feedback in on-demand activity



Presented at the conclusion of one lesson module, a Microsoft Form asked students to provide faculty with feedback on four points: 1) How useful did they perceive the content? 2) How clearly was the information explained? 3) How engaging or interesting were the tasks? and 4) How long did it take to complete the module? This single, simple task had two distinct outcomes. Firstly, teachers were able to monitor student engagement with on-demand content for which they were not physically present and make necessary adjustments to the content in very short time. In some instances, changes were made to an activity (e.g., correcting translation errors, changing activity settings,

revising unclear content) after only one class had gone through the module, saving other classes from experiencing the same problems. Secondly, this task placed students in the role of assessor. This concept was reinforced by pointedly addressing it in face-to-face classes, wherein teachers directly mentioned specific feedback responses and their effect. Teachers were encouraged to do this routinely, with the following text serving as a model: “Thank you for your feedback on the last activity. I was able to correct the spelling mistake many of you found in the second question, and I learned that many of you think the matching activity was confusing, so I took that out of the next assignment

because it's probably not very useful to you." Clearly demonstrating that student-generated feedback had direct and positive outcomes like this was part of the concerted effort to improve students' pedagogical literacy and contribute to a more ideal learning environment wherein "feedback is a dialogic and relational process" (Price, Handley, O'Donovan, Rust, & Millar, 2013).

Feedback for self-assessment and goal setting

The third and final example used novel feedback systems to achieve two outcomes: student self-assessment of an L2 speaking performance, and goal setting based on quantitative information.

The feedback system in this example was integrated within an online speaking activity called a P-CHAT. Developed with support from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (Kaken grant #19K13309), the P-CHAT is an integrated pedagogical tool and research instrument that provides students with immediate, quantitative feedback on their speaking performance during a group oral discussion (Kirchmeyer, 2022).

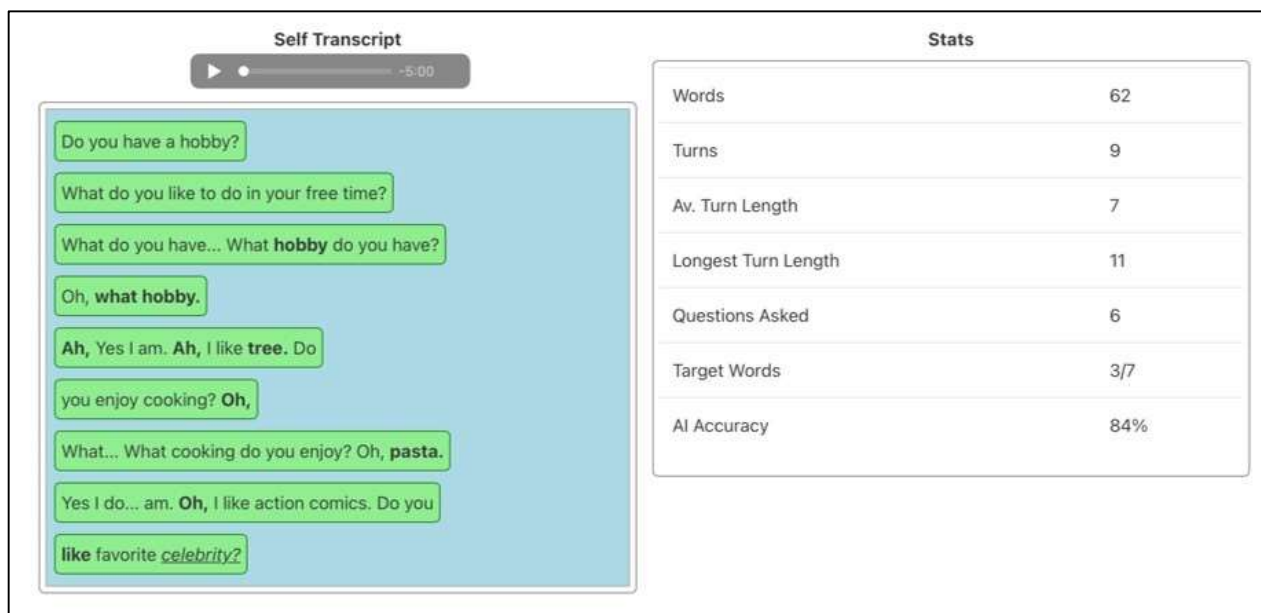
The P-CHAT guided students through a series of tasks: first, they chose their partners and the conversation topic, then students chose a few target words they wanted to try to use during the conversation. Students

proceeded to record their own voice directly into the program as they had a conversation with their partners face-to-face. When the pre-determined time set for the conversation concluded, students listened to and transcribed their own contributions to the conversation, split into turns. Once submitted, students were taken to a review page where they could see quantifiable statistics based on their performance including total words spoken, total turns taken, average turn length in words, longest turn length in words, total questions asked, target words spoken, and a percentage indicating how well their transcript matched a transcript generated by a web-based speech-to-text service. Figure 4 shows a screenshot of the final display page of the activity.

Having finished the speaking and transcribing steps, students were prompted with reflective questions, set by the teacher, that gave students the opportunity to use the information provided on their screen to set specific goals for the next time they attempted this activity. Model responses included "I want to increase my average turn length by two words" or, "I want to use all of my target words" or "I want to increase my AI accuracy by 5%" Students completed this entire task sequence at the beginning, middle, and end of the course, as well as at the conclusion of each thematic unit, totaling eight instances.

Figure 4

Quantitative feedback for self-assessment and goal setting



Firsthand accounts from teachers indicated high levels of student engagement at the review stage of this task.

Many students found the provision of quantitative data enlightening and useful for evaluating their

performances and setting goals for subsequent activities, as can be inferred by a selection of student responses (They have been translated from the original in Japanese. See Appendix B for a list of the original responses):

This time, my goal was to increase the number of turns I could speak, and I was able to do more than last time. I was also able to respond to my partner's conversations in some places. I was also able to have a conversation while being aware of the target words.

It was very good that I was able to say most of the target words we had decided on, and it was good that I was able to say something about myself and ask at least one question. However, there was a lot of silent time, so I would like to ask more questions to keep the conversation going.

Next time, I will try to ask more questions about the topic more quickly. In doing so, I will try to add a few words to my questions.

End-of-term course survey results administered by the university indicated positive student attitudes towards this feedback system, and of the overall level and appropriateness of feedback in the course. 71 of 72 students indicated that they "Agree" or "Strongly agree" with the statement: 問題に対する教員からのフィードバックは適切だった。(Feedback from the teacher was appropriate.) Further research that investigates learner's abilities to set and reach objective, attainable goals using this tool is currently underway.

Conclusion

This article presented three feedback systems situated in a blended learning environment which served to increase learner awareness of assessment-for-learning in English language education. The author asserts that a diverse range of local feedback systems (i.e., pertaining to a particular activity or task sequence) can positively reinforce the meaningfulness of other local feedback systems and, on a larger scale, lend to the perceived and actual meaningfulness of all course activities. Rather than adding feedback activities to the end of existing task sequences, the author suggests integrating a focus on feedback into course planning, and to integrate feedback into multiple activities with a range of goals, functions, and roles for students. Further, more scrutinous studies should explore direct outcomes of these and other integrated feedback systems.

References

- Barker, D. (2010). *Learning English vocabulary* (2nd ed.). Nagoya, Japan: BTB Press.
- Bitchener, J., & Knoch, U. (2008). The value of written corrective feedback for migrant and international students. *Language Teaching Research*, 12(3), 409-431.
- Carless, D. (2013). Sustainable feedback and the development of student self-evaluative capacities. In S. Merry, M. Price, D. Carless, & M. Taras (Eds.), *Reconceptualising feedback in higher education* (pp. 113-122). Oxon, UK: Routledge.
- Everhard, C. J. (2015). The assessment-autonomy relationship. In C. J. Everhard & L. Murphy (Eds.), *Assessment and Autonomy in Language Learning* (pp. 8-34). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Finnegan, D., Kauppinen, A., & Wårnsby, A. (2015). Automated feedback in a blended learning environment: Student experience and development. *Learning and Teaching Writing Online: Strategies for Success*, 29, 31-45. doi:10.1163/9789004290846_004
- Hounsell, D. (2003). Student feedback, learning and development. In M. Slowey & D. Watson (Eds.), *Higher education and the lifecourse* (pp. 67-78). Buckingham: SRHE & Open University Press.
- Irwin, B. (2019). Enhancing peer feedback practices through screencasts in blended academic writing courses. *The JALT CALL Journal*, 15(1), 43-59.
- Kirchmeyer, B. (2022). What is a P-CHAT? <https://p-chat.com/>
- Merry, S., Price, M., Carless, D., & Taras, M. (Eds.). (2013). *Reconceptualizing feedback in higher*

education. Abingdon-on-Thames, UK:
Routledge.

Nassaji, H. (2016). Anniversary article Interactional feedback in second language teaching and learning: A synthesis and analysis of current research. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(4), 535-562. doi:10.1177/1362168816644940

Price, M., Handley, K., O'Donovan, B., Rust, C., & Millar, J. (2013). Assessment feedback: An agenda for change. In S. Merry, M. Price, D. Carless, & M. Taras (Eds.), *Reconceptualising feedback in higher education* (pp. 41-53). Oxon, UK: Routledge.

Sadler, D. R. (2010). Beyond feedback: developing student capability in complex appraisal. *Assessment and Evaluation in Higher Education*, 35(5), 535-550.
doi:10.1080/02602930903541015

Shirkhani, S., & Fahim, M. (2011). Enhancing critical thinking in foreign language learners. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 29, 111-115.
doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2011.11.214

Appendix A

9-3. Prepare short answers



Purpose	This activity will give you practice answering questions about your education . Writing answers in this activity will help you talk about your education more easily in the next face to face lesson.
Instructions	1. Click on "Add Entry" below. 2. Answer each question with three complete, connected sentences that are <u>true about you</u> . 3. Click "Save and View" to finish. You can edit your answers by clicking the gear icon in "View single" or "View list"
Evaluation	You will earn a grade by <u>fully completing this activity</u> . Your teacher will provide feedback on your answers, but your accuracy (number of mistakes) will not affect your grade.
-	
目的	このアクティビティでは、 自分の学歴 についての質問に答える練習をします。このアクティビティで答えを書くことで、次の対面授業で自分の学歴についてよりスムーズに話すことができるようになります。
やり方	1. 下に「エントリを追加する」をクリックする。 2. あなたに関する各質問に対して、つながりのある 文章3文 で答えてください。 3. 完了するために、「保存して表示する」をクリックする。後で答えを変えたい場合、「一覧表示」や「個別表示」で歯車のアイコンをクリックする。
評価	このアクティビティを 完全に完了 することで、成績が得られます。先生はあなたの答えにフィードバックを与えますが、あなたの正確さ（ミスの数）はあなたの成績に影響しません。

New entry

Write three (3) sentences for each question.

Example:

What kinds of music are you into?

I'm really into rock music.

I love J-Pop, too.

I don't really like classical.

1) Tell me about your high school.

2) Tell me about one good memory from your high school.

Appendix B

Sample student reflections from P-CHAT activity #4, translated with DeepL

Student	Prompt 1 (Japanese): P-CHAT 3 で設定した目標は何でしたか？P-CHAT4 では、目標を達成できましたか？	Prompt 1 (English): What was the goal you set in P-CHAT 3? Were you able to reach your goal in P-CHAT 4?	Prompt 2 (Japanese): 日のあなたの会話の統計 「Stats」を見てください。次の P-CHAT に向けて、改善すべき目標を1つ選んでください。何を選びましたか？目標は何ですか？	Prompt 2 (English): Look at the stats for your conversation today. Choose one to set as your goal to improve on for the next P-CHAT. What did you choose? What is your goal?
4287	P-CHAT で目標をターゲットワードをすべていえるようにすると挙げていたが、今回も少ししか言うことができなかった。次回はもっと意識したい。	My goal in P-CHAT was to be able to say all of the target words, but I was only able to say a few this time. I want to be more conscious of this next time.	今回は単語の数がいつもより少ないように感じたため、次は相手にたくさん質問するなどして、たくさん英語を使えるようにしていきたい。	This time, I felt that the number of words was smaller than usual, so next time I would like to ask my partner many questions so that I can use a lot of English.
4278	P-CHAT3 では、「伝えたいことを整理してから伝える」という目標があったが、事前に何を質問したいかを整理して質問できたため目標は達成できたと思う。また、自分の答えを発言するときもスムーズに答えられ、自分でも何を言っているのかを理解しながら話すことができたため良かったと感じている。	In P-CHAT3, I had the goal of "organizing what I wanted to say before I said it," and I think I was able to achieve that goal because I was able to organize what I wanted to ask beforehand. I was also able to answer smoothly and understand what I was saying when I said my answers, which I feel was good.	決めたターゲットワードをほとんど言えたことはとても良かったし、自分のことについての発言や、最低1つの質問ができたことは良かった。しかし、無言の時間が多かったため、もっと質問を自分から投げかけて話を継続させられるようにしていきたい。	It was very good that I was able to say most of the target words we had decided on, and it was good that I was able to say something about myself and ask at least one question. However, there was a lot of silent time, so I would like to ask more questions to keep the conversation going.
4279	今回は、自分がしゃべるターンの数を増やすことを目標にしていたのですが、前回よりも増やすことができました。また、相手の会話に対して所々反応もできた。そして、ターゲットワードも意識しながら会話できました。	This time, my goal was to increase the number of turns I could speak, and I was able to do more than last time. I was also able to respond to my partner's conversations in some places. I was also able to have a conversation while being aware of the target words.	次回はもっと素早くトピックについての質問をより多くすることを目標とする。その際に、一言加えて質問するように心がけたい。	Next time, I will try to ask more questions about the topic more quickly. In doing so, I will try to add a few words to my questions.
4281	ターゲットワードをほぼつかえたところが前回より成長しました。	I was able to use most of the target words, which is a big improvement from last time.	自分のターンを20回以上にする。	Make your turn more than 20 times.

The Evolution of a Four-Dimensional EFL Classroom

Adrienne Verla Uchida

Nihon University College of International Relations

Teaching students only English is not enough. While they need to master reading, writing, speaking, and listening, they also need the skills known as the 4Cs: critical thinking, creativity, collaboration, and communication. Additionally, there is a need to develop students' character and metacognitive abilities. The Four-Dimensional Education Framework is designed to create an environment where that is possible. It emphasizes the importance of four dimensions that are essential to learners in the 21st century: knowledge, skills, character, and metacognition. This study examines student perceptions about their growth as language learners over a semester-long, first-year required EFL course. Data were collected over three consecutive years from three different groups of students by analyzing the instructor's syllabi, student reflection sheets, and a voluntary course survey. How the tasks and projects were designed and implemented over each semester to engage students with the traits from the framework will be discussed.

今日の英語教育は読む、書く、話す、聞くといったスキルだけではなく、「4C教育」と呼ばれる批判的思考、創造性、協調性、意思疎通のスキルの習得が必要である。さらに生徒の性格やメタ認知能力を育てることも必要で、4次元教育フレームワークはそれらの特性を生徒が育むように設計されている。本フレームワークでは、21世紀の学習者に不可欠な4つの次元、知識、スキル、性格、メタ認知の重要性が強調されている。本研究は1年生の英語必修科目である、1学期の授業における英語学習者としての成長に関する学生の認識を調査したものである。データは講師のシラバス、学生の振り返りシート、コースアンケートを分析することで、3つの異なる学生グループから3年間連続して収集している。フレームワークの特性を学生に理解してもらうために、各学期でどのようにタスクやプロジェクトをデザインし、実施したかを説明する。

Teaching students only English is not enough in the 21st century. While students do need to master the four areas of reading, writing, speaking, and listening, they also need the 4Cs: critical thinking, creativity, collaboration, and communication. Additionally, there is a need to foster students' character and metacognitive abilities. Taking this more holistic approach focusing on using English as a tool to achieve one's goals will better prepare students for situations they will face in the classroom and as members of society. This study examines how the Four-Dimensional Education Framework (Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015), was integrated into the syllabus of a required first-year, semester-long, English course. Data from three consecutive years of the course were collected and analyzed using students' perceptions of the framework dimensions.

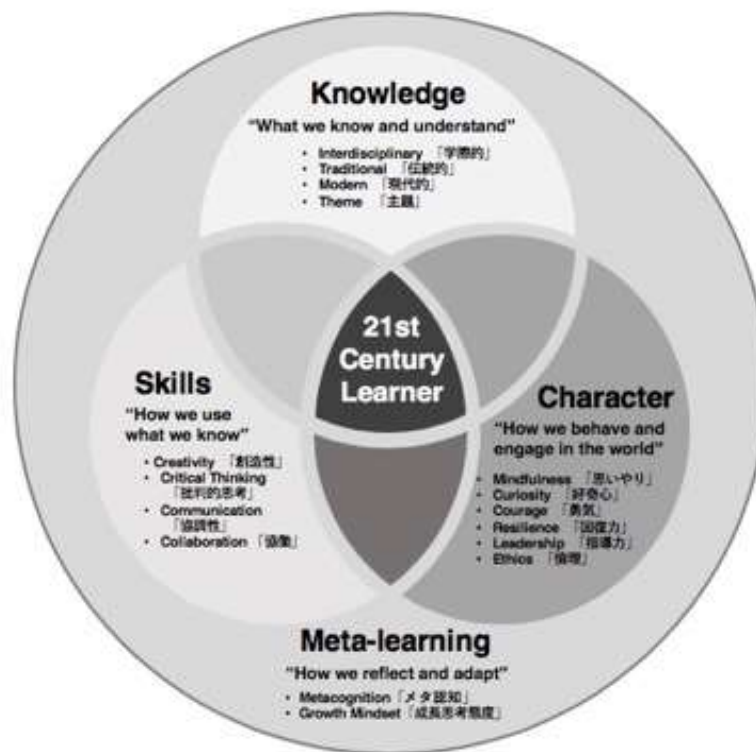
The Four-Dimensional Framework

The Center for Curriculum Redesign's Four-Dimensional Education Framework (Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015) was designed to meet the changing needs of education in the 21st century. The researchers posit that the purpose of education was originally to

disseminate information, similar to how teaching in the Japanese education system is traditionally perceived. It is considered to be teacher-centered, whereas this framework emphasizes a learner-focused approach. "Making sure that individuals develop a reliable compass and the navigation skills to find their way through an increasingly uncertain, volatile, and ambiguous world," is a major goal of the framework (Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015, p. 1). They stress that students need to not just understand something, they need to take the knowledge they have and apply it in various contexts and situations. Students need to have the skills and character to be able to engage with people from various cultures and to be able to understand and accept diversity in "ideas, perspectives, and values," (Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015, p. 3). The framework is the integration of three distinct categories: knowledge, skills, and character, encircled by the concept of meta-learning. The 21st-century learner is at its core (Figure 1).

Figure 1

The Four-Dimensional Education Framework



Adapted with permission from Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015, p. 67.

Knowledge

The knowledge dimension of the framework divides knowledge into four main categories, traditional, modern, interdisciplinary, and themes. The traditional disciplines include the subjects that are currently taught across the globe in some form: mathematics, sciences, the domestic or common language, foreign languages, social studies, arts, and physical education. These subjects are generally taught with a focus on memorization for examinations rather than understanding the content and applying it to other contexts. Moreover, this content takes up most classroom time leaving limited time for more modern subjects that learners need to be active members of today's society. Modern subjects can also be categorized as interdisciplinary. These subjects focus on concepts and meta-concepts that can be overarching across one subject or even multiple disciplines and have three distinct aspects of value. They are practical, cognitive, and emotional (Fadel,

Bialik, & Trilling, 2015). Topics such as environmental literacy, global literacy, digital literacy, emotional intelligence, media literacy, and information literacy are examples of modern disciplines.

Skills

The second dimension of the framework focuses on skills. Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling (2015) argue that teaching these four skills allow learners to actively engage with the content being taught and result in a deeper transfer of knowledge. The four skills in this dimension are creativity, critical thinking, communication, and collaboration. Each skill enables learners to demonstrate how they use what they know and can influence their motivation in turn as they can see and acknowledge their results firsthand.

Creativity

Einstein states that "imagination is more important than knowledge. For knowledge is limited to all we now

understand, while imagination embraces the entire world, and all there will ever be to know and understand,” (as cited in Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015, p. 110). Trilling and Fadel (2009) further propose that creativity can be fostered in environments that encourage learners to question, come up with new ideas, and not fear making mistakes. Moreover, providing opportunities for students to engage in problem-based learning, divergent-thinking activities, and open-ended tasks allows students to develop their creativity, making this an invaluable skill for today’s learners.

Critical Thinking

Critical thinking skills are another of the main skills in this dimension. Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling use the National Council for Excellence in Critical Thinking’s definition: “intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action” (1987). Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling (2015) stress that critical thinking skills can be explicitly taught in class but also have a place in assigned tasks and projects.

Communication

Regarding communication, the researchers highlight that it is an essential skill for most jobs regardless of the field. Communication skills such as relationship building, negotiating, and conflict resolution are valuable skills to have in school and society. Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling (2015) also state that communication skills have become even more important in this digital age because of the connections between people around the world who have different backgrounds, cultures, and customs.

Collaboration

The final skill that is needed in the 21st century is the ability to collaborate. As mentioned previously, the world is more connected than it was even 20 years ago, so opportunities to interact with people from various backgrounds and cultures have increased drastically. Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling explain that “collaborative learning has shown to increase learning outcomes, enjoyment of the subject matter, self-esteem, and inclusiveness of diversity,” (2015, p. 120). It also can be used as the catalyst to provide student engagement in the other three framework skills.

Character

The third dimension of the framework, character, is of extreme importance because it affects a student both inside and outside of the classroom. Furthermore, it is said that “the goal of education has been to cultivate confident and compassionate students who become successful learners, contribute to their communities,

and serve society as ethical citizens,” (Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015, p. 123). The framework emphasizes character building to create the foundation for lifelong learning, foster thriving relationships, and aid in the development of personal beliefs. There are six main character qualities in the framework: mindfulness, curiosity, courage, resilience, ethics, and leadership. Each trait includes a non-exhaustive list of qualities and concepts connected to it. For example, some of the qualities associated with mindfulness include self-awareness, empathy, happiness, patience, balance, social awareness, and cultural awareness. The trait of resilience encompasses qualities such as perseverance, grit, adaptability, and commitment. These character traits directly influence how each person acts and engages within their communities and society.

Meta-learning

The final dimension of the framework is meta-learning with the subcategories of metacognition and growth mindset. This dimension calls for students to engage in reflection to understand what they are doing and why they are doing it. By cultivating a growth mindset (Dweck, 2017) learners become more motivated to engage in learning and to learn how to adapt to various situations, especially their goals (Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015). By equipping learners with these abilities, they will be more “versatile, reflective, self-directed, and self-reliant,” (Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015, p. 145). Students who can utilize their metacognition and understand growth mindset will be better prepared when they enter the workforce because they will have had opportunities to make more decisions on their own and find their motivation to achieve their goals.

Context and Implementation

This course was originally designed in the spring of 2018 for two first-year required English classes at a private university in central Japan. It was then adapted for the spring semester in 2019, and again in 2020 when classes were moved online due to the COVID-19 pandemic. While not English majors, the students all have an international relations-focused major.

There are four required first-year English courses that students must pass to meet their graduation requirements. The classes are simply called English I, II, III, and IV. While all four classes are four-skills-based: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. English II, is supposed to have a stronger focus on reading and writing than the other skills. *The Oxford English Grammar Course: Intermediate* (Swan & Walter, 2011b) used in 2018 and *The Oxford English Grammar Course: Basic* (Swan & Walter, 2011a) used in 2019 and 2020, are the required textbooks respectively. The class is held twice a week for 15 weeks, and instructors are

requested to teach all 22 units of the textbook while providing ample chances for active participation and evaluation.

The students are streamed into classes using the Assessment of Communicative English Test (ACE) produced by the NPO, Association for English Language Proficiency Assessment (ELPA), before the start of the semester. The exam tests students' listening, vocabulary, grammar, and reading ability. The students enrolled in my class are all considered to have a basic level of English. They are what Wiltshier and Helgesen (2019) refer to as false beginners. This means that the students have all had at least six years of English study in secondary school. However, most of them come from backgrounds where they studied English to pass the university entrance exams rather than had opportunities to use English as a means of communication. The students can translate sentences between Japanese and English and usually have strong reading comprehension skills, however, they have difficulty using English to express themselves both orally and in writing.

Though the focus of the course is mainly on reading and writing, I desire to provide ample opportunities for students to engage in pair work and group projects to give them opportunities to use English as a tool to achieve a goal. In doing so, learners have more opportunities to become autonomous learners (Verla Uchida, 2020). To give them a stronger sense of agency and autonomy, I positioned myself as a facilitator and coordinator of the activities and tried to advise and help students as needed, showing them that I was a resource for them (see Benson, 2013). By aligning myself in such a way, I enabled my students to “take charge of [their] learning” (Holec, 1981, p. 3).

To provide students with as much time as possible to use English in class, I flipped the classroom (Bergmann & Sams, 2014) and assigned the textbook as homework. Each of the units was assigned as homework, and a short 10-point quiz was given at the beginning of each class to assess students' understanding of the assigned grammar homework. By flipping the classroom, it allowed them to “engage creatively in the subject matter,” (Bergmann & Sams, 2014, p. 6) through engaging in various tasks and projects during class, while also using the grammar they studied for homework communicatively.

The first time the course was taught, five one-lesson tasks and six multi-lesson projects were incorporated into the curriculum; each designed to foster elements of the framework (Table 1). Verla Uchida (2019) gives a detailed explanation of one of the tasks (Living Graphs) and one of the projects (Advice Columns) from the 2018 course that were implemented in the classroom. Based on student feedback and personal reflection, the following year in the spring of 2019, the one-lesson

tasks were removed. The number of projects remained at six. Each topic was devoted more class time allowing for more emphasis to be placed on writing. In the spring of 2020, the course was revamped again as it was moved online due to the COVID-19 pandemic. Previous projects were no longer suitable for an online learning environment such as the group project requiring students to have a meal together at a restaurant and write a review and the local sightseeing project in which students visited local tourist areas and designed a sightseeing tour for visitors to the university area. Additionally, Flipgrid, an online video platform where students can upload and comment on classmates' videos, was used for all the projects. Table 1 shows a detailed list of the tasks and projects by year with changes marked in bold. Table 2 shows how the 2020 projects aligned with the framework.

Table 1

Tasks and Projects from the EFL Classroom

	Tasks	Projects
2018	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Introducing Others ● Living Graph ● Apples to Apples ● Describing photos ● Describing a short movie 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Self-Introduction ● Survey Project ● Restaurant Review ● Giving Advice ● Kamishibai (Japanese storytelling) ● Local Sightseeing
2019		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Self-Introduction ● Friends & Family ● Survey Project ● Restaurant Review ● Giving Advice ● Local Sightseeing
2020		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Self-Introduction ● Important Person ● My Passions ● Compare and Contrast ● What if...

Table 2

2020 Projects Plugged in to the Four-Dimensional Education Framework

	Skills	Knowledge	Character	Meta-learning
Self- Introductions	Creativity	Digital Literacy	Mindfulness	Metacognition
	Critical Thinking		Leadership	Growth Mindset
	Communication		Curiosity Courage Resilience	
An Important Person	Creativity	Digital Literacy	Mindfulness	Metacognition
	Critical Thinking		Leadership	Growth Mindset
	Communication		Curiosity Courage Resilience Ethics	
My Passions	Creativity	Digital Literacy	Mindfulness	Metacognition
	Critical Thinking		Leadership	Growth Mindset
	Communication		Curiosity Courage Resilience Ethics	
Compare and Contrast	Creativity	Digital Literacy	Mindfulness	Metacognition
	Critical Thinking		Leadership	Growth Mindset
	Communication	Information Literacy	Curiosity Courage Resilience Ethics	
What if...	Creativity	Digital Literacy	Mindfulness	Metacognition
	Critical Thinking		Leadership	Growth Mindset
	Communication		Information Literacy	Curiosity Courage Resilience Ethics

Note. Collaboration was deliberately not included as a skill in the 2020 projects due to the nature of online courses and the need to balance asynchronous and synchronous classes.

Data were collected the first year of implementation, in 2018 (n=39), through an anonymous post-course survey, post-class student reflections, and entries in a teacher journal. Data collected in the second and third years, 2019 (n=22) and 2020 (n=15), were collected from an anonymous bilingual pre-and post-course survey, student project reflections, and post-course teacher reflections. The qualitative data, student reflections, and open-ended survey questions were analyzed by deductive coding using the keywords from the four dimensions of the framework.

Results and Reflections

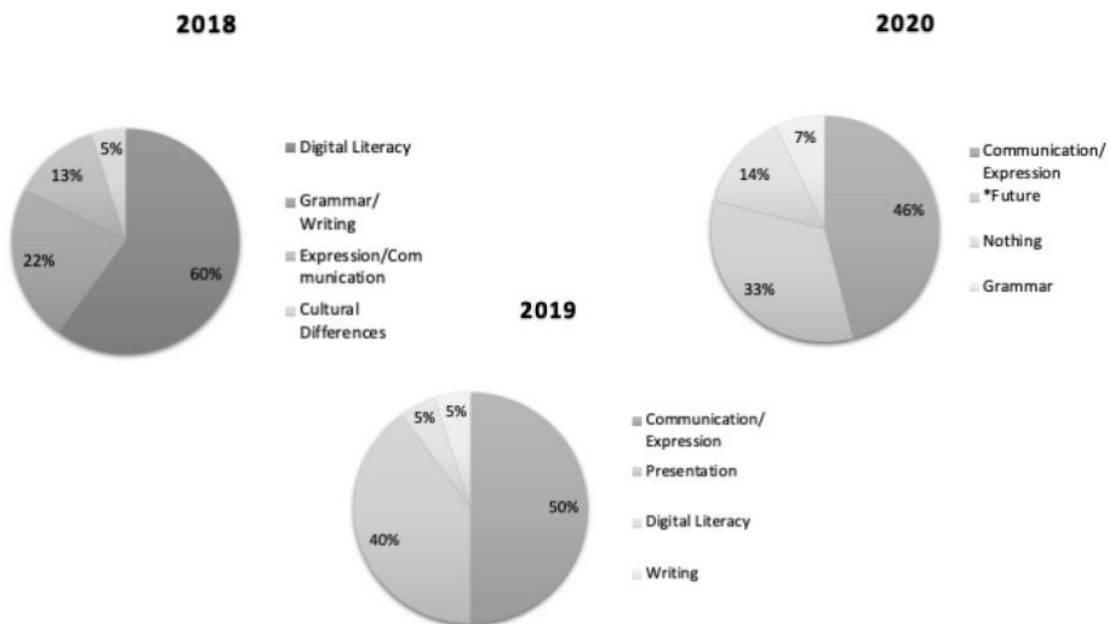
Knowledge

It was expected that students would gain grammar knowledge from the required textbook, and develop the four main skills of speaking, listening, reading, and writing, throughout the course. To understand student perceptions of what students believed they learned, they were asked an open-ended question about the course, "What knowledge did you gain or learn?" (Figure 2). The answers were then coded and

categorized into main themes. The 2018 results showed that students gained the most knowledge about digital literacy through using Google Workspace for Education, knowledge about how to communicate and express themselves in English, and the ability to use grammar for writing. Based on the student answers, it can be said that they learned the modern theme of digital literacy (Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015). Understanding how to use computers and the internet for collecting data, creating materials, and giving presentations will be knowledge that students can use in multiple classes and beyond graduation in their futures. The results for 2019 were similar, however, there was also a strong focus on speaking. Presentation was left as its own category because most of the students who wrote about communication and expression also wrote about presentation. The responses in 2020 were again comparable, however, one student wrote "nothing", and two students wrote about how they could use the knowledge learned in this class in their future jobs and travels, slightly misunderstanding the question.

Figure 2

Results from "What knowledge did you gain or learn?"



Skills

The results from the four skills will be explained using Figure 3.

Collaboration

In the face-to-face lessons, students wrote in their reflections that they had various chances to collaborate. Examples include making slides together for group presentations, helping each other understand assignments, cooperating during presentations, and going for a meal with classmates for the restaurant review. However, in 2020, collaboration was severely limited due to the limitations of online learning and limited time taking synchronous lessons. Despite this, some students realized they had opportunities to collaborate through group work during our synchronous class activities and discussions as well as through commenting on classmates' videos. This shows that even with the transition to emergency remote teaching online, students still felt they had opportunities to collaborate and form a classroom community that fosters a classroom community which Snyder (2019) says should be "our ultimate goal," (p. 142).

Communication

Japanese secondary education often neglects communicative competence in EFL classrooms despite efforts by the Japanese Ministry of Education to implement communicative language teaching (MEXT, 2008). One reason for this is the pressure students face to pass university entrance examinations. However, in the classroom, Fink (2013) states that communication can take place through various skill development activities—data gathering, foreign language use, and managing projects. Snyder (2019) calls this "autonomy-supportive teaching," (p. 140) which creates a sense of trust between students and the teacher. Based on the student survey results, it can be said that students felt they had developed their ability to communicate in English. Their reflections also cited examples of ways they engaged in communication through getting to know classmates, discussing together, and advising each other.

Critical Thinking

Critical thinking was the least developed skill according to the students' point of view. Verla Uchida (2020) explains that this could be due to the gap between Japanese and English meanings. While students did not check the box in 2018 and very few did in the following years, the students often wrote examples displaying their use of critical thinking in their class and project reflections. Some student examples include: "I need to improve my vocabulary." "Presentations need a loud, clear voice." "I speak in words, not sentences." "I

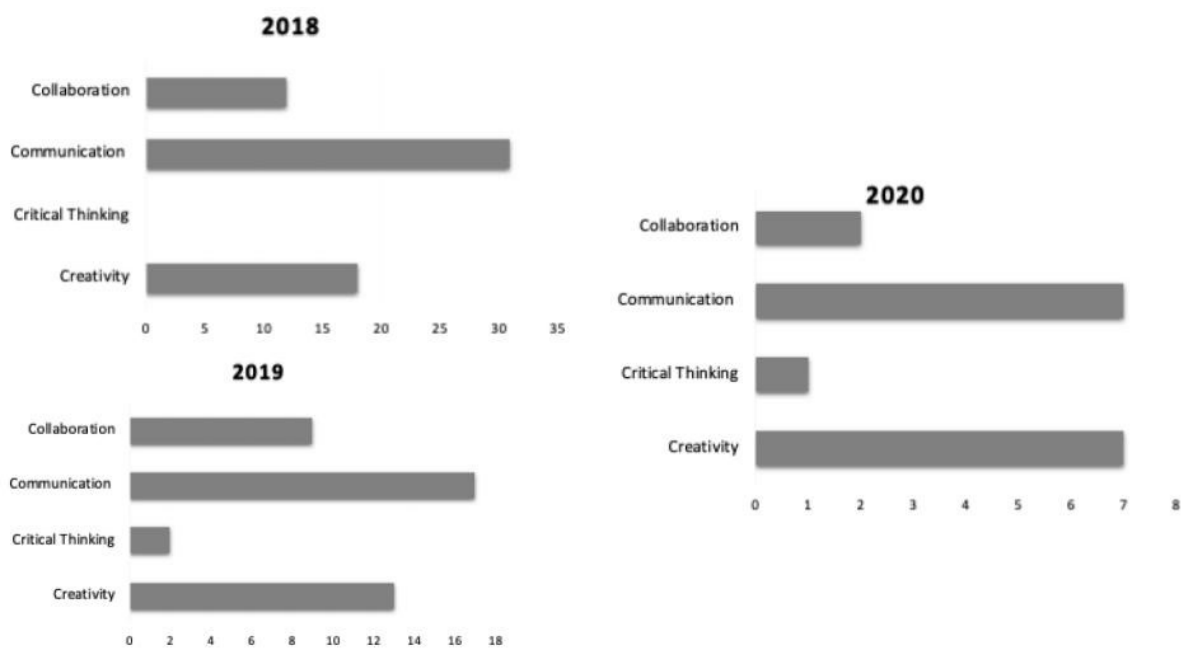
noticed Japanese websites use many words, but English websites use many pictures." These instances show that the students were thinking critically about their English abilities, skills, and the world outside their classroom but they did not recognize it as critical thinking.

Creativity

Student reflections and the survey results also showed that students had the opportunity to cultivate their creativity. Dweck (2017) claims that perseverance and resilience developed with one's growth mindset fosters creativity. The 2020 data showed that students ranked communication and creativity evenly. Student written reflections showed that this was often due to the opportunities to create online presentations to share with their classmates. Student reflections offered specific examples of opportunities to be creative such as describing graphs, designing slides, and creating presentations.

Figure 3

Results from “What skills did you develop?”



Character

The students were not taught explicitly about the six main categories of character development: leadership, ethics, resilience, courage, curiosity, and mindfulness (Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling, 2015) but they were asked to share which traits they developed (Figure 4) and provide examples. Curiosity was the trait that many students felt they developed. The examples given by the students were connected to the projects done in class. In 2020, especially, students commented on the impact the class projects had on their ability to become friends and “get along” with their peers even in an online environment and amidst the COVID-19 pandemic.

Understanding Student Emotions

The results of each survey showed similar emotions among the students. Most students said that they were nervous to study English for reasons including taking a class from a non-Japanese teacher, the amount of homework, and the English-only textbooks but they were also excited. These results were as expected because affect is an important element of foreign language learning. Williams, Mercer, & Ryan (2015) describe it as “a complex web of emotions and feelings,” (p. 79). Research on “negative” emotions has been heavily researched in foreign language learning, most notably, anxiety (Dewaele, 2007, Gardner & MacIntyre, 1993; Williams, Mercer, & Ryan, 2015). More recently research on so-called “positive” emotions has increased, including positive psychology in language learning

(Williams, Mercer, & Ryan (2015). Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) explain that “the field of positive psychology at the subjective level is about valued subjective experiences: well-being, contentment, and satisfaction (in the past); hope and optimism (for the future); and flow and happiness (in the present),” (p. 5). The mixture of both emotions at the start of the semester highlights the importance that emotions play in language learning. Student post-class reflections regularly included emotive words and phrases spotlighting a variety of emotions. Some examples include: “I enjoyed speaking English,” “I have feelings of anxiety about presentations,” “I’m annoyed about today’s presentation because I can’t say what I want to say,” and “I’m looking forward to the next class every day.” The students’ reflections mirrored the literature and highlighted the character traits from the framework.

Meta-learning

Students were not taught the metalanguage regarding this dimension—metacognition and growth mindset—however, the inclusion of reflective writing assignments after each class in 2018 and 2019, and after each project, all three years were done to foster this dimension of the framework. These chances for students to think about what they were learning and doing and why they were doing it created opportunities for them to develop their metacognitive skills and foster a growth mindset. Dweck (2017) stresses the importance of developing a growth mindset that fosters

learners' abilities to adapt to various contexts and situations in addition to developing their ability to pursue their goals and not give up when facing challenges. Students often complained that writing a reflection of approximately 150 words was difficult, but by the end of the semester, the majority commented that they could now write that much easier than before and that they appreciated learning and thinking about themselves and what they were doing through reflection. Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling (2015) explain the need to develop metacognitive skills by reflecting on one's learning goals, learning strategies, and learning outcomes to understand their current feelings and beliefs about their

goals and desired outcomes which mirrors students' comments about engaging in reflection throughout the semester.

Figure 4

Results from "Which character traits did you develop?"



Limitations

As with any study, some limitations must be addressed. The first is the students' uneven and small sample size each year. As the online survey results were completely voluntary the number of respondents was different each term. Additionally, as the course was conducted with different students each year who had roughly the same academic English abilities according to the ACE Test, students' actual abilities regarding language output varied greatly as the test did not account for language production. This could have influenced individual student responses regarding the skills and character responses. Moreover, another limitation was the evolving nature of the tasks and projects over the three years of implementation. While each year the activities were adapted based on the context (i.e. the number of tasks versus projects, the teaching context of face-to-

face versus online) the students were never directly told of the changes each year, nor were they aware of the changes made with regards to the framework. The students were also unfamiliar with the framework and the terminology which if taught explicitly may have influenced or altered their understanding of the course tasks and projects as well as the course design.

Conclusion

Fadel, Bialik, & Trilling (2015), believe that the goal of education is to "cultivate confident and compassionate students who become successful learners, contribute to their communities, and serve society as ethical citizens" (p.123). While this research cannot speculate about the students' futures, it has shown that students who participated in this course left with an ability to use

English while also expanding their knowledge, developing 21st century skills, building their character, and tapping into meta-learning strategies. This study has shown that the integration of the framework into the class design was effective for the context.

References

- Benson, P. (2013). *Teaching and researching autonomy*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Bergmann, J. & Sams, A. (2014). *Flipped learning: Gateway to student engagement*. USA: International Society for Technology in Education
- Dewaele, J.-M. (2007). Predicting language learners' grades in the L1, L2, L3, and L4: The effect of some psychological and sociocognitive variables. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 4(3), 169–197. <https://doi.org/10.2167/ijm080.0>
- Dweck, C. (2017). *Mindset – Changing the way you think to fulfill your potential*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Fadel, C., Bialik, M., & Trilling, B. (2015). *Four-dimensional education: The competencies learners need to succeed*. Boston, MA: Center for Curriculum Redesign.
- Fink, L. D. (2013). *Creating significant learning experiences: An integrated approach to designing college courses*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Gardner, R. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (1993). On the measurement of affective variables in second language learning. *Language Learning*, 43, 157–194. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1992.tb00714.x>
- Holec, H. (1981). *Autonomy and foreign language learning*. New York, NY: Pergamon Press.
- Maslow, A. H. (1943). A theory of human motivation. *Psychological Review*, 50(4), 370–396. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0054346>
- MacIntyre P., Gregersen T. (2012) *Affect: The Role of Language Anxiety and Other Emotions in Language Learning*. In: Mercer S., Ryan S., Williams M. (Eds) *Psychology for Language Learning* (pp. 103-118). New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.
- MEXT. (2008b). 中学校学習指導要領英訳版（仮訳）：外国語 [Tentative English translation of the guide to course of study: Foreign language]. <https://www.mext.go.jp>
- National Council for Excellence in Critical Thinking. (1987). *Defining Critical Thinking*. <https://www.criticalthinking.org/pages/defining-critical-thinking/766>
- Seligman, M., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive psychology: An introduction. *American Psychologist*, 55, 5-14. <https://psycnet.apa.org/doi/10.1037/0003-066X.55.1.5>
- Snyder, B. (2019). *Creating engagement and motivation in the Japanese university language classroom*. In P. Wadden & C. C. Hale (Eds), *Teaching English at Japanese universities: A new handbook* (pp. 137-143). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Swan, M., & Walter, C. (2011a). *Oxford English grammar course: Basic*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

- Swan, M., & Walter, C. (2011b). Oxford English grammar course: Intermediate. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Trilling, B., & Fadel, C. (2009). 21st century skills: Learning for life in our times. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Verla Uchida, A. (2019). Introducing elements of a four-dimensional education into an EFL Classroom. *Learning Learning*, 26(2), 51–56.
- Verla Uchida, A. (2020). Integrating the four-dimensional education framework into an EFL course curriculum. *Relay Journal*, 3(1).
- Williams, M., Mercer, S., & Ryan, S. (2015). Exploring psychology in language learning and teaching. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Wiltshire, J. & Helgensen, M. (2019). Tearing down the wall of silence: constructing the English conversation class at Japanese university. In P. Wadden & C. C. Hale (Eds), *Teaching English at Japanese universities: A new handbook* (pp. 43-53). New York, NY: Routledge.

Effects of Debate on Learner Motivation and L2 Future Self

Wan Jung Amy Lin

Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

In the harmonious Japanese culture, students are usually perceived as reluctant with debate activities, requiring them to express opinions and negotiate. This paper examines how the unit-end debate activities cultivate learners' critical thinking skills and speaking skills, and learner motivation, especially in their self-images about their future. Learners' reflection surveys indicate their improved motivation through negotiating and communicating their ideas in groups. Survey results also demonstrate learners' belief in the practicality and usefulness of the skills, thus projecting them to their future job performance.

調和のとれた日本の文化では、意見を述べたり、交渉したりすることが求められるディベート活動は、通常、学習者にとって消極的なものと思われている。本論文では、単元末のディベート活動が、学習者の批判的思考力や会話力を育み、また学習者のモチベーション、特に自分の将来についての自己イメージを向上させるということを検証する。学習者の振り返り調査によると、グループで交渉したり、自分の考えを伝えたりすることで、学習者のモチベーションが向上したことがわかった。また、学習者のアンケート結果によると、学習者はスキルの実用性と有用性を信じており、スキルを将来の仕事に反映させていることがわかった。

Debate is one of the various activities that effectively promote critical thinking (CT) and language learning. Freeley and Steinberg (2014) described debate as “the process of inquiry and advocacy, a way of arriving at a reasoned judgment on a proposition” (p. 7). They argued that individuals could use debate to achieve conclusions and utilize it to persuade others to accept their viewpoints, resulting in individual and group decisions. In this paper, I will examine how critical thinking (CT) can be significantly beneficial for learners as strategies and how the main debate activity can cultivate CT skills and L2 self.

Cultivating Critical Thinking in Language Classrooms

In the recent trend of teaching critical thinking (CT) in language classrooms, CT is less considered philosophically as *what people should think* nor *the quality of thinking* (Lai, 2011). Instead, CT has been regarded as a set of cognitive behaviorist skills, focusing on behaviors performed when people think, such as posing questions, analyzing, and interpreting (Lai, 2011). In the education field, Bloom's taxonomy was a breakthrough in the pedagogy and psychology of learning (Pikhart & Klimova, 2019) that refined specifically what CT skills were referring to: remembering, understanding, applying, analyzing, evaluating, and creating (Baker & Westbrook, 2018).

Language learners can also benefit from thinking and reflecting on learning through the CT skills. Bagheri (2015) suggested that language educators should teach CT as “higher use of language learning strategies” (p. 975) to better learners' language learning experiences.

In a study about metacognition (i.e., thinking about the thinking), Anderson (2012) further concluded that less proficient students were generally less aware of metacognition. He proposed that when learners reflected on their learning, they made conscious decisions about their actions to improve as language users and experienced empowerment through metacognitive skills. With CT skills, learners trained themselves to learn, monitor, cope, and stay active in learning.

Using Debate as Negotiation in Language Classrooms

As previously stated, utilizing debates in language classrooms positively influences learners' speaking ability and CT skills. Zare and Othman's literature review (2013) on the use of debate activities in language classrooms argued that debates were learner-centered, providing students opportunities to negotiate meanings and promote linguistic input and output right on the spot. Iman (2017), in another study, also examined two groups from an Islamic high school in Indonesia and concluded that the experimental group with the debate treatment improved CT skills and speaking skills significantly than the control group.

Utilizing debates also welcomes negotiation and collaboration in language classrooms, providing learners with opportunities to sense their existence and exercise their human agency. Paulo Freire (1970) claimed, “students are not empty heads waiting to be filled with information mainly through transmission. Rather, they are valuable sources of knowledge instrumental to their learning and empowerment” (as

cited in Richard-Amato, 2002, p. 16). As learners negotiated in English, they were required to participate and experience real-life scenarios in their L2.

Richard-Amato (2002) proposed seven components of Participatory Learning Experience in her paper: (1) teachers identify students' needs, obstacles, and interests; (2) curriculum negotiated to meet students' needs; (3) build dialectical relationships, so all the participants (including teachers) are learners and teachers; (4) basic skills need to be taught; (5) explore important issues to develop cognitive abilities and proficiency; (6) all participants learn through collaboration; (7) critical thinking helps participants make judgments. All seven components described how debate activities could be designed and the benefits learners can receive. I believe that Component 4 does not merely refer to linguistic skills; critical thinking skills are also required to help accomplish Components 5 and 7.

Motivation and Future Self

Second language learning motivation is a complex notion that has been rapidly reconceptualized not only based on psychological factors but also by the economic and social context that shape one's self and identity (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009; Dörnyei, 2019). The phenomenon of globalization has changed learners' distance with cultural groups, individual or group identity in relation to the world, and the understanding of English as lingua franca (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009; Ryan, 2009; Dörnyei, 2009; Kubota, 2018).

Gardner and Lambert's paper (1959) on motivational variables in SLA has immensely impacted the field of SLA and brought social psychology into the discussion. Over sixty years, the construct of integrative motive evolved, and psychology, sociology, social psychology have joined the discussion of motivation (cf. Al-Hoorie & MacIntyre, 2020). Sufficient motivation initiates L2 learning and is the driving force to endure the tedious learning process and accomplish long-term goals (Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015). Educators then have been thriving to find methods to help learners intrinsically motivate themselves so they can run the language learning marathon independently.

In the discussion of intrinsic motivation, it is hard to overlook *integrative motivation* that Gardner (2001) proposed, indicating learners' desire to integrate with the target language speech community. That was to say, the primary motivation learners had was to develop a communicative relationship with members from the target cultural group and a desire to be recognized as valued members of the language community (Gardner & Lambert, 1959; MacIntyre, 2007). However, as Ryan (2009) surveyed Japanese and Hungarian students, it was interesting to see learners' efforts had a higher

correlation with attitude when the national aspects were removed. The integrative motivation of the participants in the study was higher towards English speakers over the world (English as an international language) than English speakers from the US. Ryan (2009) proposed, "attitudes towards a vague, undefined L2 community correlate more highly with efforts than attitudes to a fixed and readily identifiable L2 community" (p.131). Lamb (2004) suggested that English learners might not associate English with "particular geographical or cultural communities but with a spreading international culture incorporating business, technological innovation, consumer values, democracy, world travel, and the multifarious icons of fashion, sport and music" (p. 3; also see Iman, 2017).

Further, in 2005, Dörnyei proposed his *L2 Motivational Self System* "as a reframing of Gardner's (2001) concept of the integrative motive" (MacIntyre et al., 2009a, p. 49), consisting of three dimensions, *the ideal L2 self*, *the ought-to self*, and *the L2 learning experience*. The *ideal L2 self* indicated a desirable image of what learners envision themselves for the future; *ought-to self* referred to on the obligations and duties that one ought to possess, and thus more extrinsic (i.e., from authorities, cultures, and societies); the L2 learning experience referred to the prior success experience and the motivation promoted by it (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Dörnyei & Ryan, 2015).

Educators continued to argue that the ideal self-images must be elaborated and vivid in order to be effective in some students. The methods of imagery enhancement had been implemented in psychological, educational, and sports research, and the techniques could be employed to strengthen learners' vision and ideal self (Dörnyei, 2009). It was argued that learners with "a vivid and detailed ideal self-image that has a substantial L2 component are more likely to be motivated to take action in pursuing language studies" (Dörnyei & Chan, 2013, p. 440). Also, Oyserman et al. (2004) described that there were two types of possible selves. One was the possible selves that stimulated good feelings about themselves yet no plans to activate; the other was those who involved plans of action to reach the future image of themselves. Similarly, MacIntyre et al. (2009b) argued that it was more important to observe "how often a possible self is thought about" (p. 197) and how learners considered the likeliness of their possible selves; the more *aware* and *cognizant* learners were of their future self, the more likely their motivation would be impacted on.

This brings us to the present study, which examined the L2 self of second-year university students in Japan after

a series of debate activities. The study addressed the following research questions:

1. How do the debate activities help with language learning?
2. Do the debate activities help learners to visualize their future self in L2?

Method

Participants of the study were 31 university students, non-English majors, in a four-skill integrated English course, which was conducted twice a week online via Zoom due to the COVID-19 pandemic.

Preparation and the Main Debate Activity

To prepare participants for the necessary skills for the unit-end group debate activities, I incorporated varied weekly activities to cultivate habits to ask questions after unit readings and presentations. Casual debates and critical incidents were conducted constantly for participants to negotiate in pairs. At the end of each unit, participants took part in the more formal and extended debates.

The main debate activity that this study explored was roleplay activities incorporated with different unit topics for participants to debate, negotiate, and collaborate ideas according to the provided scenarios, designed by my colleagues and me, names used with permission (see Appendix A for details). The unit topics were aligned with the designated textbook *Prism Reading 2* (Baker & Westbrook, 2018).

Instead of adopting academic debate formats (e.g., cross-examination format, mock trial format, academic parliamentary format, etc. See Freeley & Steinberg, 2014, chapter 17), I adopted a more interactive and communicative meeting format with more relevant and essential topics to encourage learner participation, aligning with Participatory Learning Experience, which emphasized participation from all members to both learn and teach, allowing power to be shared in the classrooms. By exploring different local and global issues, learners developed cognitive abilities and language proficiency (Richard-Amato, 2002).

Procedure

At the end of each unit, participants were assigned different roles under a debate scenario. For example, the mayor, construction companies, public transportation companies, environmental activists, and residents gathered for a hearing to solve Nagoya traffic congestion problem. See Appendix A for more details of all topics. Participants researched necessary information outside of class. Based on different roles, their research should be distinctive from the different perspectives they were given.

At the end of the school year, a short questionnaire was conducted to investigate learner motivation and self-image about their future using the learned skills. It was made clear that participation in the survey was voluntary and anonymous. The survey included ten statements based on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), followed by two open-ended questions. See Appendix B for the survey questions.

Results

Table 1 shows the statistical results from the Likert scale items.

To answer the first research question, participants responded positively about the group debate activities on language learning. Overall, the activities benefit active listening, critical thinking, speaking, researching, and negotiation (Item 1 through 5). Participants also responded positively to learning from peers (Item 8 through 10). However, even though participants' motivation and confidence showed positive, the mean score was comparatively low compared with other items ($M=4.000$, $SD=0.845$; $M=4.000$, $SD=0.966$). When answering the open-ended questions, participants also responded learned skills as actively listening, speaking, researching, summarizing, expressing ideas from different perspectives, debating skills and phrases, and critical thinking. They also responded that they acquired good information and vocabulary words from other group members. The nature of the activity also provided urgency to express.

- *"I think this activity makes us feel comfortable speaking English."* (S8)

- *"We have to think of many ideas to argue with others. So, I think we can get to think soon and say what I want to tell in English."* (S23)

- *"I could try to express my opinions even if the grammar is not correct."* (S24)

Naturally, there were some negative responses. Debating with peers was complex in Japanese already, and it added more challenges to this activity when it was in English. Further, English became more challenging for specific roles (e.g., head politicians or mall owners). Participants also found it challenging to develop responses right on the spot. Some also expressed that group dynamics and language ability were significant variables at this activity, primarily when lack of preparation or language skills occurred. Poorly prepared participants could not have content to speak about, and well-prepared participants did not have members to argue with.

- "Sometimes, some students didn't research their topics, but we can share and help each other." (S6)
- "I can't come up with good answers when other members asked questions." (S21)
- "I always enjoyed this activity, but I think debate is very difficult even in Japanese, so the debate in English often don't go well. I felt sad when I can't express in English." (S24)

In terms of participants' imagined future, they responded that the following skills would be necessary and valuable for the future: expressing opinions, speaking from various positions, expressions necessary for arguments, speaking, active listening, investigating, negotiating, and immediately responding to unexpected opinions in English.

To my surprise, the last question on the survey stimulated participants' visions for their future L2 self. Multiple responses included phrases such as "When I get a job," "When I become a worker," "If I work in foreign countries or Japan," and "at meetings or conferences." The participants visualized themselves in varied future life events. The responses showed participants' connection between the English debates and future work performance more than discussions or conversations with friends.

- "There are a lot of opportunities like this after I get a job." (S4)

- "As I grow up, I have more opportunities to debate." (S16)
- "I think it will be useful when discussing with foreigners. In addition, I think that we will be able to respond immediately to unexpected opinions." (S28)
- "For example, if we [are working], we have to discuss many times then we use the skills not [only] English but also Japanese. And I think it is very important to think as soon as possible when we discuss. We can also get the skill from this activity." (S23)

Some responses included more vivid imagery about using specific skills in the future. Participants anticipated *whom* they would use the skills with, *where* they would use the skills, and *what* they would do with the skills.

- "If I work in foreign countries or with foreign people, it will help a lot. And if I work in Japan with only Japanese people, the skill of debate and the way of thinking would help me." (S10, where and who)
- "[I will] be able to negotiate in English, not only working in multinational companies also debating something in English with foreigners in the future." (S17, where and who)
- "When you go out into the society and start working, meetings become essential. So I found this debate skill to be very useful. Researching the topic beforehand, listening to the other person, and forming opinions are all things you need to do in a meeting." (S19, what)

Table 1

Statistic Results

	Count					M	SD
	1	2	3	4	5		
<i>The debate activity helps:</i>							
1. To listen more carefully and actively	0	0	2	7	21	4.633	0.615
2. To think critically	0	1	4	6	20	4.452	0.850
3. To develop answers promptly	0	1	5	14	11	4.129	0.806
4. To negotiate better in English	0	1	5	15	10	4.097	0.790
5. To research and organize information	0	1	3	15	12	4.226	0.762
6. To raise motivation to speak English	0	1	7	12	9	4.000	0.845
7. To be more confident in English	0	3	5	12	11	4.000	0.966
<i>Collaboration learning</i>							
8. Impressed by others' ideas	0	0	4	9	18	4.452	0.723
9. Different opinions motivate multiple-perspective thinking	0	0	4	14	13	4.290	0.693
10. Enjoying collaboration within groups	0	0	6	11	14	4.258	0.773

Notes. n=31

Discussion

Motivation

Learner motivation after the series of unit-end debates showed very positive results, as we can see from the results of the Likert-scale items. However, it was not necessarily connected with Gardner's ideas of integrativeness, or the desire to use the skills in English-speaking communities. It was interesting that when answering the last two open-ended questions, many expressed they would *use the skills at work, in Japan, or other countries*. Learners expect a more globalized Japan in the future awaiting. As Ryan (2009) described, English has a more instrumental function in most Japanese university students. Instead of developing an English identity, learners are very likely to develop a global identity (Dörnyei, 2009) because of the worldwide globalization process and the conception of English as an international language. Even if learners stay in Japan in the future, the multinational companies will require them to use English to negotiate. Therefore, learners seem to appreciate this type of activity that provides them with opportunities to rehearse what they need to perform at work in the future. They appreciate the unique function and genre of the debate activity, as well as its practicality and usefulness.

Demotivation

Anxiety during debate cannot be overlooked, especially when varied topics raise difficulty in language and content, causing linguistic anxiety and CLIL anxiety (Somers & Llinares, 2021). In addition, in a Confucian-influenced country like Japan, it is already hard for students to argue about controversial topics in Japanese, let alone in English. Therefore, linguistically, it is essential to teach and reinforce necessary phrases and fillers to politely agree, disagree, negotiate, and communicate throughout the semester. Necessary topical phrases and vocabulary words distinctive to the debate topics should be taught to avoid demotivation.

Also, learners expect to perform in specific ways distinctively to their roles (e.g., politicians or businesspersons) as they prepare for the debate. However, during the debate, when the imagined role performance and their actual performance do not align, they can sense frustration towards themselves and, later, demotivation. Especially in Japan, the culture emphasizes the importance of understanding their societal roles and acting to their utmost to meet the expectations of the roles (Apple et al., 2013). Even though the debate activity can help learners *create and strengthen the vision*, as Dörnyei and Ryan (2015) described as part of the vision-inspired motivational strategies, debate scenarios lacking diversity in design and relevance may not help learners stay motivated.

Not every student will become a politician or salesperson; not every student watches these scenarios on mass media. Therefore, as Apple et al. (2013) suggested, in helping future scientists and engineers, it can be beneficial by showing authentic interview or conversation videos from Japanese professionals speaking English, and it can provide relevance to learners and bring meaning to the activities from real-life.

Another demotivating factor is group dynamics. Dörnyei (2005) proposed that the concept of *group norm* is, in many respects, comparable to individual student motivation. As *group norms*, or rules and routines, help group members "go about their business as effectively as possible" (p. 89), educators can take advantage of the *group norm* to move the adverse effects toward motivating elements. For example, one participant responded that the lack of preparation among group members in turn encouraged supporting systems within the group. In this case, being demotivated does not mean "all the positive influences that originally made up the motivational basis of a behavior have been annulled; rather, it is only the resultant force that has been dampened by a strong negative component, while some other positive motives may still remain operational" (Dörnyei, 2005). Educators can take advantage of opportunities like this and observe the *group norm* and provide scaffolding if needed. Similarly, teachers need to be cautious about some harmful norms when students are pressured due to lacking research or linguistic ability.

Limitations

The group was fairly small (n=31), and no follow-up interviews were conducted after the survey. It was still unclear which nationality participants referred to when mentioning foreigners or foreign countries. Nevertheless, the participants still visualized themselves using the skills in a professional and formal setting.

Moreover, because the activities' design was mainly based on formal settings (business or government meetings), the participants connected the skills with their future work performance more than informal settings where they needed to negotiate with their friends in English. We can also see that the design of activities significantly shapes learners' images about their future when they rehearse English in the language classrooms. It is vital for educators to provide a more variety of scenarios (formal and informal) for learners to rehearse and visualize their future in English.

References

- Al-Hoorie, A. H., & MacIntyre, P. D. (Eds.). (2020). *Contemporary language motivation theory: 60 years since Gardner and Lambert (1959)*. Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Anderson, N. J. (2012). Metacognition: Awareness of language learning. In S. Mercer, S. Ryan, & M. Williams (Eds.), *Psychology for language learning: Insights from research, theory and practice* (pp. 169-187). London, UK: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Apple, M. T., Falout, J., & Hill, G. (2013). Exploring classroom-based constructs of EFL motivation for science and engineering students in Japan. In M. T. Apple, D. D. Silve, & T. Fellner (Eds.), *Language learning motivation in Japan* (pp. 54-74). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Bagheri, F. (2015). The relationship between CT and language learning strategies of EFL learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 6(5), 969-975.
- Baker, L., & Westbrook, C. (2018). *Prism reading 2*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition*. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 9-42). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2019). Psychology and language learning: The past, the present and the future. *Journal for the Psychology of Language Learning*, 1, 27-41.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Chan, L. (2013). Motivation and vision: An analysis of future L2 self images, sensory styles, and imagery capacity across two target languages. *Language Learning*, 63(3), 437-462.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). *The psychology of the language learner revisited*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Freeley, A. J., & Steinberg, D. L. (2014). *Argumentation and debate: Critical thinking for reasoned decision making* (13th ed.). Boston, MA: Wadsworth, Cengage Learning.
- Gardner, R. C. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dörnyei & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Motivation and second language acquisition*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii.
- Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology*, 13(4), 266-272.
- Iman, J. N. (2017). Debate instruction in EFL classroom: Impacts on the critical thinking and speaking skill. *International Journal of Instruction*, 10(4), 87-108.
- Kubota, R. (2018). *英語教育幻想* [Myths in language education]. Tokyo, Japan: Chikuma Shinsho.
- Lai, E. R. (2011). *Critical thinking: A literature review*. Pearson Education. Retrieved on January 20, 2021, from <http://images.pearsonassessments.com/images/tmrs/CriticalThinkingReviewFINAL.pdf>

- Lamb, M. (2004). Integrative motivation in a globalizing world. *System*, 32(1), 3-19.
- MacIntyre, P. D. (2007). Willingness to communicate in the second language: Understanding the decision to speak as a volitional process. *Modern Language Journal*, 91(4), 564-576.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Mackinnon, S. P., & Clement, R. (2009a). The baby, the bathwater, and the future of language learning motivation research. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 43-65). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- MacIntyre, P. D., Mackinnon, S. P., & Clement, R. (2009b). Toward the development of a scale to assess possible selves as a source of language learning motivation. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 193-214). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Oyserman, D., Bybee, D., Terry, K., & Hart-Johnson, T. (2004). Possible selves as roadmaps. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 38, 130 –149.
- Pikhart, M., & Klímová, B. (2019). Utilization of linguistic aspects of Bloom's taxonomy in blended learning. *Education Sciences*, 9(3), 235-243. Retrieved on April 29, 2021 from <https://doi.org/10.3390/educsci9030235>
- Richard-Amato, P. (2002). Sharing power in the classroom. *ESL Magazine*, 5(1), 16-18.
- Ryan, S. (2009). Self and identity in L2 motivation in Japan: The ideal L2 self and Japanese learners of English. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 120-143). Bristol, London: Multilingual Matters.
- Somers, T., & Llinares, A. (2021). Students' motivation for content and language integrated learning and the role of programme intensity. *International Journal of Bilingual Education and Bilingualism*, 24(6), 839-854.
- Ushioda, E., & Dörnyei, Z. (2009). Motivation, language identities and the L2 self: A theoretical overview. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 1-8). Bristol, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Zare, P., & Othman, M. (2013). Classroom debate as a systematic teaching/learning approach. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 28(11), 1506-1513.

Appendix A

Group debate (role play) topics for all units.

Unit	Unit Topic	Debate Topic	Designer Acknowledgements
3	Transportation	<p>The Nagoya Mayor would like to improve Nagoya's traffic congestions and listens to different plans to make the final decision.</p> <p>Roles: Nagoya Mayor, road construction company, public transportation development company, environmental activist, and building construction company.</p>	Niall Walsh
4	Customs and Traditions	<p>The teacher of the class is getting married but too busy to plan her wedding. The teacher's assistant will listen to different designers and friends to plan the wedding for the busy teacher.</p> <p>Roles: the assistant, wedding planner from the USA and Taiwan, wedding planner for unique themes, and hotel staff.</p>	Wan Jung Amy Lin
5	Health and Fitness	<p>Civilians and businesses meet with Japanese politicians to decide if the government should tax products that are bad for health.</p> <p>Roles: head politician, a worried parent from Okinawa, CEO of Glico, concerned office worker, farmer, and life insurance company.</p>	Jared Peo
6	Discovery and Invention	<p>China is working on a South-North Water Transfer Project. The Chinese politician listens to opinions from civilians and companies to decide how to proceed.</p> <p>Roles: head politician, fisherman, farmers from the North, resident in Beijing, construction company, and environmental activist.</p>	Wan Jung Amy Lin
7	Fashion	<p>An eco-friendly mall in Japan would like to take in two more shops but avoid scandals and sweatshops. The mall owner has a meeting with representatives from different brands.</p> <p>Roles: mall owner, representatives from Zara, Nike, Uniqlo, H&M, and GAP.</p>	Jared Peo

Appendix B

Survey Questions

Q1	The debate activity helps me listen to my friends more carefully and actively.
Q2	The debate activity helps me think more critically.
Q3	The debate activity helps me develop good answers right away when other group members ask me questions.
Q4	The debate activity helps me to negotiate better in English.
Q5	The debate activity helps me to research and organize information in English.
Q6	The debate activity helps with my motivation to speak English.
Q7	The debate activity helps me to be more confident in English.
Q8	I am always impressed by my classmates' ideas.
Q9	When group members share different ideas, it also motivates me to think from a different perspective.
Q10	I enjoy collaboration among group members.
Q11	How do you like the activity? Do you think this activity helps you?
Q12	Do you think the skills you learned from this activity will help you in the future? How?

Gender Awareness in Language Education (GALE) SIG Forum: Local and Global Perspectives on Gender

Anna Walker
University of Nottingham

Kristie Collins
Reitaku University

Quenby Hoffman Aoki
Seikei University

Gerry Yokota
Osaka University

The 2021 Gender Awareness in Language Education (GALE) Forum featured three presentations. First, Kristie Collins shared her course on gender, multilingualism/multiculturalism, and identity. Next, Quenby Hoffman Aoki discussed intersectionality and its importance within GALE. The final presenter was Gerry Yokota, who entered into a dialogue with Quenby about the history of GALE and the role of intersectionality within our SIG. The presentations were followed by a lively question and answer session in which attendees and presenters engaged in discussions about both the practical and theoretical applications of intersectionality in educational contexts.

2021年のGALE（Gender Awareness in Language Education）フォーラムでは、3つのプレゼンテーションが行われた。まず、クリスティ・コリンズ氏は、ジェンダー、多言語主義／多文化主義、そしてアイデンティティに関する授業を紹介した。次に、クエンビー・ Hoffman・アオキ氏が、GALEにおけるインターセクショナリティ（交差性；複合差別）とその重要性について提唱した。最後に、ジェリー・ヨコタ氏は、アオキ氏との対談において、GALEの歴史やSIGにおけるインターセクショナリティの実践について語った。発表後の質疑応答では、参加者と発表者の間で、教育現場におけるインターセクショナリティの実践的・理論的な応用について活発な議論が交わされた。

The purpose of the Gender Awareness in Language Education (GALE) SIG is to research gender in teaching contexts, improve and develop pedagogical materials and practices, raise awareness of human rights issues related to gender, and increase networking opportunities for language educators (GALE, 2021). The PanSIG Forum is a chance for GALE to showcase recent gender-related research and activities. This year, the theme of the GALE Forum was “Local and Global Perspectives on Gender,” which included three presentations, a poetry reading, and a discussion centred around the concept of intersectionality in GALE.

In order to inspire connection with PanSIG's overall theme of plurilingualism and multilingualism, the Conference Chair posed the following question to presenters: “How does language learning connect the inside and the outside of the learner, the classroom, the

society?” (Schmidt, 2021). From a gender awareness perspective, the answer to this question can only be “through intersectionality.” The ongoing pandemic has magnified issues of social inequality and discrimination not limited to those of gender, race, and class. The Forum presenters demonstrated ways in which they manage these important but difficult themes—not only in the classroom, but also as educators committed to reflective practice and acknowledging that we can always do better.

The first speaker was Kristie Collins who presented her classroom application of a docuseries exploring Japanese culture from the perspective of a journalist occupying multiple linguistic and cultural identities. Next, Quenby Hoffman Aoki introduced the topic of intersectionality, emphasizing that as both educators and members of GALE, we must be committed to

recognizing our positions of privilege, while remaining open to constructive criticism and embracing opportunities for growth. The third presenter was Gerry Yokota who, through dialogue with Quenby, shared her experiences as an educator teaching intersectionality. Gerry also touched on the history of GALE, in which she provided a few examples of how GALE has practiced intersectionality over its roughly 20 year history. Lastly, Quenby recited her poem entitled *Moving On*, which touches on themes of identity, societal expectations, and self-acceptance.

Talking Gender in the Multilingual/Multicultural/Multidisciplinary Classroom

Kristie Collins

Having taught gender studies in ESL/EFL classrooms for over two decades in England, Finland, and Japan, I am always on the hunt for engaging and effective teaching resources to provide a framework for my courses. Currently, I am teaching at a private liberal arts university in Chiba, Japan, and it is a joy to have the support of the administration and the interest of the student body in undertaking gender studies and media courses in our program. However, in order to ensure that students can master the material, finding the right textbook or online resources is imperative. In past years, I enjoyed using GALE's own Jane Nakagawa's *Gender Issues Today* (2005, out of print) and Mel Reiff Hill and Jay Mays's wonderful *The Gender Book* (2011) in many of my lessons, but I continued struggling to find an up-to-date textbook that offered basic gender studies content at an appropriate language level for my students. That is, until I encountered the ideal resource for my course last year: Channel News Asia (CNA)'s four-part docuseries, *Deciphering Japan* (Thayi, 2020).

Deciphering Japan

CNA's exceptional series is divided into four hour-long episodes: "A Woman's Role," "Live to Work," "Ageing Society," and "Being Japanese." Narrated by the half-Japanese/half-Malaysian, American-raised journalist, Yumi Araki, each episode explores these respective themes from Ms. Araki's unusual insider/outsider perspective. Having been born and raised in Japan until adolescence, Ms. Araki understands firsthand the gender inequalities and problematic identity politics that afflict contemporary Japanese society; at the same time, she is apprehensive about what may be lost in Japan's rich traditional practices and rural communities as the nation seeks to reinvent and revitalize itself at this critical juncture in time. Each episode focuses on its respective theme, but issues of gender, age, nationality, and self/social identity weave through the entire series. In this way, the docuseries offers an ideal context from

which students can reflect upon the ways that these issues intersect, and it also compels them to think critically about their own place in society and to reflect on their responsibility in standing up to social injustices. In other words, rather than studying gender as a distinct subject isolated from other social concerns, using *Deciphering Japan* as a framework for the course enabled my class to see how gender dovetails all areas of research that they study, regardless of their discipline or study program.

Course Management

I piloted my new *Deciphering Japan* material in my Gender Studies B course in the fall 2020 semester with a class of 18 third and fourth year students. Due to the COVID-19 situation, all classes were held online, though I feel certain the course can be run face-to-face in much the same format. As the course runs for 15 weeks with 90-minute weekly class meetings, I decided ahead of time to organize the semester with one introductory class, twelve classes designed around the docuseries, and two final classes for student presentations. In the introduction class, we started with a fun quiz and some ice breakers, and then did some guided discussion tasks to introduce the key themes of the course—gender, society, and identity. The students brainstormed various gender issues they see around them in Japan, and I showed them a brief trailer for the docuseries to pique their interest.

The 12 weeks focused on *Deciphering Japan* were largely organized in the same way each week. I created three weeks of lessons around each of the four episodes, and I structured them in a similar manner so that students quickly became accustomed to my class time expectations. Each lesson was comprised of a warm-up question to prepare them for the day's topics, some vocabulary review to help them understand more complex language, comprehension questions for the viewings (divided into part one and part two), and discussion questions to apply the docuseries content to their own lives and experiences. One added advantage to this docuseries is that a large part of the discussion is actually in Japanese with English subtitles, so my Japanese students were able to understand the content more deeply than they would have with an English-only textbook. Therefore, while the worksheets I prepared for each lesson were exclusively in English, and the class discussions on Zoom were all in English, the episodes provided that extra scaffolding to help students make sense of the content—for one, because they could follow the dialogue between Ms. Araki and her interviewees, and for two, because they could also understand the context as it was playing out in their own society, Japan.

In the final two weeks, I tasked the students with preparing 6- to 8-minute individual presentations on a gender issue of their choosing. They were instructed

that it should be a gender issue in Japan (that could also extend beyond Japan), and that they should organize their presentation as a mini-lesson with a warm-up question/fun task, a main content (article or video), and a summary of why the issue is of concern and with final recommendations on how the issue can be addressed. Nine students presented on each of the final two classes, and this final assessment was worth 50 percent of their final grade. Among topics chosen were gendered divisions of labor, genderless fashion, women in politics, and being an LGBTQ+ ally; the quality and care taken in delivering the presentations was truly remarkable.

Concluding Thoughts

One of the continuing pleasures of my teaching career is watching students learn that gender studies is a field that relates to each and every one of them, regardless of their sex, nationality, native tongue, or subject major. In placing gender at the heart of its docuseries on contemporary Japanese society, I believe that CNA's *Deciphering Japan* presents an exemplary platform for teaching gender studies in a multilingual/multicultural/multidisciplinary classroom.

What is Intersectionality and Why GALE (and the rest of us) Needs It

Quenby Hoffman Aoki

The term *intersectionality* refers to a framework in which “systems of oppression are interrelated and cannot be considered in isolation” (Crenshaw, 2018). This means that the lived experience of all humans is affected by a matrix of multiple identities such as race, gender, and social class. In this short Forum talk, I discussed my own experience of developing an intersectional perspective in the classroom and in my work as the Coordinator of GALE SIG.

It is of primary importance to place intersectionality in its historical context, always keeping in mind that it originates in the work of Black feminists. African American legal scholar Kimberle Crenshaw is generally credited with coining the term, but the concept itself has a much longer history. In the mid-19th century, formerly enslaved activist Sojourner Truth gave her famous “Ain’t I A Woman?” speech, reminding her primarily white audience that as a Black woman, she had never been protected, sheltered, or given any of the special treatment that at the time was used as an excuse to deny white women the right to participate equally in the political system. More than a century later, the poet Audre Lorde powerfully evoked the concept at the heart of intersectionality in a 1982 speech: “There is no such thing as a single-issue struggle because we do not live single-issue lives” (BlackPast, 2019, September 24).

More recently, Professor Roberta K. Timothy of the University of Toronto defines it as “all of who I am” (Timothy, 2019).

While examining one’s personal background is a beginning, it is crucial that socially conscious educators take intersectionality beyond individual identity and examine structuralized power and privilege, with the ultimate goal of eliminating racism, sexism, ableism, native speakerism, and other forms of oppression. While students in Japan may find the discussion challenging at first, racism does exist in Japan. Gender discrimination in Japanese society is well known, but some students in my classes deny having experienced it or consider it a thing of the past. Social class is also an engaging and relevant topic, due to increasing economic inequality in contemporary Japanese society (Hashimoto. 2021, May 13). Students can relate, for example, to the problem of pay disparity between part-time and permanent or “regular” (*seishain*) workers. In class they have expressed their concerns about the challenge of securing a steady job after graduation, and awareness that education, although universally required in Japan through middle school, requires money and privilege in order to pass the exams for prestigious universities. Some students may be reluctant to speak of personal matters such as parents’ ethnic background, jobs, or marital status. By using anonymous surveys and other tools to protect students’ privacy, teachers can create a safer space allowing for honest discussion and mutual understanding.

In addition to Crenshaw’s foundational 1989 and 1991 law journal articles, other recommended texts include works listed below by Audre Lorde (2007), former Black Panther activist and academic Angela Davis (1981/2019), sociologist Patricia Hill Collins (2015), and the Black-feminist-lesbian-socialist Combahee River Collective (1978). There are also many online sources available, including articles in the popular media and videos on YouTube and other sites, which address current movements such as #Black Lives Matter and LGBTQ Pride Month. A particularly engaging resource which is accessible to language learners of all levels, is the 3-minute animated video “Intersectionality 101,” from the Learning for Justice website, which makes the point that a person from a white, affluent background has the privilege of not being aware of intersectionality, while “members of marginalized groups...don’t get to choose whether or not to think about their identities.” (Bell et al., 2016) This relates to my own experience: although I had been including the topics of gender and race in my classes for nearly two decades, I did not encounter the word “intersectionality” until 2015, when I was doing research to prepare the syllabus for a content-based gender studies class. This encounter required me to rethink my approach and rewrite the entire syllabus!

Since most educators are in a position of relative privilege, we have an obligation to use that privilege positively. Not only can we educate ourselves and introduce these topics in class, but we also have an obligation to do so. The first step, of course, is becoming aware. It is also telling that, during the discussion after this Forum, a participant remarked that we were very focused on “Second Wave Feminism,” the stage of the feminist movement that lasted roughly from the 1960’s to the 1980’s, emphasizing issues of basic legal and social equality for women such as freedom of career choice, equal pay, and education. Not that Second-wave Feminism is a bad thing, but it can be considered limited in that it was dominated by heterosexual white women and focused narrowly on the gender binary, ignoring the complexity of intersectionality. Clearly, although the basic issues are still relevant today, we still have a long way to go.

As members of GALE, a Special Interest Group within a large, well-known, respected professional organization, we must work to eliminate such limitations within our SIG and within JALT as a whole. As stated above, we must start by educating ourselves, incorporating intersectionality into our classroom practice, and then bring colleagues on board to cooperate with us as we work toward justice, diversity, and inclusion. As public-school principal and blogger Sharif El-Mekki says in his essay “*Here’s what I tell white people when they ask how they can help fight systemic racism and oppression*”: “Get your people!” (El-Mekki, 2017). That in a nutshell, is exactly the direction in which I hope GALE SIG is headed.

Intersectionality in GALE: A Brief History

Gerry Yokota

My initial impetus for suggesting a dialogue with Quenby as part of the GALE Forum was hearing her perform her amazing spoken poem, *Moving On*, a few years ago. I was totally blown away. While I often use music and poetry in the classroom, they are not my own creations—I’m more like the DJ. But I really felt like Quenby’s poem could be like the GALE anthem, it is at the same time so particular and so universal. It’s her unique voice but I know it also resonates with people all over the gender spectrum. So first of all, I really wanted to ask her to share a performance of that poem to a wider audience, because I believe it is a fantastic way to stimulate conversations about how gender impacts all our lives.

But at the root of this initial impetus was my desire to share with a wider audience some of the fruits of the conversations Quenby and I have had about intersectionality. I felt like it would be a waste not to share them more widely. I think many people in GALE

and in JALT in general may not have heard the term intersectionality much until quite recently, as Quenby said. When I first heard her say this, I was struck with guilt, because I have actually been teaching about intersectionality in my classes at Osaka University annually since the mid-90s. I have even taught whole courses about it, as I described in my presentation at the Living on the Edge conference in April (see Yokota, 2021). Intersectionality has been like the air I breathe for so long that I didn’t realize everyone wasn’t as familiar with it until I gave a presentation on it at PanSIG in 2017.

When I say I’m surprised to realize that so few people seem to know about it, I’m not blaming anyone but myself. I realize I bear responsibility because I haven’t actually published about it, though I frequently speak about it in presentations. But the other thing I realized thanks to this dialogue is that even though we in GALE may not have been using the word intersectionality explicitly, we have been making efforts to realize intersectionality in practice, though we may still have a way to go to bridge a number of gaps. And this year’s Forum proved to be an excellent opportunity to accomplish that.

To complement what Quenby has shared about intersectionality, we decided it might be good for me to share what changes in the SIG I have seen over the years. So I began with a short history of GALE. We have to know where we’re coming from to know where we’re going!

GALE has been in existence for more than 20 years, but I actually only joined about 12 years ago, and at first, I myself really didn’t know the history of the SIG at all. So, I started asking members to tell me about it, and my inquiry resulted in the publication of a timeline in GALE (2013), which you can see in the SIG website archive together with the GALE Journal (<https://gale-sig.org>). In the Forum, I shared just a few highlights from that chronology, especially those that are related to the theme of intersectionality.

First, I explained how GALE was the brainchild of a group of women from an organization called WELL—Women Educating Learning and Leading. WELL was formed back in 1995, and it was actually at a WELL Conference that I heard Quenby perform her poem. But WELL members are not only language teachers; they are from all walks of life. It was a group of JALT members within WELL who got together to establish GALE. Even before GALE existed, some of these women had advocated and gotten *The Language Teacher* to publish a special issue on gender back in 1998. GALE was established as a SIG two years later, in 2000.

Then, I gave just a few examples of GALE activities over the years that indicate our effort to promote not only

gender equity but also intersectional equity. These include:

- making “Colouring the Ivory Tower: Desperately Seeking Diversity and Equality in Japanese Academia” the theme of the GALE Forum at JALT National in 2011;
- commissioning a group of South African women to create a cloth banner for our SIG in 2010; and
- commissioning a Filipina artist to create a digital design of the GALE logo for use in online social media in 2014.

These are just a few of the many ways we have tried to be the change we want to see in the world. At the Forum, we asked some hard questions and reaffirmed the importance of getting out of our comfort zones and really learning. I hope GALE will continue to challenge JALT to be a diverse, inclusive organization with an intersectional perspective on gender and other social justice issues.

Moving on

Quenby Hoffman Aoki

6/30/17

(First written on the Akita Shinkansen somewhere around Sendai, since then tinkered with many times)

People tell me I talk too much
People tell me I talk too loud
People tell me I'm cute when I'm older
Than their Mom

But I just keep moving on
Yes I just keep moving on

People tell me my hair's too red
People tell me I dress too young
People tell me to tone it down
Or I might offend someone
But I just keep moving on
Yeah I just keep moving on
And with honey you catch more flies
I don't want to tell you any lies
I don't care about catching those insects
I just want
To be heard
By a human or two
And Mister
Or Sister,
That means you.
Yes you.
In front of me, right now
In this moment
Here we are
Right on the other side of this screen

And I just keep moving on
Yes I just keep moving on

People tell me to wait my turn
That's a skill I may never learn
And they say get in line
'Cause this space isn't mine
I should get to the point
They don't know what I mean
So I just keep moving on
Yes I just keep moving on
It's one damn thing
After another
It's the same damn thing
Over and over
Just one damn thing after another
It's the same damn thing
Over and over
But I just keep moving on
Yes I just keep moving on
Just keep
Moving on
(and I think it's gonna be a long, long time...)

References

- Bell, M. K., & van der Valk, A. (2016). *Intersectionality 101* [video]. Learning for Justice.
<https://www.learningforjustice.org/magazine/summer-2016/online-exclusive-intersectionality-101>.
- BlackPast. (2019, September 24). (1982) Audre Lorde, "Learning from the 60s"
<https://www.blackpast.org/african-american-history/1982-audre-lorde-learning-60s/>.
- Collins, P. (2015). *Black feminist thought: Knowledge, consciousness, and the politics of empowerment*. Routledge, Taylor & Francis Group.
- Combahee River Collective. (1978). *The Combahee River Collective Statement*.
https://americanstudies.yale.edu/sites/default/files/files/Keyword%20Coalition_Readings.pdf.
- Crenshaw, K. (1991). Mapping the margins: Intersectionality, identity politics, and violence against women of color. *Stanford Law Review*, 43(6), 1241. <https://doi.org/10.2307/1229039>

- Crenshaw, K. (2018). Demarginalizing the intersection of race and Sex: A Black feminist critique of Antidiscrimination Doctrine, feminist theory, and Antiracist Politics [1989]. *Feminist Legal Theory*, 57–80. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780429500480-5>
- Davis, A. (2019). *Women, race and class*. Penguin. (original work published 1981)
- El-Mekki, S. (2017, April 24). *Here's what I tell white people when they ask how they can help fight systemic racism and oppression*. Philly's 7th Ward. <https://phillys7thward.org/2017/04/heres-tell-white-people-ask-can-help-fight-systemic-racism-oppression/>.
- GALE. (2013). A brief history of GALE. *GALE SIG Newsletter* (2), 16-17. <https://gale-sig.org/website/gale-news-oct16.pdf>
- GALE (2021). GALE Mission and Constitution, <https://gale-sig.org/gale-mission/>
- Hashimoto, K. (2021, May 13). *The challenges facing Japan's underclass*. Nippon.com. Retrieved March 20, 2022, from <https://www.nippon.com/en/in-depth/d00691/>
- Hill, M.R. & Mays, J. (2011). *The Gender Book*. Houston: Marshall House Press.
- Lorde, A. (2007). *Sister outsider essays and speeches*. Crossing Press.
- Nakagawa, J. (ed.). (2005). *Gender Issues Today*. Tokyo: Tokyo Shuppan Service Center.
- Schmidt, M.G. (2021). PanSIG 2021, <https://pansig2021.eventzil.la>
- Thayi, A. (Executive Producer). 2020. *Deciphering Japan* [docuseries]. Channel News Asia.
- Timothy, R. K. (2019, March 7). *What is intersectionality? All of who i am*. The Conversation. <https://theconversation.com/what-is-intersectionality-all-of-who-i-am-105639>.
- Yokota, G. (2021). Intersectionality: Respecting difference kinds of knowledge [post-conference report], https://www.academia.edu/47766338/Intersectionality_Respecting_Different_Kinds_of_Knowledge

White Fragility and Racial Awareness in ELT in Japan

Ellen Head

Miyazaki International College

This paper describes a sequence of lessons in a CLIL course in Global Studies which included a “critical incident” between a white British teacher and her Japanese students. Racism was one theme which students chose to focus on for their project and presentation. During the preparation period, the author realized that the text book she had selected was leading students to make statements which sounded racist. They were simply abbreviating the language of the textbook which she had selected and thought unproblematic several years earlier. Her sensitivity had become heightened by reading more literature by Black authors in 2020 as a result of the #BLM movement. The movie “The Hate U Give” was shown in class in order to help students understand the experience of racial prejudice in a more emotional and empathetic way. The paper consists of the teacher’s narrative followed by a discussion using the critical incident framework outline by Tripp (1993).

この論文は、白人の英国人教師と日本人学生の間でなされた、グローバルスタディーズにおけるCLILコースの一連の授業（ある種の誤解=critical incidentも含まれた授業）について述べたものである。人種差別は、学生たちが自分たちのプロジェクトとプレゼンテーションのために選んだ一つのテーマでした。学生の発表の準備期間中に、著者は自分が選んだ教科書が、生徒たちに人種差別的に聞こえる発言をさせていることに気づきました。だいたい前に著者（教師）が選んだ教科書の言葉を、彼らは単に繰り返し使っているだけでした。BLM運動の後、2020年に黒人作家の小説を多く読んだことで、著者はより敏感になっていったと思われます。人種的偏見の経験をより感情的、共感的に理解してもらうため、授業では映画 The Hate U Give を上映した。この論文は、教師の語りとそれに続くいろいろな視点からの議論からなっています。

Introduction

Racism against People of Colour is not institutionalized in Japan in the way that it is in the USA and UK but there is still tension around discussions of racial awareness among educators here. In her account of being “Black, British and Female in the Japanese University Classroom”, Hays-Matsui describes the feeling of relief which she felt on arriving in Japan in 1993 soon after the racially motivated murder of a young Black man, Stephen Lawrence: “I felt I had escaped from the racially volatile climate of British society.” (Hays-Matsui, 2020, p. 207). However, she also reminds us that due to the influence of American media on Japan “images of Black people are filtered through a Western hegemonic lens.” (Hays-Matsui, 2020) As recently as 2018, You Tuber, Nobita produced a video mocking the Black Lives Matter movement. (Hays-Matsui, 2020). In addition, Japan is not without issues regarding the longer-established minority groups, who make up a small but significant proportion of the population.

As a white British teacher in Japan, I had longstanding misgivings about how ELT exploits students’ idealized images of Britain and the USA. One aspect of this was that the idea that Britain and the USA were already fully functioning, equitable multicultural societies. Due to the emphasis in Junior High and High School textbooks on

figures like Martin Luther King and Rosa Parks, racism in the USA was portrayed to students as a historic rather than current problem. However, in 2020, the #BLM protests brought the reality of American police brutality and institutionalized racism into focus around the world. When tennis player Naomi Osaka paid tribute to the victims of police killings by wearing a face-mask printed with the names of seven of them on seven successive days at the 2020 US Open Tennis Championship in September, even students usually uninterested in current events paid attention to #BLM for a short time. Due to the protests in 2020, systematic racism was suddenly exposed. In this article, I will look at white fragility in the classroom, through a critical incident in a Global Studies class. The incident revealed my ambivalence about making the effort needed to teach about racism. Reflecting on the incident pushed me to ask questions about how racial awareness might or might not be part of a discussion of global issues in ELT, when and in what way. This short paper will incorporate reflections on my classroom practice as shown in a particular sequence of lessons, and the idea of white fragility. This paper does not offer a solution but aims to articulate a need to develop what Brookfield (2017, p.218) calls “brave spaces” in which the experience of racism/fragility can be discussed.

What is “White Fragility”?

The idea of “White Fragility” offers a useful way into understanding why it can be difficult to talk about racism. Robin Di Angelo, author of the book “White Fragility”, says that historically the burden of explaining the problem of racism has been thrust onto Black people but actually should be shared. She quotes Bonilla-Silva (2006), describing the incoherence of White people confronted with racism.

Because the new racial climate in America forbids the open expression of racially based feelings, views, and positions, when whites discuss issues that make them uncomfortable, they become almost incomprehensible – I, I, I, I don’t mean, you know, but... (Bonilla-Silva in Di’Angelo, 2011, p. 68).

Bonilla-Silva suggests that the inability to talk coherently about racism implicitly reinforces the status quo and leads to the continued denial of racism. Establishing a “brave space”, as opposed to a “safe space” means a space in which provocative stories can be shared and conflicting responses can be discussed, without participants attacking or having to win. Although there are ground rules, these spaces are different from “safe spaces” in that facilitators are not expected to automatically retreat from a topic when people feel uncomfortable. (Brookfield and Hess, 2021, p. 72).

Foreign educators in Japan are fragile in multiple ways, since their very presence in the country depends on acceptance by the Japanese educational establishment which they do not completely understand (and which is in transition due to covid 19 and the aging society). Moreover, although many teachers have been attracted to the ELT profession by an idealistic belief that language learning can lead to personal growth, the legacy of native-speakerism creates inequality. For me, like many teachers in Japan, White privilege has come to be a habit and feel so natural that it would be difficult to give up. The stage is set for complicity between white native-speaker educators and Japanese students who would like to believe that racism is not a problem in Japan. However, the situation is complicated. Gerald (2020) writes:

What we ELT professionals are offering to students, without understanding that we are doing so, is the chance to get closer to whiteness. Whiteness, however, is an ideology that depends upon exclusion, so this promise is doomed to be broken, and no racialized speaker of English can truly become white, nor will they be seen as white, even if credentialed as language teachers (Ramjattan, 2019).

Gerald suggests that feeling uncomfortable about racism is not a reason to avoid the topic. He draws attention to the complex workings of privilege within ELT. As a Black American “native speaker”, he is “not

immune to benefitting from the centering of whiteness in ELT, even though [he is] not white.” (Gerald, 2020: p. 45). He also raises the issue of non-white participation in academic discourse (Kubota, 2019). Kubota focuses on “epistemological racism” through which scholarly contributions from non-white backgrounds have been marginalized. Both Kubota and Gerald touch on the issue of white-centric curricular content in ELT, and it will be seen that I advocate the use of literature and film as sources which could redress that balance. In this article, I will write about an uncomfortable incident. Several readers have asked me “What exactly is the point?” It is a place-holder for a dialogue which I hope will take place in the ELT community around me, and a description which might help others to do better in deciding when to enter and when to refrain from talking about race. Brookfield and Hess (2021) suggest there is an ethical imperative for educators to examine their assumptions in relation to the White privilege, in the context of USA university teaching. Brookfield and Hess (2021) offer a guide to antiracist pedagogy in the USA, which will be discussed further below. The situation in Japan is very different but it seems there is still a need for discussion.

Identifying a critical incident in a Global Studies class

In my Fall 2020 Global Studies class, a critical incident occurred while students were discussing racism in the presence of a Black American male student. According to Tripp (1993), a critical incident is a turning point which influenced the subsequent course of events. Tripp believes that the identification of such incidents in the classroom is a way to connect classroom practice with theories and values as part of becoming a more reflective and professional teacher. (Tripp, p. 8). In this article we will follow Tripp’s stages of (1) identifying an “incident”, (2) describing it in detail, (3) looking at underlying values and (4) discussing the connection to wider issues.

On the Global Studies course, students were asked to choose a topic from a book called “Fifty Facts that should change the world”, (Williams, 2007), to study and present in a small group. One group chose a chapter entitled “Black men born in the USA today stand a one in three chance of going to jail.” As I listened to students discussing their notes on the article, I became aware that it was written with an ironic nuance. For example, “To stand a chance of” doing something generally means “to have an opportunity of doing something lucky” but in this case, the opposite meaning was intended. Later in the article it is stated that “The so called “war on drugs”, too, has done a terrific job of filling up jails.” (p.140). Presumably the writer’s intention was to make this text attractive and entertaining for white readers. Although it had sounded acceptable to me when I used

the book previously, it sounded racist in 2020. It happened that I was being assisted by a Black American teaching assistant during the class. I had asked him along to help with students' e-portfolios and at the time I had not realized which chapters and topics had been chosen. However, I started to feel embarrassed when hearing the students' conversation, imagining his perspective. Reflecting on the class, it stood out to me as a critical incident through which I became aware of my need to develop the skills of critical pedagogy, to make my classroom a space in which students are challenged to think more deeply, and to engage with my academic community on the issue of implicit racism.

Describing the incident in detail

One of the first exercises which students had to do was to paraphrase the title in order to write down the topic in general terms. However, they wrote down the whole article title instead of a key word. "My topic is 'Black men born in the USA today stand a one in three chance of going to jail.'" As students grappled with the text, I stood by but did not intervene, as I wanted the students to exercise their autonomy in the group. Unfortunately, they were struggling so much with the early part of the article that they did not reach the key statement "the law is racially biased" during the lesson. As I listened to the students talking about "Black men going to prison" I became agitated. The words sounded racist to me but perhaps there is no comfortable way to talk about these kinds of facts. I thought explaining would draw attention to the words even more and it would probably take quite a long time for students to understand. I reproached myself for allowing this conversation to take place in front of my assistant. From his point of view, Japan might have been imagined to be a haven in which racial tension was reduced and the presence of people of colour in the elite members of the university might make racism a non-issue. Eventually I spoke to one member of the group, pointing at their notes. I said "Your topic is racism in the US Legal System. You need to write it as a noun. You need to write the keyword, not the sentence about what happens." I mumbled something about changing the words "blacks" to "Black people" and "black racism" to "Racism against Black People." However they continued to use the term "blacks" rather than "black people" when talking and when writing their journals. (Note: Consent to quote the journals was obtained retrospectively at the end of the semester from three students and was confirmed by email one month later.) One student's journal entry is given in full. In spite of the grammatical difficulties, she is successful in expressing her emotions and making connections between the article which she read and the news.

October 22 class (written October 27)

Our group is thinking about 50 FACTs black men born in the US today stand a one in three

chance of going to jail. The United States is a free country. However, more and more people have been sent to prison and swearing for freedom. One in three black newborns born in the United States today is sent to jail. This was written in the essay. I was very surprised. This is a bad trend. But I don't think this is just a black issue. I think there are black discrimination and poverty issues behind this. There has been a lot of news about protests against racism lately. The trigger was the murder of a black man, George Floyd, by a white police officer. I couldn't believe this news. The police, who originally had to protect the country, the region, and everyone, killed people. This is not possible. And don't be forgiven. I was very sad. Why should we be discriminated against by skin color? The incident spread protests against black discrimination around the world.

When I read the journal, made written suggestions that she correct "blacks" to "Black People" and correcting the term "black discrimination" to "discrimination against Black people". I provided written comments but I did not explain or talk about the issue to the whole class. Looking at this piece now, it seems very interesting that she identifies with the non-white people of the USA by saying "Why should we be discriminated .." In retrospect, it seems that there was a missed opportunity to ask about racism. Did she perhaps fear that she might experience discrimination if she went to the USA? What were her views on racism in Japan? In terms of language, she and most of her classmates continued to use the words "blacks" and "black discrimination", and I continued to ask (in written comments) for corrections. One month later the words appear again.

November 19th

Today was a class to write a journal. So I will write a reflection on the announcement of 50 fact. I had a theme of black discrimination. There are some surprises that were written on the print. The first is the fact that one in three blacks is caught by the police. Second, blacks and whites have different punishments. I don't understand why race causes discrimination. However, I don't think discrimination can be completely eliminated in the future. But I hope it will be even a little less than it is now. I have a point that I devised with this PowerPoint. In order to make the group people understand about black discrimination, we made the PowerPoint color black and the letters white to make it a high-impact PowerPoint. We also added examples of recent cases of black discrimination and discrimination demonstrations to make it easier to understand.

In the case of black discrimination, George Floyd was killed by white police. The example of the discrimination demonstration was Naomi Osaka. At first, I was nervous about whether the discussion would proceed smoothly, but I was relieved because the discussion became lively. For the next announcement, I want to make something better than this time.

Why did the student use the word “surprise” rather than “shock” to describe their reaction to the information on the print? “Surprised” was used by other students too (see Appendix for other journals.) The use of the word wrote “caught” rather than “arrested” also suggested an inference of guilt rather than wrongful accusation. As before, I dealt with these language issues in writing instead of focusing on them in front of the whole class. During the class, some discussion of Naomi Osaka’s protest arose and one student said they felt that she was mistaken in using her position to draw attention to #BLM.

It was also noticeable that through my choice of text, I had set students up to reinforce the notion that racism was happening elsewhere and might not apply to Japan. I did not address the challenge of discussing racism in Japanese society as it might relate to racism against those born in Japan of Korean or Brazilian descent. The reason was my sense of the fragility of the relationship between students and me. “White fragility” is actually “the fragility of hegemony”. I was unwilling to compromise my relationship with students by taking a critical position on Japanese hegemony.

In the last class before the December break, I decided to show the movie “The Hate U Give”. The movie is closely based on the novel of the same name (Thomas, 2017). Since the story deals with the shooting of an unarmed youth by White police, the story was relevant to the class discussion of the #BLM protests. One of the reasons for introducing the movie was that by focusing on the dramatized version, with its appealing characters, well-written script and close-up view of events, students would be put in a position of identification and develop more empathy for the situation of a young woman in a Black community in the USA. The story provided many points of discussion. However, I showed only the first 60 minutes and so students did not get to see the end, though I asked them to try to watch the end by themselves in the library. After the winter break, we had online classes and I asked students to watch a You tube mash-up which shows the whole movie in about 20 minutes, so they could write about it in their journals. My failure to center the issue of racism in the class meant that students were not given a chance to be challenged to think things through or express deeper levels of feeling. The following report was written by the same student who wrote in November that she was “very sad” about George Floyd. In the final report, she uses the

word “surprised”, which seems superficial considering the highly emotive nature of the movie and atmosphere of engagement during students’ watching of it.

December 22

In today's class, I watched a movie. The content of the movie was about black discrimination. I recently made a presentation about black racism in a 50 fact presentation. So I was very interested in this movie. There was also a case of black discrimination a while ago. For example, George Floyd. He was killed by white police. In this movie, a childhood friend was killed in front of the main character girl. In addition, he was killed by white police. I was surprised.

Underlying Values: Confronting racism in myself

When investigating a critical incident, Tripp advocates “the analysis of our problematic” in order to “confront our professional values and judgement.” (Tripp: p. 16). As a teacher I frequently experience a conflict between a desire to help students to learn about life, a wish to please students, and the need to do what is required by the curriculum. I felt that concurrent presentations would make the class easy to manage and so I chose the “Fifty Facts That Should Change the World” for the class. Even though the material was outdated and not completely suitable, I had “become habituated to solutions which are practical.” (Tripp: 16). However, during the period since I last used the book, I had undergone a shift in awareness, due to reading fiction by Black American and Black British writers, such as Angie Thomas, and Bernadine Evaristo, Alex Wheatle and Zadie Smith, and listening to talks by these authors on You tube. This was what helped me to start noticing my own positionality as a fragile White teacher. During 2020, I noticed that a large number of literary prizes were going to Black authors. Maryse Conde won the alternative Nobel prize for literature with “Segu” in 2018, Marlon James’ Man Booker Prize win (2015), and Evaristo’s Booker Prize win (2019), Kylie Reid (2020) on the Booker shortlist. Before reading, I wondered whether an element of positive discrimination had played a part in the success of these authors. On reflection, this feeling was due to my own racism. It was soon dispelled by the experience of reading.

My reading journey during 2020 raised emotions including guilt, overwhelming sadness, as well as love and admiration. In terms of Myers Rust’s stages of denial, anger, bargaining and acceptance, I was aware of an element of bargaining in the sense of seeking acceptance, in the process of writing this paper. When I read *The Hate U Give*, by Angie Thomas, I wanted to talk about racism with students but I was uncertain

about where to position myself. Also I was not sure if drawing attention to racism would make things worse for any students who were different, as I had an American-Japanese student in my class and a Black American S.A. Also I had my own vulnerability to deal with. As a reader, I frequently identified with characters who were in the minority or outsiders. The reason was deeply personal. I had grown up without knowing my natural father, a brown-eyed child in a blue-eyed family. Explaining this to students would have entailed exposing my own vulnerability. It was additionally complicated by the fact that I have benefitted from being a member of a privileged group and I have made full use of my privilege as a White, British EFL teacher. When I was reading "The Hate U Give" and showing the movie to students, my relationship with the content was personal and emotional, and not primarily to do with racism in the USA but instead motivated by my need for acceptance by students and by my SA. This was an unexpected interpretation of "Fragility". In retrospect that was not a good reason to retreat from giving students time to watch and discuss the movie.

Connection to Wider Issues: White Fragility

In this article I have tried to make connections between my students' presentation on "A Black Man in the USA Stands a One In Three Chance of Going to Jail", which sounded racist to me in 2020 but not in 2014, and my showing of "The Hate U Give", and glossing over the discussion. I have called attention to white fragility in my classroom, in the sense of the reluctance to surface a problem and lack of personal strength to hold the space around that problem in a way that would let students be challenged to respond to it. I would like to be able to report a successful outcome in terms of a curriculum package for promoting anti-racism. Instead, I feel the need to be tentative. As Rennie Eddo Lodge has said in a discussion on the anti-racism attempts of the British literary establishment, "I don't want to listen to another White man telling me how bad he feels about racism." Eddo-Lodge has written in her blog:

At best, white people have been taught not to mention that people of color are 'different' in case it offends us. They truly believe that the experiences of their life as a result of their skin color can and should be universalized. I just can't engage with the bewilderment and the defensiveness as they try to grapple with the fact that not everyone experiences the world in the way that they do. (Eddo-Lodge, 2017).

Gradually I recognized myself in the descriptions of White people who distance themselves from racism by pleading that they have also suffered various hardships such as poverty and social discrimination. I believe thinking through my issues can help me to be a better teacher. However, it leads to a dilemma about what to do with this new perspective in the classroom. How can

I support anti-racism, except by marginalizing myself? In terms pedagogy for anti-racism in Japan in the work of White educators, what kinds of strategies would be appropriate and fruitful? Are there times, for example when there is only a single member of a minority group in a class, when it is better to refrain from problematizing race?

Discussion

In my class, focused on social issues, watching a movie engaged students and helped them to empathize in a way that reading an article did not. In contrast with approaching anti-racism through sociology or history, using literature or a combination of literature and film, could be a way to draw students into deeper understanding. An issue that remains unresolved for me is the extent to which it is legitimate for me to center Blackness in my curriculum or whether that is a kind of cultural appropriation. During the process of writing this paper, I was recommended to read about the critical incident questionnaire (Brookfield, 2017: p. 109), which is a means of eliciting anonymous, written feedback from students at the end of every session, focusing on their feelings of engagement/distance, actions they found helpful/puzzling and surprising. Although it was too late for me to implement this in relation to my 2020 Global Studies class, it would be a very useful way to develop a braver space, because the questionnaire gives the teacher a way to understand what students feel and calibrate the use of activities and class time accordingly. Reading about Brookfield's practice as an antiracist educator was also helpful, but it seemed to me to highlight the fact that the situation for ELT practitioners in Japan is different. He explains that he introduces racism by describing micro aggressions he has unthinkingly committed.

It is absolutely crucial for white teachers engaged in this work to talk about the ways they learned racism and the way it still lives within them. (Brookfield, 2017, p.213-19).

In the Japanese university EFL context, students tend to assume that teachers do behavior with the intention that students will emulate it. Having a teacher describe a micro-aggression might lead to the wrong outcome. This is one reason that literature and movies are particularly fertile sources of experience which can be held up to the lens.

The design of my "Fifty Facts" course focused mainly outside Japan in order to fit the "Study Abroad" description. As such, students were not challenged to think about their own country. My reason was that students are sensitive to criticism from "outsiders". Discussion of issues concerning Japan would work well only if some group members already have an element of curiosity and willingness to take ownership of the issues. I have a sense that many Japanese students

experience pressure to hold the correct opinion on social issues. It is more helpful to establish a climate in which they are able to use English as a tool to express and justify their ideas, than to emphasize the correct knowledge and correct feelings. If they feel safe, more critical reflections emerge from the group. So my worksheet on “The Hate U Give” included a question about whether they felt sympathy for the White policeman, and in what way he should be dealt with. Several students spoke up in his defense but they were challenged by their classmates. The debate was superficial due to lack of time, but on the other hand, it was successful in that challenges emerged from the group rather than from me as the leader. As Brookfield and Hess comment on leading discussions around race “In our experience, group members never end a discussion feeling whole, healthy and without pain.” (Brookfield and Hess, 2021: p. 122). More important than having a complete discussion in one session, is the possibility of an ongoing conversation.

Conclusion

In this paper a critical incident was the occasion of self-questioning as to what I am doing as a white teacher in Japan. Despite my tentative feelings that I would like to address racism, using a single, out-of-date article to learn about U.S. racism and police brutality resulted in arguably racist language from students. Cramming the issue of racism in with other global issues came to seem like a missed teaching opportunity. I was ambivalent about devoting time to a whole-class study of racism, even though I had been privately enjoying reading fiction in which touched on this theme. Reasons for that ambivalence might include “White fragility”, in other words a reluctance to confront my own White privilege and lack of skill about how to do so. During fall and winter 2020, #BLM movement stimulated discussion in the community of Global Issues in Language Education SIG, and the influence of this discussion, in particular the contributions of J.B.P. Gerald, convinced me to take the risk of showing the movie “The Hate U Give” and also of presenting and writing about the class for the JALT Pan SIG conference. The main points which may be of value to other educators are, the value of using multiple sources and including movies and fiction when teaching Global Studies or Global Issues, and the encouragement to take the risk.

References

- Brookfield, S. (2017). *Becoming a Critically Reflective Teacher*. Jossey-Bass. San Francisco.
- Brookfield, S. and Hess, M.E. (2021). *Becoming a White Antiracist*. Stylus. Sterling, Virginia.
- Di Angelo, R. (2011). White Fragility. *International Journal of Critical Pedagogy*, Vol 3 (3) (2011) pp 54-7
- Di Angelo, R.(2018). Dr Robin DiAngelo discusses white fragility
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=45ey4jgaxeU>
- Eddo Lodge R. (2017, 2021) Blog: Why I’m no longer talking to white people about race.
<https://renieddolodge.co.uk/why-im-no-longer-talking-to-white-people-about-race/>
- Gerald, J. (2020). Worth the Risk: Towards Decentering Whiteness in English Language Teaching. *BC TEAL Journal*, 5(1), 44–54.
<https://doi.org/10.14288/bctj.v5i1.345>
- Haye-Matsui, A. (2020) Black, British and Female in the Foreign Language Classroom. In Hawley Nagatomo, D., Brown, K.A. and Cook, M. L., *Foreign Female English Teachers In Japanese Higher Education: Narratives From Our Quarter*. Candlin & Mynard. Hong Kong.
- Kubota, R. (2019). Confronting epistemological racism, decolonizing scholarly knowledge: Race and gender in applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics*, 0(0), 1–22.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amz033>
- Myers-Rust, N. (2018) The Five Stages of White Privilege Awareness. Retrieved from <http://www.nancyrust.com/2018/03/the-5-stages-of-white-privilege-awareness-5/>
- Thomas, A. (2017). *The Hate U Give*. Walker Books. London.
- Thomas, A. The Hate U Give. Book Reading and Author Q and A (Politics and Prose) Retrieved

from

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=w1gNYFka1-s>

Sakai, M. (2008) On the Recognition of the Indigenous People's Rights of the Ainu. In Chan., J. (2008) *Another Japan is Possible*. Stanford University Press. California

Tillman, G. Jr. (2018) *The Hate U Give*. Twentieth Century Fox.

Tripp, D. (1993) *Critical Incidents in Teaching: Cultivating Professional Judgement*. Routledge and Farmer. London.

Williams, J. *Fifty Facts That Should Change the World 2.0* (2007). Disinformation Press. USA.

Appendix: Students' Journals

Student B

January 14th

Martin Luther King Jr day. is coming soon. so we study about blacks. So, we watched summarized "The Hate U Give" in YouTube. And then we did discussion questions with A san, B san and C san [names removed]. Those questions were very difficult. The most serious question is that should Starr tell the media what happened. I thought yes because If you don't say it, various people will spread the story that they imagined. However other classmate said that if she told it in front of the media, her mental will be broken more. I agree that idea. I don't know what she to do.

I have been leaning about blacks in this week. I knew that racism was problem, but I was very suppressed to learn that there are serious incidents. I thought it would still take some time to become a world of equal.

Student C

December 22

Today we watched the movie of Racism at the library. I have been learning a lot about racism lately. I think it is such a serious problem. The scene I remember vividly this time is where a white policeman shot and killed a black boy. He was caught for a driving violation, waited for a while, and just moved at that time and was hit with a pistol. Perhaps police officers would not fire if the person was white, even if they did the same thing. It's a shame that racial discrimination is still taking place like this. I want the world to think seriously about such problems as much as possible.

Japanese extensive reading materials: the relationship between the vocabulary of current materials and learners' vocabulary knowledge

Kimberley Rothville
University of Auckland

Japanese as an additional language (L2) learner knowledge of the most frequent Japanese words is an under-researched area, making matching learners with suitable materials for extensive reading (ER) a difficult task for teachers. Furthermore, there are few graded reading materials developed for the purposes of ER, meaning that an ER programme cannot avoid using first language speaker (L1) materials. However, the relationship between learner vocabulary knowledge, the vocabulary used in L2 ER materials, and the vocabulary used in potentially suitable L1 texts for extensive reading is unclear. A vocabulary test of knowledge of the 5000 most frequent Japanese words was conducted with 31 upper-beginner Japanese learners which revealed high overall vocabulary knowledge, yet many gaps. This data is discussed with regard to the stated and actual vocabulary coverage of L2 Japanese ER materials, and to potentially suitable L1 Japanese texts.

L2 日本語学習者の最頻出単語についての知識は、これまで十分に研究がなされていない分野であり、教師にとって多読に適した教材の提供は難しい課題となっている。さらに、多読を目的として開発されたレベル別読解教材はほとんどなく、多読プログラムでは、第一言語話者 (L1) の教材を使わないわけにはいかないのである。学習者の語彙知識と、L2 の多読教材で使用される語彙、そして多読に適した L1 テキストで使用される語彙との相互関係はよく分かっていない。本調査では、31 名の初級後期レベルの日本語学習者を対象に、最頻出 5000 語の知識を測る語彙テストを行った。その結果、学習者の全体的な語彙知識は高くとも、多くのギャップを含んでいることが明らかとなった。データを基に、L2 日本語多読教材の実際の語彙カバー率、および適切な L1 日本語テキストについて考察した。

The development of suitable materials for extensive reading (ER) in Japanese has lagged behind that of English and it is only in the last decade that graded reading materials have begun to be seriously developed for learners of Japanese as an additional language (L2). The volume of available material is still low, and is not enough to support learners' development into confident readers who can read with speed and fluency, for a variety of self-defined purposes. Furthermore, the extent to which the materials utilize vocabulary based on the frequency of vocabulary in first language (L1) Japanese text is unclear, given most graded reader publishing groups are using a vocabulary list used in the pre-2010 version of the Japanese Language Proficiency Test (JLPT), i.e., the JLPT word list used until the test was revised around 2009. This is an issue given the pre-2010 JLPT list is not itself based on the frequency of vocabulary in L1 Japanese texts, meaning its use as a basis for graded reader vocabulary lists may not prepare learners well to graduate from learner materials to reading L1 Japanese texts.

Additionally, the vocabulary knowledge of L2 Japanese learners of the most frequent Japanese words is an under-researched area, with few tests available to measure learners' general vocabulary knowledge, as opposed to how well they know vocabulary from textbooks or the pre-2010 JLPT. Consequently, it is

unclear how learners' vocabulary knowledge compares to the materials available for ER in Japanese, and at what level they may be able to read.

Literature review

The amount of unknown vocabulary in a text is a necessary consideration for reading or ER in an L2. Nation (2006) states that for English language learners, comprehension is impeded when more than 2% of running words in a text are unknown. For Japanese, Matsushita (2014) estimates that adequate comprehension with some dictionary help may be achieved when 93% of running words in a text are known. However, for learning new vocabulary through reading, most research agrees that at least 98% of running words in the text should be known by learners, and for fluency development that figure should be 100%.

For Japanese, the additional difficulty of Japanese orthography, specifically *kanji* characters, and the impact on comprehension must be considered. Nara (2001) argues that research demonstrates that for L1 Japanese speakers, the grapheme-sound connection is a prerequisite for comprehension: when processing *kanji* while reading, L1 readers cannot comprehend it without knowing how it is pronounced. When a *kanji*'s pronunciation cannot be retrieved when reading, its integration into memory for information processing while

reading is more difficult (Ogawa, 1991, cited in Tabata-Sandom, 2016). This means that it is necessary that texts utilize *furigana* pronunciation guides to support L2 Japanese learners, whether they are focused on fluency development or word learning, until they have an advanced level of *kanji* knowledge. This often limits learners to reading texts produced for L2 Japanese learners or L1 children's materials. The use of children's texts is not without issue, however, as they may have a high general vocabulary load and a large amount of age-specific vocabulary (Webb & Macalister, 2013).

For measuring L2 Japanese learners' vocabulary, previous research has focused on the pre-2010 JLPT vocabulary list (see, for example, Miyaoka, Tamaoka & Sakai, 2011). However, the JLPT vocabulary list is not very useful to for learners because it does not consider spoken Japanese and it is not aligned with vocabulary frequency of words in L1 Japanese texts (T. Matsushita, personal communication, 28th March, 2021). Matsushita (2014) reported on the relationship between Japanese learner vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, which partially addresses the gap in data on L2 learners' vocabulary knowledge. He developed a 150-item Vocabulary Size Test for L2 Japanese learners to measure their knowledge of the 15,000 most frequent words, reported in Matsushita (2012), and found there was a large range of vocabulary scores of participants from three countries, with a mean score of 84.4 and an SD of 39.7. However, vocabulary size tests estimate learners' overall vocabulary size, rather than mastery of a particular word band (Stoeckel, McLean, & Nation, 2021), making them potentially unsuitable for determining if learners have the required vocabulary knowledge to read at a certain level.

In terms of research that relates Japanese learner vocabulary knowledge or vocabulary gain to ER or ER materials, only two studies appear to have been published. Leung (2002) was an autoethnographic study of the author's attempt to learn to read Japanese through ER of children's books over 20 weeks. She created two 50-item vocabulary tests from the vocabulary lists in a popular textbook, with vocabulary knowledge rated on a 5-point scale in two tests four weeks apart. Although her score improved by 12 points, it does not appear that the author considered whether there was any overlap between the words she read in the children's books and the words in the textbook, apart from noting that the textbook's vocabulary list comprised of words "considered to be essential for the most common situations... in Japanese" (Leung, 2002, p.70). The author did in fact study from this textbook to some degree, so it is unclear the extent to which her score improved due to vocabulary she read.

Fukumoto (2004) compared 21 learners reading extensively to 16 learners in a standard intensive reading class. Due to the lack of ER materials available,

the class read set texts in which only 2-5% of vocabulary was unknown. Fukumoto does not make clear whether the basis for a vocabulary being unknown was related to the vocabulary taught in this course or previous courses taken by the students, or vocabulary list of the JLPT (which was used for the pre-test and post-test the learners completed). The ER group made gains in vocabulary and kanji knowledge scores of 16.4 points on average, compared to the intensive reading group's 7-point gain.

As yet, it appears no research evaluating the impact of extensive reading on vocabulary knowledge where the vocabulary tests were based on word frequency lists has been published, although an unpublished master's thesis, Rothville (2019), found a small increase of around 2% for nine readers after one semester of ER. The study measured the vocabulary of twelve learners in total who were in their second year of Japanese study, finding they knew on average 89% and 77%, respectively, of words of the first and second 1000 most frequent Japanese words. The test construction method was the same as described in the Methods section below, except that the test items were sampled at a rate of 100 per 1000-word band.

Research questions

Research question 1: What is the actual vocabulary coverage level of Japanese materials developed, or suitable, for ER compared to vocabulary frequency in L1 Japanese texts?

Research question 2: What is the vocabulary knowledge of upper-beginner Japanese learners?

Methods

Vocabulary level of graded reading materials

There appear to be ten different groups currently producing graded materials for L2 Japanese learners: *NPO Tadoku* [extensive reading] *Supporters* (hereafter, *NPOTS*), *Japan Foundation* (JF) (*Kansai*), *JF* (*Malaysia*), *JF* (*Mongolia*), *Tongari Books*, *Yomimono Ippai*, *Let's Read Japanese*, *Sendai International Japanese School*, *Sakura Graded Reader Lab* (hereafter, *Sakura Lab*), and *Tadoku no Hiroba*. Only about 460 graded readers have been produced so far, covering six vocabulary levels (Appendix A). Additionally, other groups publish material written in 'easy' Japanese or benchmarked against the JLPT levels, such as *NHK News Easy*, *Matcha Japanese Tourism Magazine*, and *Kuroshio Publications*.

The wide variety of groups producing materials means there are at least seven different grading rubrics used, with only *NPOTS* having published the list of words they use. The JF in Malaysia and Mongolia and *Tongari Books* use the *NPOTS*'s list, which is based on the pre-2010 JLPT vocabulary list, along with other useful

words for learners (de Burgh-Hirabe, 2011). All the other groups (except for *Sakura Lab*) also appear to use the JLPT word list as a basis for their vocabulary, but it is not clear how vocabulary is assigned to a graded reader level, nor the extent to which lists are supplemented with other useful vocabulary for learners. The *Sakura Lab* uses their own vocabulary list based on vocabulary found in 32 novels published digitally between 1995 and 2000 (JGRPG, personal communication, 16th July, 2020), meaning they are the only group using a list based on actual vocabulary frequency in L1 Japanese materials.

The J-LEX vocabulary tool (Suganaga & Matsushita, 2013) was used to assess the vocabulary level of the Japanese materials. Texts from *Sakura Lab*, *NHK Easy News*, *Matcha Japanese Tourism Magazine* (easy Japanese version), and *Kuroshio Publications* were assessed. Additionally, a small sample of children's books and books from the graded children's series 「10分で読める」 [*Read in Ten Minutes*] were chosen. The first five pages or 500 characters were uploaded into the tool, and the vocabulary level giving 90%, 95%, and 98% coverage was recorded. For *NPOTS*, *Yomimono Ippai*, and *JF Kansai* books, data reported in Peterson (2019) was used instead.

Vocabulary level of learners

Participants and context of learning

Participants in this study were beginning the first semester, third year Japanese course at a large New Zealand university. Prior to beginning this course, they had either completed two years' Japanese study at this university using the *Genki* textbook series (Banno, Ikeda, Ohno, Shinagawa, & Tokashiki, 2020), or three years at high school followed by one year's study using *Genki Vol. 2*. Participation was voluntary, and 31 out of 37 students in the class elected to participate. The test was administered in the third week of semester, and students were given almost an entire 50-minute tutorial to complete the test, although in practice it took an average of around 30 minutes. Although about half the class were L1 Chinese speakers, or students with a Chinese background, all participants had either near-native English ability or were L1 English speakers.

Design of the test

The vocabulary used for the test was taken from the first 5000 words of Matsushita's Japanese frequency list, which is constructed from the Balanced Corpus of Contemporary Written Japanese, with data from books published 1985-2005 and Yahoo! web forums (Matsushita, 2012). Vocabulary items are separated into lexemes on the list, rather than being grouped into word families.

To produce the four test versions, every twenty-fifth word was selected starting from the first, second, third and fourth words on the list. Thus, each version of the test consisted of different vocabulary items. Gyllstad, McLean, and Stewart (2020) recommend sampling at least 30 items per 1000-word band; the test here consisted of a total of 200 items, for a sample rate of 40 per 1000-word band.

The test utilized a multiple-choice format: words were given in Japanese in both their *kana* and *kanji* forms and beside them four words in English with participants asked to circle the correct answer. Target words and possible answers were given without context. Semantically plausible alternatives made up the bulk of the dummy answers due to the semantic cues present in *kanji*. Most answer options were given in the same word types as the Japanese target word, that is, if the Japanese word was a verb, answer options were also verbs. Occasionally, an answer option was given from a different word class if it was the English equivalent of a close homophone of the Japanese word. Japanese words were given in both *kana* and *kanji* as students at this level at this university are not expected to have learnt many *kanji* and therefore may be more familiar with a Japanese word in its *kana* form. The use of both *kana* and *kanji* also helps to differentiate Japanese homophones and instances where the same *kanji* has several different meanings.

In recent years, there has been discussion about the appropriateness of using multiple-choice questions to assess learners' vocabulary knowledge for the purpose of reading (see, for example, Gyllstad, Vilkaite, & Schmitt, 2015), and some researchers now advocate for a 'meaning-recall' test design, where learners provide an L1 translation of the target word prompt. It has been argued that these tests capture the kind of vocabulary knowledge required to be able to read successfully in the target language.

Though this paper reports the results of a test of learner's vocabulary, the test was used as part of a time-series design to measure learners' vocabulary growth over the duration of their Japanese courses. It may take 12 encounters or more with a word in order to learn it from reading extensively (Nation, 2014), yet as stated above, there is a low volume of graded material available to L2 Japanese learners, and previous research has argued "just reading these books alone it is not likely that L2 learners will be able to advance to the next level" (Abe, 2016, p.156). Given this, for measuring vocabulary gain from ER in Japanese, an instrument that can assess increases in learners' growing familiarity with Japanese vocabulary is more suitable for this context. Webb (2021) argues that multiple-choice tests may be sensitive enough to do this. Though there is some dispute over whether multiple-choice, meaning-recognition formats adequately

measure learners' vocabulary knowledge for the purpose of reading, tests in this format are not inappropriate when used for the purpose of assessing vocabulary gain. This is especially true when target language input may not be sufficient and learners' vocabulary development may be better captured through measures that can account for partial word knowledge.

Results

Vocabulary level of materials

Overall, the reading materials' vocabulary level was higher than would be expected, especially given that some texts are explicitly written for beginner learners, such as *Kuroshio's* JLPT N5 level texts. In general, for *NHK News Easy*, vocabulary level of texts was in the range of 1000 to 8000 words. For *Matcha Japanese Magazine*, it was in the 1000- to 10,000-word range. For *Kuroshio*, it was upwards of 4000 words. For the *Read in Ten Minutes* series, texts ranged from a 95% vocabulary coverage level of 1000 words to more than 17,000 words. However, a large number of texts from the series sampled fell within the first 4000 Japanese words. For the children's books, most were above the 7000-word level, including two categorised by *NPOTS* as Level 3 books (800-word level). Only the *Sakura*

Lab's readers did not have a mismatch between the claimed and actual vocabulary level at 90% vocabulary coverage.

Vocabulary knowledge of learners

Although all participants were assessed as having approximately the same Japanese level, i.e., the level of the course they were enrolled in, participants' vocabulary knowledge varied widely. The reliability of the test was .98 (measured by Kuder-Richardson 21), indicating high reliability. Despite participants' vocabulary knowledge being high overall, the class average did not cross the 95% threshold for comprehension even in the first 1000 most frequent words (Table 1).

When it comes to a detailed, student-by-student breakdown (Appendix B), it is clear that a high vocabulary score is no guarantee of comprehension at each reading level. Even participants with vocabulary knowledge estimates of more than 3000 words may not know enough words from the first 1000 most frequent Japanese words to read comfortably with adequate comprehension at that level (see, for example, Student 3). Overall, only about half the participants scored 90% or higher in the first 1000-word band, and only seven met the minimum threshold for comprehension of 95%. In terms of the second 1000-word band, only one student scored 98%, and only two scored 90% or more.

Table 1

Overview of participants' vocabulary knowledge of the 5000 most frequent Japanese words

	/200	/5000 (est)	1st 1000	2nd 1000	3rd 1000	4th 1000	5th 1000
Maximum score	187	4675	40	39	38	37	35
Minimum score	78	1950	30	13	15	8	0
Average score	138.5	3455.7	35.2	28.5	26.8	25.8	22.4
Percent	69%	69%	88.1%	71.3%	67%	64.6%	56.1%

(values rounded to 1d.p.)

(each vocabulary band has a maximum score of 40)

Discussion

Although overall vocabulary knowledge was high, data suggests that for this cohort of Japanese learners there were significant gaps in their knowledge, meaning that few would be able to read comfortably at the 1000-word level, let alone learn new vocabulary or improve reading fluency by reading texts in this first 1000-word band. This demonstrates the value of using a test that can be broken down into smaller bands, in order to assess an appropriate reading level for learners. Due to the sampling method, this test's results may be analyzed at even the 100-word level.

It also indicates that there may be a large discrepancy between learner vocabulary knowledge, and the vocabulary used in the graded reading materials currently published. Even when publishers have deliberately pitched materials as being an appropriate level for beginner learners (JLPT Level N5), such as *NPOTS* and *Kuroshio Publications*, the materials may have a 95% vocabulary coverage level of more than 4000 words. It therefore remains unclear how useful these materials are for learners.

The graded readers developed by the *NPOTS* group have stated vocabulary levels ranging from 350 words to 2000 words. However, in reality, the 90-98%

vocabulary coverage level for each text can range from 1000 to 20,000 words, which is also the case for readers from *Yomimono Ippai* and *JF Kansai* (Peterson, 2019). Although it may be the case that there are some Japanese words which are useful for learners that are very infrequent in texts written for L1 speakers, this enormous vocabulary range, even for Level 0 graded readers, may indicate that the list the words are drawn from is more idiosyncratic than is helpful for learners. Furthermore, vocabulary coverage data indicate that the current materials will not be enough of a scaffold for learners to move on to read L1 texts independently because the current materials' vocabulary level varies widely even within the same graded reader level.

Additionally, there is a large mismatch between the pre-2010 JLPT vocabulary list used by Japanese graded reader material creators as the basis of their vocabulary list, and the frequency of words in L1 Japanese texts. Presumably, most Japanese learners would be seeking to move past texts written for learners and to begin reading L1 texts at some point in their study, therefore they would wish to move on from materials written using the JLPT vocabulary list. It may be the case that *NPOTS* intended to align their materials with a test that is familiar to Japanese learners, however, since 2010 the vocabulary list *NPOTS* uses has not been used for the JLPT. Instead, an updated list taking into account vocabulary items' frequency has been developed and used when writing the test (Oshio et al., 2008).

Due to the low number of graded readers for L2 Japanese learners published so far, it is necessary to supplement the material used in an ER program with texts written for L1 speakers. Although children's picture books, novels, and young adult novels have been suggested as appropriate bridging materials for English learners, there is a large gap between the vocabulary coverage level of children's books and the graded readers (Webb and Macalister, 2013). This is also the case for Japanese children's and young adult books. Books listed on *NPOTS*'s website as "tadoku-friendly" may have a 95% vocabulary coverage level of 7000-12,000 words (for example, *My Neighbour Totoro*, *Kiki's Delivery Service*), and yet these are categorized as Level 3, which should have a vocabulary level of 800 words. Other children's books show a similarly high vocabulary level. It is therefore unclear at what point these books would become useful for L2 Japanese learners for ER, and teachers and learners must exercise caution when using them.

There may be other options for ER, including graded readers for L1 Japanese children. In the *Read in Ten Minutes* series there are a high number of texts with vocabulary coverage in the first to fourth 1000-word levels. From 11 books analyzed, 28 texts fell into this threshold. There are likely to be more, given that there are more than 100 books in this series. These materials

may be useful for learners aiming to increase their vocabulary knowledge to the 9500-word level (108 texts in this sample fell into this bracket), which equates to 95% vocabulary coverage in L1 texts (Matsushita, 2014), enabling them to read independently.

Ultimately, there may not be enough graded reading material available to L2 Japanese learners to allow them to learn vocabulary incidentally from reading. Although the volume of graded material for L2 learners has doubled since Abe's (2016) criticisms, it is still the case that the volume of words a learner would meet within each graded reading level would not provide enough encounters with each word so that a learner could learn that word incidentally. This is posited at 12 encounters for learners learning English words incidentally (Nation, 2014), and it seems reasonable that it would be a similar number for Japanese learners.

Limitations and future research

This research, while a useful first step, has several limitations. Firstly, the vocabulary instrument rewards learners' partial word knowledge, therefore may overestimate their vocabulary knowledge. The high use of semantically plausible dummy options may reduce this somewhat, but the degree to which it addresses this known issue of multiple-choice questions is not clear for Japanese. However, as Kremmel and Schmitt (2016) demonstrate, the estimation error for multiple-choice tests tends to be unidirectional, and thus may be accounted for more easily. Additionally, there are limits as to what a meaning-recognition test can indicate about learners' actual ability to employ their estimated vocabulary knowledge when reading (Kremmel & Schmitt, 2016). This was out of scope for this paper, but should be addressed for Japanese in future research.

Secondly, The data here report on only one small sample: both of learners and of books. It is likely to be the case that learners' vocabulary knowledge differs in different teaching institutions due to different teaching styles and methods. The vocabulary level of only a small number of children's books (less than 20) cannot be said to be a representative sample, and it may be the case that there are many books to be found with vocabulary at an appropriate level for learners.

A further limitation is that the data presented here is merely a description of graded and children's materials' vocabulary level and learners' vocabulary knowledge. It was out of the scope of this research project to investigate learners' perception of graded reader difficulty depending on their vocabulary knowledge. However, it is hoped the data here will be valuable food for thought for Japanese teachers considering implementing an ER component in their courses.

Finally, these tests have been found reliable and valid for only one context of learning. Work is underway to

establish their reliability and validity in other contexts, and additionally, development of a meaning-recall version is currently being pursued. Collaborative research projects to validate various modalities of these tests for different testing and learning contexts would be very welcome.

Conclusion

The findings of this research underscore the importance of not only understanding the vocabulary level of Japanese learners, but also being able to ascertain the vocabulary level of materials for them to read. It is essential to use a vocabulary test that can be broken down into relatively small bands to assess learners' vocabulary knowledge for the purpose of ER. It is critical to have detailed knowledge of learners' vocabulary levels due to the necessity of reading at the 98% or at minimum 95% vocabulary coverage levels while engaged in ER. Even though many participants scored highly, such that they are estimated to know more than 3000 Japanese words, the data here indicates that there are large gaps in their vocabulary knowledge at each 1000-word level, and very few knew enough vocabulary even within the first 1000 words to successfully read extensively at that level. Given that ER supports vocabulary acquisition when learners read at the 98% vocabulary coverage level, it is crucial that teachers are able to properly assess the correct reading level for their students.

References

Abe, K. (2016). *Roles of technology and of reading among five self-directed adult learners of Japanese as a foreign language* (Unpublished PhD thesis). The University of Texas at Austin, Texas, USA.

Banno, E., Ikeda, Y., Ohno, Y., Shinagawa, C., & Tokashiki, K. (2020). *Genki: An integrated course in elementary Japanese* (3rd ed.). Tokyo: Japan Times.

de Burgh-Hirabe, R. (2011). *Extensive reading and L2 reading motivation in Japanese as a foreign language: A case study of New Zealand high school students* (Unpublished PhD thesis). University of Otago, Dunedin, New Zealand.

Fukumoto, A. (2004). 日本語教育における多読の試み [An experiment in extensive reading in

Japanese education]. *Japanese Language and Culture*, 30, 41–59.

Gyllstad, H., McLean, S., & Stewart, J. (2020). Using confidence intervals to determine adequate item sample sizes for vocabulary tests: An essential but overlooked practice. *Language Testing*, 38(4), 558-579.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0265532220979562>

Gyllstad, H., Vilkaite, L., & Schmitt, N. (2015). Assessing vocabulary size through multiple-choice formats: Issues with guessing and sampling rates. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 166(2), 276-303.

Kremmel, B. & Schmitt, N. (2016). Interpreting vocabulary test scores: What do various item formats tell us about learners' ability to employ words? *Language Assessment Quarterly*, 13(4), 377-392.

Leung, C. (2002). Extensive reading and language learning: A diary study of a beginning learner of Japanese. *Reading in a Foreign Language*, 14(1), 66-81.

Matsushita, T. (2012). *In what order should learners learn Japanese vocabulary: A corpus-based approach* (Unpublished PhD thesis). Victoria University of Wellington, Wellington, New Zealand.

Matsushita, T. (2014, August). *How is the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and comprehension? A case of Japanese*. Paper presented at the meeting of the AILA World Congress 2014, Brisbane. Retrieved from http://www17408ui.sakura.ne.jp/tatsum/presentation/Matsushita2014_AILA_Vocab-Reading.pdf

Miyaoka, Y., Tamaoka, K., & Sakai, H. (2011). 日本語彙テストの開発と信頼性—中国語を母語とす

- る日本語学習者のデータによるテスト評価—
[Japanese Lexical Knowledge Test and Its
Reliability: Test Evaluation Using Data from
Native Chinese Speakers Learning Japanese].
広島経済大学研究論集, 34(1), 1-18.
- Nara, H. (2001). Automaticity and its implications for
JFL pedagogy. In Nara, H. (Ed.), *Advances in
Japanese language pedagogy* (pp. 243-280).
Columbus, Ohio: National East Asian Language
Resource Center, Ohio State University.
- Nation, I. (2006). How large a vocabulary is needed for
reading and listening? *Canadian Modern
Language Review*, 63(1), 59-82.
- Nation, P. (2014). How much input do you need to
learn the most frequent 9,000 words? *Reading
in a Foreign Language*, 26(2), 1-16.
- Oshio, K., Akimoto, M., Takeda, A., Abe, Y.,
Takanashi, M., Yanagisawa, Y., ... Ishiko, J.
(2008). 新しい日本語能力試験のための語彙表作
成にむけて [Towards the development of a
vocabulary list for the new Japanese Language
Proficiency Test]. *国際交流基金日本語教育紀要
第 4*, 71-86.
- Peterson, J. (2019). *Japanese Extensive Reading
Resources Database (JERRD)* (Version 1) [Data
set]. [https://www.researchgate.net/project/Extensive-
Reading-Tadoku-Databases](https://www.researchgate.net/project/Extensive-Reading-Tadoku-Databases)
- Rothville, K. (2019). *Extensive reading in Japanese:
Investigating the effects on vocabulary, reading
comprehension, coursework and attitudes
towards reading in Japanese and kanji over 27
weeks for upper beginner-level learners*
(Unpublished master's thesis). University of
Auckland, Auckland, New Zealand.
- Stoeckel, T., McLean, S., & Nation, P. (2021).
Limitations of size and levels tests of written
receptive vocabulary knowledge. *Studies in
Second Language Acquisition*, 43, 181-203.
- Suganaga Y., & Matsushita T. (2013). J-LEX Profiler.
Retrieved from <http://www17408ui.sakura.ne.jp/>
- Tabata-Sandom, M. (2016). What types of texts and
reading aids are good for Japanese graded
readers? *Journal of Extensive Reading* 4(2), 21-
46.
- Webb, S. (2021). A different perspective on the
limitations of size and levels tests of written
receptive vocabulary knowledge. *Studies in
Second Language Acquisition*, 43, 454-461.
- Webb, S., & Macalister, J. (2013). Is text written for
children useful for L2 extensive reading? *TESOL
Quarterly*, 47(2), 300-322.

Appendix A: Japanese Graded Readers

Overview of Japanese Graded Readers

Reading level	Vocabulary levels	JLPT Level	Groups using the NPOTS vocabulary and grammar lists					Groups using their own lists					
			NPOTS (print)	NPOTS (online)	JF Malaysia (online)	JF Mongolia (online)	Tongari Books (online)	Yomimono Ippai (online)	Japan Found. Kansai (online)	Let's Read Japanese (print)	Sendai Intl Japanese School (print)	Sakura Lab (online)	Tadoku no Hiroba (online)
Level 0 – Starter	350 words	N5	27	29	4	7					2 (Starter)		
Level 1 – Beginner	350-400 words	N5	25	6	6	7	3		7 (A1 level)			5 (Level A)	
Level 2 – Upper Beg.	500-550 words	N4	28	10	2	3	2		18 (A2 level)	1 (Novice)	6 (Beginner)	3 (Level B)	
Level 3 – Lower Int.	750-1000 words	N3	24	12	2	1	9	51 (Level 1)	1 (A2/B1 level)	2 (Intermed.)	5 (Beg. – Int.)	5 (Level C+D)	1* (Level 1)
Level 4 – Intermed.	1300-1400 words	N3-N2	25	3			5	55 (Level 2)		1 (Int. high)	4 (Intermed.)	6 (Level E)	11* (Level 2)
Level 5 – Upper Int.	2000-2100 words	N2	2	1			3	11 (Level 3)				3 (Level F)	2* (Level 3)
Level 6	2900 words											1 (Level G)	1* (Level 4)
Level 7	4500 words											1 (Level H)	28* (general)
Total books:			131	61	14	18	22	106	26	4	17	24	43
	Sum total:		466										

*Target vocabulary coverage level unknown

Appendix B: Participants' Results in Detail

A score of 39 (out of 40) would represent 98% vocabulary knowledge at that 1000-word level, 38 would represent 95% vocabulary knowledge, and 36 would represent 90% vocabulary knowledge.

Participants' Vocabulary Knowledge

Code	Overall score	Overall vocabulary (estimated)	1 st 1000	2 nd 1000	3 rd 1000	4 th 1000	5 th 1000
Student 1	92	2300	30	17	16	17	12
Student 2	100	2500	34	24	25	10	7
中 Student 3	165	4125	34	33	33	34	31
中 Student 4	160	4000	36	32	32	33	27
Student 5	151	3775	40	31	25	29	26
中 Student 6	137	3425	33	29	29	24	22
Student 7	142	3350	32	28	24	31	27
Student 8	100	2500	33	21	15	18	13
中 Student 9	178	4450	38	35	35	35	35
Student 10	134	3350	37	27	22	25	23
Student 11	78	1950	32	13	15	11	17
Student 12	108	2700	34	23	21	19	11
Student 13	154	3850	36	30	33	28	27
中 Student 14	164	4100	36	31	36	32	29
中 Student 15	168	4200	35	32	36	37	28
中 Student 16	160	4000	36	31	30	32	31
Student 17	166	4150	34	34	31	35	32
中 Student 18	166	4150	38	37	31	30	30
Student 19	97	2425	36	27	19	15	0
中 Student 20	187	4675	39	39	37	37	35
中 Student 21	154	3850	34	29	32	32	27
Student 22	109	2725	34	25	18	21	11
中 Student 23	133	3325	36	28	25	22	22
Student 24	85	2125	32	20	18	8	7
Student 25	113	2825	33	21	17	22	20
Student 26	181	4525	38	37	38	36	32
Student 27	139	3475	39	31	25	21	23
Student 28	123	3075	34	28	28	21	12
Student 29	123	3075	37	27	21	23	15
中 Student 30	174	4350	38	31	34	36	35
中 Student 31	152	3800	34	33	30	27	28

中 denotes Chinese or Chinese-heritage participants

GILE SIG Forum: Voices of Global Educators

Jackson Koon Yat Lee
Toyo University

Ken Ikeda
Otsuma Women's University

May Kyaw Oo
Nagasaki University

Jennie Roloff Rothman
Kanda University of International Studies

The Global Issues in Language Education (GILE) SIG, one of the oldest and largest in JALT, has long been home to countless global educators from a variety of backgrounds whose goal is to create a more peaceful and understanding world through their classrooms. At PanSIG2021, GILE chose to dedicate its forum to highlighting the experiences of three multicultural, global educators and their thoughts on how global educators can meaningfully promote plurilingualism and diversity. Their stories, documented here, are part of an ongoing dialogue about the realities, biases, injustices, and opportunities in our field about which many of their fellow educators may not be aware. The forum and this paper's purpose is to use those perspectives to inform a discussion on suggestions for both supporting academics and classroom practice that can be positive, inclusive, and supportive for all members of the teaching community.

グローバル問題と言語教育 (GILE) 研究会は、JALT の中でも最も歴史があり、規模も大きい研究会のひとつで、教室を通じてより平和で理解しやすい世界を作ること为目标に、さまざまなバックグラウンドを持つグローバル・エデュケーターが集まっています。PanSIG2021 では、GILE は、3 人の多文化なグローバル教育者の経験と、グローバル教育者が多言語主義と多様性を有意義に推進する方法についての考えを紹介するフォーラムを開催することにしました。ここで紹介する彼らの体験談は、教育者仲間の多くが気づいていないであろう、この分野における現実、偏見、不正、そして機会についての継続的な対話の一部となるものである。フォーラムと本論文の目的は、これらの視点を用いて、教育界のすべてのメンバーにとって前向きで包括的、かつ支援的な学術的支援と教室実践の両方についての提案について議論することです。

The Global Issues in Language Education (GILE) SIG has long been home to global educators from varied backgrounds, all aiming to create a more peaceful and understanding world through their classrooms. This year's GILE forum shared perspectives from three multicultural, global educators whose stories are situated within and contribute to a larger ongoing dialogue and struggle to recognize and improve the realities, biases, and injustices in our field (Fukunaga, et al, 2018; Hashimoto, 2020, Sue et al., 2007) about

which many of their fellow educators may be unaware (Curtis & Romney, 2006; Mahboob, 2010; Yazan & Rudolph, 2018).

Jackson Koon Yat Lee told his struggles with the native English teacher image. Ken Ikeda presented an informal study with Nikkei educators and commented on anti-bias training. May Kyaw Oo shared her various traumas as a Myanmar English teacher in Thailand and Japan. This paper has two aims: highlighting their perspectives

on how global educators can meaningfully promote plurilingualism and diversity; and informing discussions on supporting academics and classroom practices that are positive, inclusive, and supportive for all members of the teaching community.

Jackson: The Half-Visible Teacher

Since the beginning of my decade-long teaching career, my suitability as an English teacher in Japan has always been undermined by my identity as a Hong-Kong-born Canadian. English education in Japan has historically created an image of an ideal English teacher as “teachers who fit their perception of ‘native English speakers’—white, fun, smart, and good-looking” (Fukunaga et al., 2018, pp. 35). Due to this ideal image that I, as an Asian, do not fit and cannot ever fit, I, like many others, have struggled with insecurity and self-doubt.

Starting my career off as an assistant language teacher (ALT) with no experience in education, one immediate concern was convincing my students and colleagues that I was a credible teacher, someone they could trust and build healthy relationships with. My physical appearance worked against me and I spoke with a distinct accent, so the only reliable strategy was to reinforce my Canadian-ness at work. It is commonly considered the ALT’s responsibility to represent English-speaking communities in the classroom (Brumby & Wada, 1990). Therefore, I took all the opportunities I had to share and present aspects of Canada to my students.

Unfortunately, this encouragement to represent Canada also instilled an idea that if I was to speak about my Hong Kong origins, a place I lived for a decade before twelve years in Vancouver, it would hamper my credibility as a foreign English teacher. There was a fear that my elementary and junior high school students would be confused and question whether I was an “authentic” teacher from an English-speaking country. Therefore, I avoided ever mentioning Hong Kong in front of my students for years. I showed students pictures of

my schools and homes in Canada, but not the ones from Hong Kong. I introduced popular Canadian foods that I had never actually tasted. Conversely, students never learned that my dinners back home were mostly Chinese dishes made by my mother. My students knew “Jackson is our English teacher from Canada” without discovering that half of my identity had been purposefully made invisible, just to align my professional image closer to the racially discriminatory ideal ‘NEST’ image Japan has adopted.

I was not victimized at work, but it was a self-fulfilling prophecy from proactively reinforcing my Canadian identity while hiding my Hong Kong side. However, the surprised reactions from parents, new teachers, and visiting educators and administrators constantly reminded me that my physical appearance did not match who they had expected as the ALT. The process also repeated at every new workplace. It took years to build up the confidence to believe that students would appreciate me for who I was, not where I was from, and I began introducing my experiences growing up in Hong Kong to my students.

However, my anxiety and fear never completely dissipated. The necessity to present myself carefully was obvious when I was hired part-time and advertised as a ‘native teacher’ to parents of students at an *eikaiwa* (English conversation) school. The feelings also returned when I began teaching at the university level, a more competitive environment for teachers. I worried, because while my young students had few, if any, past foreign teachers to compare me with, I was now interacting with older students who could have more presumptions and prejudices. My Hong Kong identity once again disappeared for over two years, until I eventually secured a full-time position and the self-confidence that accompanied it.

One important reason for the recurring anxiety is that teachers who do not fit the ‘NEST’ image know that we continue to be less desirable in the market. English language school advertisements in Japan mostly display Caucasian teachers (Bailey, 2006; Hashimoto,

2020). Hashimoto in Fukunaga et al. (2018) has found that “NESTs of Asian descent are often perceived as inauthentic” (pp. 35) While marketing terms like ‘native teachers’ apply to me, I have personally never seen Asian teachers displayed in such advertisements. Therefore, language school advertisements on trains and buses as well as teacher recruitment ads on the internet continue to serve as constant reminders of the necessity to fit the image, as the faces on such advertisements are what our current and future students are regularly exposed to.

Images primarily depicting Caucasians as English teachers and terms such as ‘native teachers’ are problematic as they only emphasize a person’s heritage rather than their quality as an educator. Unser-Schutz in Fukunaga et al. (2018) has found that ‘native teachers’ are not always preferred by Japanese university students, as native speakers can make students nervous. Yet, the approaches taken by administrators and marketing of English language education in Japan seem to continuously reinforce such discriminatory hiring practices, even when it creates a reality that hinders and excludes the ‘non-ideal’ from receiving the same benefits (Fukunaga et al., 2018; Hashimoto, 2020).

It took me years to begin coping with my identity as a Hong-Kong-born Canadian teaching English in Japan. However, this coping process worked partially because I could still somewhat benefit from the privileges reserved for ‘native teachers’ at many workplaces by intentionally positioning my Canadian identity to the forefront. Teachers who do not fit the ‘NEST’ image struggle in an industry that devalues them and they have no ‘other identity’ to lean on. Luckily, for me, my racial background has now become a teaching tool to help my students to think more critically about stereotypes and marketing messages. The personal journey is now a narrative to share with other educators to raise awareness on this issue.

Based on my experience, it is apparent that the industry favors white ‘NESTs’, and the majority of them either

thrive in the bias without realizing it, or they recognize the differential treatment but submit to the idea that the ‘Caucasian native English ideal narrative’ is a natural part of the industry. There are also white ‘NESTs’ who strongly reject equity in order to protect their own advantageous positions. Overall, those who have never experienced being marginalized often remain oblivious of the hardship that non-white and/or ‘NNES’ teachers face and struggle with regularly. Only a minority of white ‘NESTs’ are aware of, and also actively speak up against the discrimination, and this has to change.

Since I started presenting on this subject at ELT-related events and conferences in Japan, I have encountered mostly two types of feedback: ‘NNESTs’ express gratitude for my candidness in sharing stories and experiences they strongly resonate with, and ‘NESTs’ exhibit shock and disappointment from learning about a perspective of which they had never been truly aware. Based on the supportive feedback at events and my belief that teaching is a profession of nobility and integrity, I want to remain hopeful that by raising awareness among those flourishing from the imbalance, often in influential positions, they too will recognize the issues and work to create positive changes. Instead of expecting those marginalized to risk their livelihood to fight for equitable opportunities, it is crucial that anyone, both ‘NESTs’ and ‘NNESTs’, who have become aware of the discrimination to take initiative and change our shared reality from one that supports mainly white ‘NESTs’ to one that supports all teachers alike.

Ken: Getting Past the Face

I presented in this GILE Forum my observations on issues that affect Asian educators due to judgments of ethnicity and language which are based on sight rather than reasoned thought. First, I write about frustrations I and other educators of Nikkei descent (Japanese ancestry) have experienced seeking employment in Japan. These frustrations can be linked to microaggressions (Sue et al. 2007). I then address questions that were posed to the panelists of this GILE

Forum and what steps can be undertaken to overcome these hurdles, first with students and with fellow educators.

I speak as an American-born Japanese of parents who immigrated to the United States and spent my first twenty-five years there. I am presently employed as the L1 (native) English educator in a department at a women's university in Tokyo.

I've been asked often by white people, "You speak English so well. When did you come to Japan?" I tell them I was born and raised in the U.S., so I am a native English speaker. But a few remain curious and unconvinced. Their subsequent questions and comments reveal that they have not listened to me. They seem transfixed by what they see: the Asian face.

To see if my experience extended beyond myself, I conducted an informal email questionnaire with seven educators of Nikkei ancestry (four females, three males). They answered two main questions which were: (1) memories of past discriminations in employment and (2) if their institutions have policy guidelines regarding equitable employment. My answers are included with theirs. All seven of us have taught at the university level, and although I did not ask about age, I estimate we are in our fifties and above.

I have sorted their responses into categories that reveal misunderstandings or misperceptions their job interviewers or colleagues had of the Nikkei respondents. These aspects are: gender, language facility (English, Japanese), and public perceptions.

Gender: Two women were told at their interviews that self-effacing Japanese women get hired. They were told this although their documents clearly identified them as Nikkeijin. On the other hand, two men felt they ought to be self-effacing to fit better in their institutions.

Language Facility: Many were complimented on their 'fluent' English speaking. One was asked why he had applied for an English L1 position, a question which showed him that the department perceived native

English speakers by their facial looks. One was asked at the job interview for her spoken language preference, English or Japanese, even though the position was for an English L1 speaker. Three Nikkeijin were surprised to have been hired, despite not having high Japanese language ability.

Public Perceptions: Four reported not being featured in photos that publicized their school or university. One told me colleagues at her school made a point to include her in the staff photo. One had been initially refused a job to teach in Japan because of his Japanese face. (It should be stated that this interview was conducted in the U.S., and the interviewer was another Nikkeijin.)

Overall, responses from the Nikkei educators were positive about their teaching experiences in Japan, which I interpret is largely due to the supportive environment of their institutions. I admit that my results may highlight experiences of being slighted. At the time of my presentation, I linked these results to trauma, which Onderko (2020) explains, "the response to a deeply distressing or disturbing event that overwhelms an individual's ability to cope, causes feelings of helplessness, diminishes their sense of self and their ability to feel the full range of emotions and experiences" (para. 1). Later, I realized that trauma is not appropriate to apply here. I and these Nikkei educators were not so far distressed that we could not cope to the point of helplessness. But our memories of these misperceptions that people made based on their name, face, and superb English language abilities, fit the notion of microaggressions, defined by Sue et al. (2007) as "verbal, behavioral, or environmental indignities whether intentional or unintentional, that communicate hostile, derogatory, or negative racial slights and insults toward people of color" (p. 271). Sue et al. state the reactions of those spark microaggressions show their unawareness of communicating when they interact with minorities of color (p. 271).

A study by Tran and Lee (2014) points to how racial appearances can spark feelings of microaggression. They examined ratings by Whites and Asians who were

paired together for short interviews in an American Midwestern university, purposely requiring Whites to compliment Asians on their English-speaking ability. They reported that Whites' compliments on the Asians' English language prowess were stressful to the latter. Tran and Lee call these judgments "exceptionalizing stereotype(s)".

I devote the remainder of this piece to answer two questions posed to this GILE panel: (1) "What can we do pedagogically to 'normalize' your presence in classrooms to our students?" and (2) "What can we do, as global educators, to welcome everyone?"

I have found the concern about normalizing the presence of educators of color has not been a problem. Unchecked assumptions of non-native-looking English speaker photos can hinder students' assumptions of these persons' English language ability (Nagano, 2022). However, it has been my experience that Japanese students learning English overcome quickly their compunctions with their instructors. The ethnicity of an instructor does not seem to interfere with these learners' language learning aims, so long as the instructor's accent does not hinder students' understanding. Their main concern is to acquire English fluency for themselves. Consequently, I have observed students in Japan accept me as an English native quicker than other Whites who are present. I recall one occasion when conversing with students at a university where I previously taught, a White American colleague addressed me as sensei with slight bows, and the students exchanged bewildering looks. Another instance was when I rode on a train with my seminar students. Tourists from a European country came and sat across us. They spoke to me trying out their Japanese on me. My students told the tourists that I was a native English speaker, but they continued to speak to me in Japanese. The students realized it was true about what I had told them about my past encounters with people with unconscious biases.

The second question, "What can we do, as global educators, to welcome everyone", needs addressing,

since the act of welcoming is an initial step toward acceptance and recognition. Fujimoto (2020) writes how she felt seemingly ignored by her male interactants, both Japanese and foreign when she supplied the English equivalent of a Japanese word. One teacher who answered my informal questionnaire wrote of her experience being spoken to in Japanese at JALT gatherings. I too have been embarrassed at a JALT national conference to be addressed in Japanese almost immediately after having conversed with the conference staffer in English.

Diversity or anti-bias training may appear to be the easy solution, which often consists of a short workshop designed to raise awareness of unconscious bias and discriminatory acts by employees to their clientele. One example is the privilege walk (As/Is, 2015) which requires participants to take steps forward or backward in response to statements that declare a privilege or unearned social right. But diversity training has its detractors. Peggy McIntosh regards the privilege walk as a gym-exercise (2010). Dobbin and Kalev (2018) identify five drawbacks of anti-bias training: (a) it is not easy to change people's attitudes; (b) asking participants to suppress stereotypes, activates them instead; (c) training causes a false sense of achievement; (d) whites may feel the training espouses "color-blindness"; and (e) people are prone to resist management control (pp. 49-50). Rather, Dobbin and Kalev advise that diversity training should: (a) practice behaviors that increase contact and empathy between groups; (b) help the majority build a sense of inclusion with others so that they feel more open to accept new ways; (c) help people understand that equity fosters voluntariness and does not control their freedom of thought and action; (d) foster awareness as part of a wider program of mutual recognition and respect (pp. 51-52).

Diversity training only becomes meaningful when individual participants can thoroughly talk through their pain and live with alerted awareness among those who experience such slights on a regular basis, to share in

their traumas and support them. I hope that my piece will spark conscious efforts between educators of various colors to exercise mutual respect in our context of English language instruction, efforts that surely will be noticed by our learners as they engage as users of the language and possessors of the culture.

May: My Challenges as a “Non-Native” Speaker TESOL Teacher

The first time I applied for a full-time teaching job was at a language school in Thailand, having just finished my Masters in English language and literature. During my graduate studies I worked as a part-time instructor at the same university. Thinking that securing a job at a language school would be relatively straightforward given my qualifications and work experience, this unfortunately became the first time I experienced overt racism. The director of the school told me I would be considered for the job if I could make my skin lighter, wear blue contact lenses, bleach my hair blonde, and to keep my nationality, Myanmar, a secret when parents asked me. On my way back home I felt dejected, ashamed of my identity and questioned the relevance of my educational training. After applying for more jobs, I realized that this was not an isolated occurrence.

Years later, after a DELTA and an MEd TESOL, it was depressing to remain in a similar job position as before with colleagues who were backpacker teachers simply passing through. Why did I spend over £40,000 and go through rigorous training to prove that I am indeed worthy to be where I was while my colleagues were given the position by the grace of their skin color and their nationality? It was demoralizing. Another time, I was asked to lead a big project but after its completion, the university created a banner with the photo of my white American colleague to promote it. Incidents like these impacted my mental health and there was always a constant struggle between standing up for myself and job security.

As a female native Myanmar English teacher, I dealt and continue to deal with invisibility, being marginalized, discriminatory hiring practices, and microaggressions from colleagues. Although it would be easier to ignore these issues since my career pathway has improved in the past year, I decided on this topic to highlight the ongoing individual grievances that “non-native” English speaker teachers (NNEST) or teachers from Outer and Expanding Circles (Kachru, 1992) have continued to experience despite the strides made in the non-native speaker (NNS) movement (Braine, 2010). Even now, teaching job websites in Thailand still state native speaker of English as a requirement at the same level of importance as relevant education background. Some advertise for both native-speaking and non-native English-speaking teachers but offer much lower salaries to the NNESTs (Dumlao & Mengorio, 2019; Ulla, 2019).

I hesitated to speak up on these issues at conferences and public forums because it requires job security and a support system. Casual conversations on these topics were also met with resistance, negativity, and sometimes dismissal from administrators and colleagues. Hence, I waited until arriving in Japan to share my experiences in Thailand. It is also in Japan where I met educators already aware of these issues, some with firsthand experiences (themselves) and connected me to the JALT platform and amplified my marginalized voice. Unfortunately, stories like mine are not rare (Braine, 2010; Curtis & Romney, 2006; Mahboob, 2010; Yazan & Rudolph, 2018) and they will continue to persist until policies are reformed and people cease to view the English language through its colonial legacy. Sadly, most of the time, the discrimination I experienced came from people who are from the similar race to mine, i.e., in Thailand, most of the discrimination came from Thai administrators and school directors. It continues to baffle me to experience this kind of internalized inferiority.

Even in my current position in Japan, on occasions, I was made to feel by some colleagues as an affirmative hire, as someone who did not deserve to be there. At

times, my language abilities were excessively critiqued by NESTs. For instance, if I made a spelling mistake, my language abilities become a point of scrutiny while for a NES colleague, it is simply a mistake. When I confront these issues, I am accused of “using my race card” or that I am being “too sensitive”, further oppressing me from having conversations about these topics. I feel alone and invisible despite having a support system when I sit in faculty meetings mostly made up of White and Japanese male colleagues.

While distressing at times, overcoming these experiences allowed me to be resilient. It influenced how I identify as an educator, researcher, human being coexisting between privilege and marginalization. Having had to deal with race issues and casual microaggressions, sometimes on a daily basis, have left me wondering if I would like to continue my career in the English language teaching field at times. Most of the time, I am grateful to get to know my students and inspire them to continue their learning journeys. Overall, I take my unique situation as an opportunity and not as a disadvantage. Embracing who I am and where I come from has allowed me to create meaningful connections with my students. No matter how unpleasant it was outside of the classroom with my colleagues or with administrators, I remain inspired by my students and their curious minds. As a language teacher of color, I have firsthand experiences I can share to raise awareness of social justice and global issues.

In closing, if you want to be a force for equity in your workplaces no matter what your nationality and race are, I have some general suggestions.

- Listen to your NNEST colleagues if they chose to share their experiences. We can listen without having to provide solutions or passing judgments.
- Check our internalized biases. We all have biases, and it is a good practice to question and critique our actions and way of thinking.
- Speak up if you see inequalities. Most of the time, people do see the discrimination, but they do not speak up because they think it's a policy or

administrative issue. Speaking up might not be the ultimate solution but solidarity means a lot for your colleagues.

- Review your classroom practices to be more inclusive and actively choose diverse materials which represent a wide spectrum of today's English language users.
- Lastly, if you are in the position of power to impact positive change, please help make top-down policy changes.

Conclusion

GILE SIG would like to thank these three educators for sharing their perspectives and suggestions on improving English language education. The powerful pieces document their survival despite injustices in the industry, management of feelings of inadequacy, and experiences of microaggressions. Their writing here is a call to action for other educators: everyone has a role to play in recognizing inequalities and pushing to make positive change. Inclusive educational spaces must see people of color as equals rather than the other. Creating spaces for and listening to experiences is crucial, and recognizing that global issues education can be a force not just for tolerance and understanding, but to change the view of English by stakeholders such as institutions, publishers, and fellow educators.

References

- [As/Is] (2015, July 5). *What is privilege?* [Video]. YouTube.
<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=hD5f8GuNuGQ>
- Bailey, K. (2006). Marketing the *eikaiwa* wonderland: ideology, *akogare* and gender alterity in English conversation school advertising in Japan. *Environment and Planning D: Society and Space*, 24, 105-130.
<https://doi.org/10.1068/d418>

- Braine, G. (2010). *Nonnative speaker English teachers: Research, pedagogy, and professional growth (1st ed.)*. Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203856710>
- Brumby, S. and Wada, M. (1990). *Team teaching*. Harlow, Essex: Longman.
- Curtis, A., & Romney, M. (Eds.) (2006). *Color, race, and English language teaching: Shades of meaning*. Mahwah, NT: Lawrence Erl.
- Dobbin, F., and Kalev, A. (2018). Why diversity training doesn't work: The challenge for industry and academia. *Anthropology Now*, 10(2), 48-55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19428200.2018.1493182>
- Dumlao, R. P. & Mengorio, T. (2019). From inland to outland: Experiences of non-native expatriate teachers teaching in a foreign context. *Journal of English Education*, 4(1), 24-37. <http://dx.doi.org/10.31327/jee.v4i1.898>
- Fujimoto, D. (2020). The lens of native-speakerism: Understanding the lived experiences of a Japanese American teacher. In D. H. Nagatomo, K. A. Brown, & M. L. Cook (Eds.), *Foreign female English teachers in Japanese higher education: Narratives from our quarter* (pp. 255-266). Candlin & Mynard. <https://doi.org/10.47908/11/19>
- Fukunaga, S., Hashimoto, N., Lowe, R. J., Unser-Schutz, G., & Kusaka, L. (2018). Collaborative deconstruction of native-speakerism. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & P. Bennett (Eds.), *Language teaching in a global age: Shaping the classroom, shaping the world*. Tokyo: JALT.
- Hashimoto, N. (2020). Foreign enough: Migrant nonnative English-speaking teachers In D. Hooper & N. Hashimoto (Eds.), *Teacher narratives from the Eikaiwa classroom: Moving beyond "McEnglish."* (pp. 51-63). Candlin & Mynard. <https://doi.org/10.47908/13/4>
- Kachru, B. (1992). World Englishes: Approaches, issues, and resources. *Language Teachings*, 25, 1-14.
- Kubota, R., & Lin, A. (2006). Race and TESOL: Introduction to concepts and theories. *TESOL Quarterly*, 40(3), 471-493. <https://doi.org/10.2307/40264540>
- Mahboob, A. (Ed.). (2010). *The NNEST lens: Non native English speakers in TESOL*. Newcastle upon Tyne, England: Cambridge Scholars Press.
- McIntosh, P. (2010). *Some notes for facilitators on presenting my white privilege papers*. Seed: The National SEED Project. <https://nationalseedproject.org/Key-SEED-Texts/white-privilege-unpacking-the-invisible-knapsack>
- Nagano, S. (2022). *EFL university students' perceptions of native English speakers and preferences of non-Japanese English language teachers* [unpublished undergraduate thesis]. Otsuma Women's University, Department of English Literature and Language.
- Onderko, K. (2020) *What is Trauma?: Trauma Defined*. <https://integratedlistening.com/what-is-trauma/>.
- Sue, D. W., Capodilupo, C. M., Torino, G. C., Bucceri, J. M., Holder, A. M. B., Nadal, K. L., Esquilin, M. (2007). Racial microaggressions in everyday life: Implications for clinical practice. *American Psychologist*, 62(4), 271-286. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.62.4.271>
- Tran, A. G. T. T., & Lee, R. M. (2014). You speak English well! Asian Americans' reactions to an exceptionalizing stereotype. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 61(3), 484-490. <https://doi.org/10.1037/cou0000034>
- Ulla, M. B. (2019). *Filipinos as EFL teachers in Bangkok, Thailand: Implications for language*

education policy in the ASEAN region. *RELC Journal*, 52(3), 588-602.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688219879775>

Yazan, B., Rudolph, N. (Eds.). (2018). *Criticality, Teacher identity, and (in)equity in English language teaching: Issues and implications*. Springer

Multilingualism and Intercultural Competence

Jessica Zoni Upton

Nagoya University of Foreign Studies

For many years now, monolingualism has been considered a drawback (Crystal, 2006). While foreign language education may be able to encourage and support the development of sequential multilingualism in the still mainly monolingual Japanese society (Harding-Esch & Riley, 2003; Wang, 2018), implementation of linguistic competence without intercultural competence (IC) is not enough to guarantee effective use of new languages. IC is the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations through the application of one's intercultural skills, attitudes, and knowledge (Deardorff, 2006). This paper will provide an overview of multilingualism and its current level in Japan, followed by an explanation of how it is connected to IC. Finally, it will focus on how IC can be practically integrated. Readers can gain insights into the importance of IC in developing multilingualism and ideas on how to practically incorporate it in their language classrooms.

現代では、モノリンガルであることは欠点だと考えられている (Crystal, 2006)。外国語教育は、依然として主にモノリンガルの日本社会における多言語の発展を奨励し、支援することができるかもしれないが (Harding-Esch&Riley, 2003;Wang, 2018)、異文化能力 (IC) のない言語能力の実施は、新しい言語の有効な使用を保証することはできない。IC というのは、効果的な異文化コミュニケーションを取るためのスキル、異文化に対する好奇心、それと知識を纏める能力である (Deardorff, 2006)。本稿では、多言語や日本における現在のレベルを紹介し、それと IC がどのように関係しているか説明する。最後に、どのように IC を外国語教育で溶け込めるのかに焦点を当てる。読者は、外国語教室で多言語を育てるための IC の重要性や使えるアイデアについて得ることができるだろう

Over the years, there have been numerous discussions over approaches to multilingualism in pedagogy (Haukås, 2015). Verily, education carries a great responsibility in providing an opportunity for everyone to learn a second or third language. In this paper, the case of multilingualism in education is explored in the context of Japan, a country which has one of the best education systems in the world (Garibay, 2021; World Population Review, 2022), yet is still considered mostly monolingual (Harding-Esch & Riley, 2003; Wang, 2018). This paper proposes that multilingualism and intercultural competence (IC) are inevitably connected. In other words, to approach multilingualism in education is to teach both linguistic and intercultural elements of a foreign language. In order to provide a practical guide on how to possibly achieve that, this study will explain how to implement an IC approach in the foreign language classroom through integration of 'deep culture' elements and activities that will help develop learners' foreign language skills and global awareness.

Multilingualism

Multilingualism is "the use of more than one language or competence in more than one language" (Clyne, 2017, p.301). It is important to notice that the

competence described as multilingualism in this paper does not assume a "native" level proficiency in all languages spoken, but rather considers multilingualism as a "condition that makes it possible for an individual to function, at some level, in more than one language" (Valdés, n.d.). Moreover, it can apply both to a person who has competences in multiple languages or to a place where multiple languages are being used (King, 2018). When discussing places where multilingualism thrives, one might think of countries or regions where groups of cultural minorities or migrant communities are gathered, such as Singapore. Accordingly, in 2020 Singapore recorded an impressive 74.3% of the population as being literate in two or more languages aside from English, including Mandarin, Malay, Tamil, Chinese dialects, Indian languages, and other secondary languages (Singapore Department of Statistics, 2020).

Multilingualism in Japan

On the other hand, Japan continues to be considered a highly monolingual and monocultural society (Harding-Esch & Riley, 2003; Wang, 2018). That is not to say that multilingualism is completely absent from the country. On the contrary, Franceschini (2011) stated that the term multilingualism includes not only linguistic abilities

in national languages, but also in “regional languages, minority languages, migrant languages, sign languages, and, in the broadest sense, dialects” (p.344). Japan, in fact, counts numerous dialects as well as eight local minority languages, such as *Ainu* and *Amami* (Takubo, 2018). However, all eight languages are not being taught and have been deemed ‘endangered’ by UNESCO (Takubo, 2018). With the advance of the phenomenon of ‘globalization’ in the 1980s, Japan has nonetheless been eager to bridge the gap between monolingualism and multilingualism (Nakayama, 2020; Shoji, 2008). If so, how has the Japanese government been addressing multilingualism in education? The following section will look at Japan’s approach to foreign language education, in particular, of English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

Multilingualism and Education in Japan

The Japanese government has attempted multiple reforms in foreign language education over the past 200 years (Lockley et al., 2012). The most recent ones by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sport, Science and Technology (MEXT), in 2011 and 2020, introduced reforms which made English a compulsory subject in primary schools in order to encourage its youth to be more multilingual and globally aware (Ng, 2016; Sawa, 2020). However, the reforms have been greatly criticized as several problems have been identified with their execution in schools, mainly that the teachers were not trained to be English teachers, that materials and curriculum were inadequate, that communication between the authorities and the schools had been lacking, and finally, that the subject was not treated as a real subject (Ng, 2016; Tada, 2016). Verily, the weaknesses of MEXT’s approach to foreign language education are reflected in a) language proficiency and b) global awareness. Japanese learners have reportedly maintained a low level of English proficiency amongst global rankings since 2016 (EF, 2022), even after the implementation of the above-mentioned reforms. According to the latest English First English Proficiency Index (EF, 2022), Japan ranks 78th out of 112 surveyed countries, rendering it one of the least English-proficient among developed countries. Moreover, out of the 24 Asian countries surveyed, Japan ranked in the middle (13th), followed only by less developed Asian countries such as Cambodia, Myanmar, and Afghanistan. To offer a comparison, the most proficient Asian country, Singapore, was ranked 4th /112, and the neighboring South Korea, despite ranking lower than Japan in terms of overall education (World Population Review, 2022), ranked 37th/112 in terms of English proficiency (EF, 2022). In respect to global awareness, a recent survey conducted by the Cabinet Office (2019) among people of seven different countries (Japan, South Korea, USA, UK, Germany, France, and Sweden) between the ages of 13 and 29, showed that 55.3% of Japanese participants answered

that Japan is not equipped in cross-cultural understanding. In the same survey, 42.1% of South Korean participants, 13.2% less than Japan, said the same about South Korea, the only other Asian country surveyed. The survey also showed that only 32.3% of Japanese participants were willing to study abroad compared to 65.7% of South Korean participants (Cabinet Office, 2019). Whilst the difference in global awareness could be related to the difference between Japan and South Korea’s reported percentages of foreign residents (a.k.a., diversity within the country), which in 2020 stood at 2.3% for Japan (Statista, 2020) and 3.4% for South Korea (Statistics Korea, n.d.), there is no clear evidence to support that. Instead, evidence found for Japanese’ unwillingness to live abroad includes both language anxiety and a lack of interest in foreign matters (Morita, 2014; Kamiya, 2019; Su, 2021). These results are supported by recent research (Nakayama, 2020) which criticized MEXT’s approaches to global awareness in compulsory education for focusing too much on learning about Japanese national identity, ultimately failing to acknowledge the diversity present in the country and to create a sense of global awareness (Tsuneyoshi, 2016, as cited in Nakayama, 2020). The low a) confidence and proficiency in a foreign language (in this case, English) and b) self-reported global awareness, compared to South Korea, for example, suggest that the reforms have so far been incomplete (Lai, 2017; Cabinet Office, 2019). What foreign language education in Japan might benefit from is the integration of an IC approach.

Intercultural Competence

IC is “the ability to communicate effectively and appropriately in intercultural situations based on one’s intercultural knowledge, skills and attitudes” (Deardorff, 2006, p.247). According to the model by Deardorff (2006), IC attitudes imply attitudes of openness and curiosity, as well as being accepting of different values and different beliefs. IC skills are not only language skills, but also observation skills, listening skills, evaluating and relating skills. It is human nature to judge based on first impressions, therefore the ability to suspend judgment requires skills of observation, listening and interpreting. That is especially necessary when in intercultural exchanges, certain first impressions can lead to stereotyping and discrimination. Finally, IC knowledge does not entail only culture-specific knowledge, but also self-awareness, being able to understand own values and beliefs, as well as socio-linguistic awareness, being able to understand the connection between the language and its sociocultural implications.

Multilingualism and Intercultural Competence

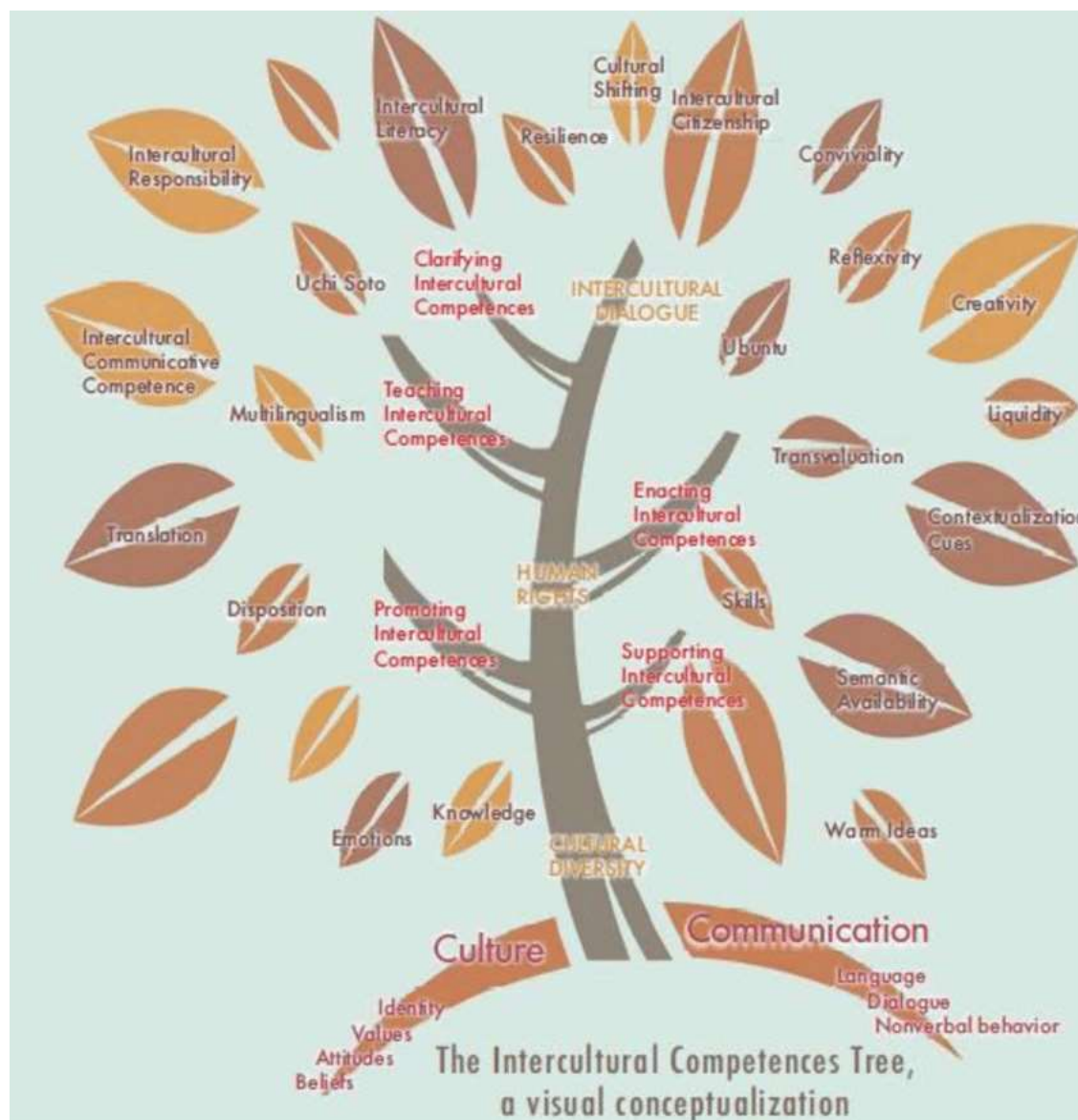
Why should IC and multilingualism be addressed in the same context? Because in any intercultural exchange, the linguistic abilities alone are not enough to guarantee a successful communication and “in the end, the requisite attitudes of openness, curiosity and respect remain foundational to all else.” (Deardorff, 2012, p.12). If multilingualism is defined as a “competence in more than one language” (Clyne, 2017, p.301), said competence entails intercultural competence as well as linguistic competence. In 2013, UNESCO published a visual map (Figure 1), the Intercultural Competences Tree (UNESCO, 2013b), to depict the necessary elements of an intercultural relation.

The Intercultural Competence Tree shows that the foundation of any intercultural relation is given by

culture and communication. In other words, cultural knowledge and awareness (‘identity’, ‘values’, ‘beliefs’ as mentioned in figure 1), openness to dialogue and respect (‘attitudes’), and communication skills (‘dialogue’ and ‘nonverbal behavior’), all factors connected to IC’s knowledge, attitudes, and skills, are equally necessary as linguistic skills (‘language’). As a matter of fact, as shown in the top left corner of Figure 1, Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC) and Multilingualism are both elements of the Intercultural Competence Tree, according to which cultural awareness and language skills are both important elements of a successful intercultural exchange. Ultimately, this signifies that having become linguistically proficient in a foreign language might not make one multilingual if they do not understand the cultural side of the language.

Figure 1

UNESCO Intercultural Competences Tree



A Guide to Incorporating Intercultural Competence in the Foreign Language Classroom

The Deep culture

In order to successfully develop learners' IC, one must first reflect on the topics to discuss. In the 1970s, Hall, considered the precursor of IC, created the Iceberg Model of Culture (Figure 2), a visual depiction of the two different sides of culture, 'surface culture' and 'deep culture', each containing elements that can be included in/as classroom topics.

Just like an iceberg, Hall (1976) claimed that culture had much more beneath the surface. Culture which is visible is known as surface culture, while the aspects which are not visible are instead known as deep culture (Byram, 1997). In the classroom, most textbooks and curriculums introduce topics related to surface culture,

such as 'holidays and folklore', or 'food culture'. It may be fun for learners, yet fails to provide a complete view of culture, since they only touch the 'surface'. While often forgotten or unknown, deep culture however tackles aspects of culture that can help learners increase IC as they encourage discussion and reflection of cultural values and beliefs. For instance, discussion of 'beauty ideals' can lead to deeper reflection and exploration of cultural views on beauty as well as self-reflection on the reasons behind one's own beauty ideals. Whilst for many educators for whom the curriculum and textbooks are decided by the Ministry of Education or by the school, it might seem challenging, it is not impossible. Dunnett et al. (1986) indicated that "there are no perfect textbooks which completely and successfully integrate language instruction with cultural components" (p. 160), therefore a better approach is to use the Iceberg Model of Culture to integrate elements of the deep culture to topics in the materials available to develop learners' IC.

Figure 2

Edward T. Hall's Cultural Iceberg

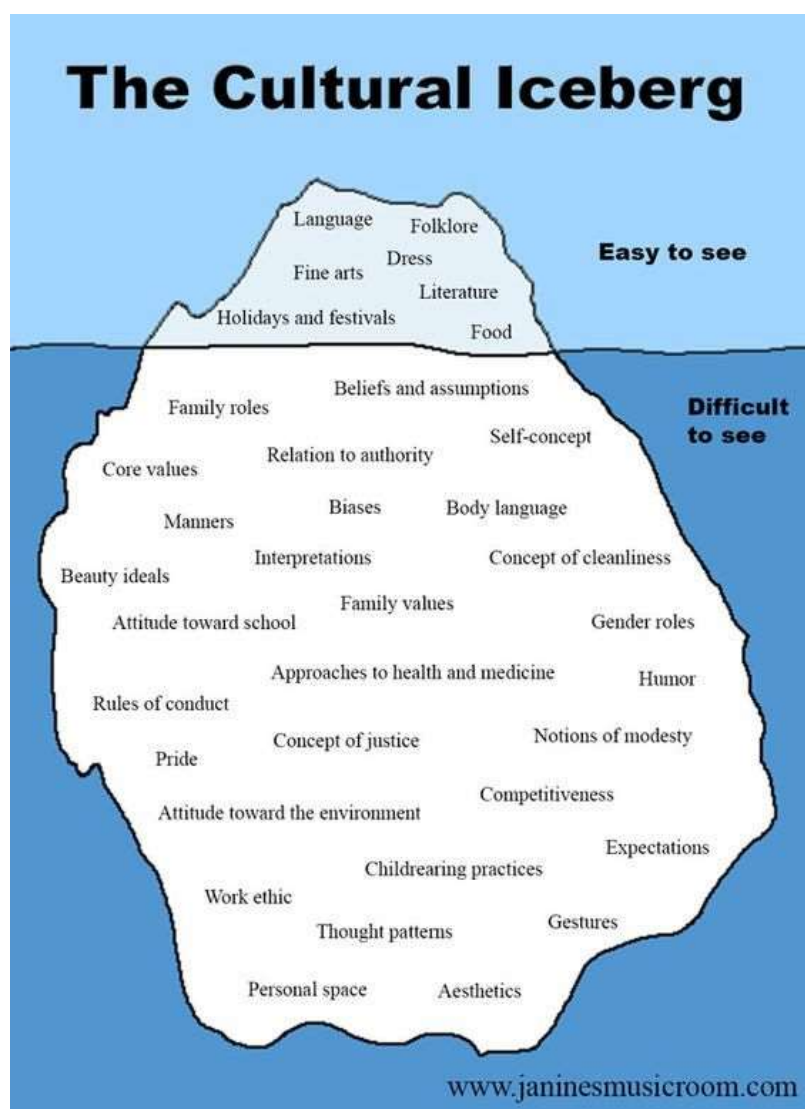


Figure 3

Real sample created and used by the author for integrating elements of deep culture in English communication class curriculum at university level

Week	Curriculum Topics	'Invisible Culture' Topics
2	Intro	Core values Comparison
3	Urban Legends	Cultural Perspective
4	Urban Legends	Cultural Perspective
5	Beauty and Gender	Beauty ideals and Gender roles
6	Beauty and Gender	Beauty and Gender stereotypes
7	Relationships	Social values and Family values
8	Relationships	Self-disclosure
9	Happiness	Self-concept
10	Happiness	Personal core values
11	Travel	High-context and Low-context
12	Travel	Body Language
13	Culture	Diversity
14	Culture	Identities and Expectations

Figure 3 above is an example of how deep culture elements (listed as 'Invisible Culture Topics') can be integrated in a predetermined English communication curriculum. The sample provided is a real example of how I integrated deep culture elements in the topics I was given during one semester in the academic year 2017-2018 for a university-level English conversation course.

Activities for developing Intercultural Competence

Over the years, numerous activities have been designed for developing IC. This paper will introduce three universally-recognized activities: D.I.E., Critical Incident Technique, and Cultural Role-Plays. Depending on the classroom context, learners' language ability, and time available, different activities might suit different teaching contexts.

D.I.E.

The D.I.E. activity, which stands for 'describe', 'interpret', and 'evaluate', is a popular tool for promoting intercultural learning developed by Bennett and Bennett in 1975. While recent years has seen the appearance of other versions such as the D.A.E. (Describe, Analyze, Evaluate) and the E.A.D. (Evaluate, Analyze, Describe) (Nam & Condon, 2010; Velasco, 2015), the differences are mainly in the terminology or in the order of the three

phases. The aim of the activity is to aid learners to suspend judgement (IC skills) and increase both self-awareness (IC knowledge) and cultural sensitivity and respect (IC attitudes). During the activity (Appendix A), students are given a picture to describe as objectively as possible, then interpret what they see through their own cultural perceptions, and finally evaluate based on their cultural values (Bennett, Bennett, & Stillings, 1977). The activity is preferably conducted in smaller groups in order to maximize student voice as a pedagogical tool, and should be followed by a classroom discussion where follow-up questions can dive deeper into the cultural perspectives that arose. Through the discovery of different cultural behaviors and perspectives represented in the pictures, students would begin to question their own cultural values.

Critical Incidents

The second activity to be introduced is the Critical Incident Technique (CIT). Originally used in psychology, it was later adopted by the IC field (Urquhart et al., 2003). Hughes (1986), who called it *cultural assimilator*, defined it as "a brief description of a critical incident of cross-cultural interaction that would probably be misunderstood by the students" (p.167). However, this definition generalizes that all students share all or at least most of their cultures, which is highly unlikely even

if they had the same nationality. An alternative definition is that the CIT is “a narrative activity which begins with realistic scenarios of intercultural exchange, triggers pertinent stories from the audience, and ends with learners’ newly-gained understanding of themselves as well as of the stories it began with” (Zoni Upton, 2021, p.306). The aim of the activity is to develop critical thinking skills (IC skills), cultural awareness as well as self-awareness (IC knowledge) from sharing narratives. The activity can be conducted either in written form or as an illustration, depending on the classroom context. Figures 4 and 5 provide two examples, one for each of the two possible formats (Zoni Upton, 2021).

In small groups, students are encouraged to discuss and offer some interpretations, explanations, and finally solutions to the incidents they are presented with.

Incidents usually address situations that require discussion of deep culture elements. For instance, the incident about bilingual families (Figure 3) can prompt discussion on ‘family values’ and ‘expectations’ (e.g. ‘would you raise your children to be bilingual?’, ‘would you start a family with someone whose native language is different from yours?’, ‘Would you use your native language at home if you and your family moved abroad?’). Through the use of these narratives, learners can “mediate making sense of the self and life events” (Noels et al., 2012, p.55). However, it is important to note that there is more than one narrative at work in the CIT. Verily, students’ stories resulting from discussion are a leading factor in the success of the activity.

Figure 4

Written Critical Incident

Kat is visiting her friend Sunny at her house to study together.

Sunny: *엄마 (omma= mum)! I'm back.*

Sunny's mum: *Hi girls. How was school?*

Kat: *It was fine, thank you, Mrs. Lee.*

Sunny: *Om妈, do we have any 밥 (bab= food)? I'm starving.*

Sunny's mum: *있어 (isso= there is)! Check in the 냉장고 (nenjango= refridgerator).*

Sunny: *Thank you very 감사 (kamsa=thanks)!!*

Kat: *This is so interesting! Do you always talk like this at home?*

Sunny: *What do you mean?*

- What is happening in this situation?
- Have you ever seen or experienced a situation like this?
- What do you think about raising bilingual children?

Figure 5

Illustrated Critical Incident

Incident 1



Cultural role play

The final activity is that of cultural role-plays, which are used worldwide by intercultural educators and trainers. A role-play is defined as “an experiential training approach, thus it gives participants the chance to experiment with or to experience a situation from a different viewpoint in assuming the manners, behaviors and opinions of another person.” (Zottman, 2017, p.14). While there are various types of cultural role-plays, this paper will focus on the cocktail party role-play, and the non-verbal behavior role-play.

The cocktail party role-play (Appendix B) aims not only to develop learners’ linguistic skills as they interact in their L2, but also to provide an opportunity to experience firsthand cultural differences, building up IC knowledge for a realistic intercultural exchange. Students are given a card with a new cultural identity which they must familiarize themselves with, and then are asked to interact with each other under the pretense that the interactions are taking place at an event or ‘cocktail

party’. After the activity, the class comes together for a follow-up discussion on the experience. This activity is most appropriate for a group of students who has limited experience in intercultural communication (Huber-Kriegler, Lázár & Strange, 2003). Through the role-play act and the follow-up discussion, learners should begin to understand the IC implications of culture-specific knowledge and cultural awareness when communicating in a foreign language.

Non-verbal role plays deal with non-verbal communication which is described as “conveying of emotions, feelings, and messages through actions and expressions rather than words.” (Hans & Hans, 2015, p.47). Mainly, there are eight nonverbal categories, known as *kinesics* (facial and body movements), *paralinguistics* (voice), *proxemics* (spatial distance), *haptics* (body contact), *olfactics* (smells), *artifacts and appearance*, *color*, and *chronemics* (how the time for communication is used) (Gamble & Gamble, 2014, pp.158-175). Non-verbal behavior role-plays are commonly used in different areas for a variety of

reasons, from training participants to recognize and improve communication (Ackerman, 2020), to exposing the impact that non-verbal communication can have on our impressions of others (Fleming, 2019). In the case of IC, the activity has two main scopes: 1) have participants notice cultural differences in nonverbal behavior and how to respect them, and 2) experience first-hand how the ambiguity and cultural facets of it can impact IC. For instance, one could separate participants into two groups, A and B, based on their perceived identity as introvert or extrovert and ask what behaviors they associate with the two identities. After the initial discussion, they are given instructions on the nonverbal behaviors they should role-play (Figure 6).

The group who is originally introverted is given behaviors more typical of extroverts, and vice versa.

After the activity, there would be a group discussion to hear participant's opinions on how they felt about the effects of their behavior as well as how they perceived others' non-verbal behaviors. It is important to make time after role-plays for participants to compare experiences and make sense of their emotions. Role-plays are deemed one of the most effective ways of developing foreign language skills and practicing IC since they offer a first-hand experience in the form of a simulation in a safe environment (Di Pardo Léon-Henri & Jain, 2017). However, the teacher must consider the time needed for preparation, execution and discussion since most role-plays need to be prepared for in advance in order for students to have a meaningful experience.

Figure 6

Non-verbal behavior role-play instruction cards

Role A	<p>You are now an EXTROVERT. You must:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Speak in a loud voice ● Stand close to your partner ● Make physical contact ● Maintain eye contact ● Ask many questions
Role B	<p>You are now an INTROVERT. You must:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Speak in a very low voice ● Stand far from your partner ● Avoid physical contact ● Avoid eye contact ● Avoid asking questions

Conclusion

With the continuous advance of globalization, Japan finds itself in an underprivileged position as a still mostly monolingual society. Whilst the government is hoping to achieve internationalization, one must not forget that said internationalization requires more than just linguistic skills, but also global awareness, flexibility, perspective, and intercultural knowledge (Hanvey, 1982; Kirkwood, 2001). In fact, the reported low proficiency, linguistic confidence, and global awareness of most Japanese nationals could become a barrier that separates Japan from the rest of the multilingual world. One possible way to achieve multilingualism through education in Japan is the implementation of an IC approach to language teaching. This paper is of relevance to all educators who wish to try an approach

to EFL teaching which considers both linguistic and intercultural elements of learning a foreign language.

References

- Ackerman, C. E. (2020, October 16). 49 Communication Activities, Exercises, and Games. *Positive Psychology.com*. <https://positivepsychology.com/communication-games-and-activities/>
- Bennett, J. M., Bennett, M. J., & Stillings, K. (1977). *Description, interpretation, evaluation: Facilitators' guidelines*. Portland State University.

<http://www2.rdrop.com/users/www.intercultural.org/die.php>

Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Multilingual Matters.

Cabinet Office, Government of Japan. (2019, June). *White Paper on Children and Young People 2019: Summary*.
<https://www8.cao.go.jp/youth/english/whitepaper/2019/pdf/2019.pdf>.

Clyne, M. (2017). Multilingualism. In F. Coulmas (Ed.), *The Handbook of Sociolinguistics* (pp. 301-314). Blackwell Publishing Ltd. <https://doi:10.1002/9781405166256.ch18>

Crystal, D. (2006). *How Language Works*. The Overlook Press.

Deardorff, D. K. (2006). Assessing intercultural competence in study abroad students. In M. Byram, & A. Feng (Eds.), *Living and studying abroad. Research and practice* (pp. 232-256). Multilingual Matters.

Deardorff, D. K. (2012) Intercultural Competence in the 21st century: Perspectives, Issues, Application. In B. Breninger, & T. Kaltenbacher (Eds.), *Creating Cultural Synergies: Multidisciplinary Perspectives on Interculturality and Interreligiosity* (pp. 7-23). Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Deardorff, D. (2016). How to assess intercultural competence. In Z. Hua (Ed.), *Research methods in intercultural communication: A practical guide* (pp. 103-117). John Wiley & Sons Inc.

Di Pardo Léon-Henri, D., & Jain, B. (2017). Role Play: A Practical Way to Teach Intercultural Communication. *Jeux et langues dans*

l'enseignement supérieur, 36(2), 9-34.
<https://doi.org/10.4000/apliut.5746>

Dunnett, S. C., Dubin, C., & Lezberg, A. (1986). English language teaching from an intercultural perspective. In J. Valdes (Ed.), *Culture bound. Bridging the cultural gap in language teaching* (pp. 148-161). Cambridge University Press.

EF Education First. (2022). *English First English Proficiency Index: The world's largest ranking of countries and regions by English skills*.
<https://www.ef.com/wwen/epi/>

Fleming, G. (2019, July 11). Nonverbal Communication Activities. *ThoughtCo*.
<https://www.thoughtco.com/nonverbal-communication-activities-1857230>

Franceschini, R. (2011). Multilingualism and Multicompetence: A Conceptual View. *The Modern Language Journal*, 95(3), 344-355.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2011.01202.x>

Gamble, T. K., & Gamble, M. W. (2014) *Interpersonal Communication: Building connections together*. SAGE Publication

Garibay, C. (2021, November 5). Education Rankings By Country in 2021. *ValiantCEO*.
<https://valiantceo.com/education-rankings-by-country-in-2021/>

Hall, E. T. (1976). *Beyond Culture*. Anchor Books.

Hans, A., & Hans, E. (2015). Kinesics, Haptics and Proxemics: Aspects of Non -Verbal Communication. *IOSR Journal of Humanities And Social Science*, 20(2), 47-52.
<https://www.iosrjournals.org/iosr-jhss/papers/Vol20-issue2/Version-4/H020244752.pdf>

- Hanvey, R. G. (1982). An Attainable Global Perspective. *Theory into Practice*, 21(3), 162-167.
- Harding-Esch, E. & Riley, P. (2003). *The Bilingual Family. A handbook for parents* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press
- Haukås, Å. (2015). Teachers' beliefs about multilingualism and a multilingual pedagogical approach. *International Journal of Multilingualism*, 13(1), 1-18.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14790718.2015.1041960>
- Hughes, G. H. (1986). An argument for culture analysis in the second language classroom. In J. Valdes (Ed.), *Culture bound. Bridging the cultural gap in language teaching* (pp. 162-169). Cambridge University Press.
- Huber-Kriegler, M., Lázár, I. & Strange, J. (2003). *Mirrors and windows: An intercultural communication textbook*. Council of Europe.
- Kamiya, A. (2019, June 24). *Nihonjin ha uchimuki shikou? Nihon ni ryugakukiboushya ga sukunai mitsu no ryuu wo seitsume!* [Are Japanese people inward-looking? Let's explain three reasons why there are few applicants for study abroad in Japan!]. *Ryugaku dotto com*.
<https://www.ausbiznet.com/column/15363>.
- King, L. (2018). *The Impact of Multilingualism on Global Education and Language Learning*. Cambridge Assessment English.
- Kirkwood, T. F. (2001). Our global age requires global education: Clarifying definitional ambiguities. *The Social Studies*, 92(1), 10–15.
- Lai, S. (2017, September 14). Bilingualism in Japan: Why Most Locals Don't Speak English (Part 1). *Mitsue-Links*.
- https://www.mitsue.co.jp/english/global_ux/blog/201709/14_1700.html
- Lockley, T., Hirschel, R., & Slobodniuk, A. (2012). Assessing the Action Plan: Reform in Japanese High School EFL. *Electronic Journal for Foreign Language Teaching*, 9(2), 152-169.
- Morita, L. (2014). Factors contributing to low levels of intercultural interaction between Japanese and international students in Japan. *Journal of Intercultural Communication*, 36.
<http://immi.se/intercultural/nr36/liang.html>
- Nakayama, A. (2020). Three Educational Approaches Responding to Globalization in Japan. In A. Akkari, & K. Maleq (Eds.), *Global Citizenship Education* (pp. 45-55). Springer
- Nam, K. A., & Condon, J. (2010). The DIE is cast: The continuing evolution of intercultural communication's favorite classroom exercise. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 34(1), 81-87.
- Ng, C. L. P. (2016). Primary school English reform in Japan: policies, progress and challenges. *Current Issues in Language Planning*, 17(2), 215–225.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/14664208.2016.1147118>
- Noels, K., Yashima, T., & Zhang, R. (2012). Language, identity and intercultural communication. In J. Jackson (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of language and intercultural communication* (pp. 52- 66). Routledge.
- Sanno University. (2017, October). The 7th Global Awareness Survey of New Employees.
<https://www.sanno.ac.jp/admin/research/fm3fav000000hbx-att/global2017.pdf>
- Sawa, T. (2020, January 21). Japan going the wrong way in English-education reform. *The Japan*

- Times*.
<https://www.japantimes.co.jp/opinion/2020/01/21/commentary/japan-commentary/japan-going-wrong-way-english-education-reform/>.
- Shoji, H. (2008). Is Japan a Multilingual Society?.
Senri Ethnological Reports, 77, 103-111.
- Singapore Department of Statistics. (2020). *Census of Population 2020*. <https://www.singstat.gov.sg/-/media/files/publications/cop2020/sr1/infographics.pdf>.
- Statista. (2020). *Number of registered foreign residents living in Japan from 2010 to 2019 (in millions)*.
<https://www.statista.com/statistics/687809/japan-foreign-residents-total-number/>
- Statistics Korea. (2020). *2019 Population and Housing Census*.
http://kostat.go.kr/assist/synap/preview/skin/doc.html?fn=synapview386088_2&rs=/assist/synap/preview
- Su, X. (2021, June 25). Japan's Youth Lack Interest in Studying Abroad. That's a Problem for Japanese Businesses. *TheDiplomat.com*.
<https://thediplomat.com/2021/06/japans-youth-lack-interest-in-studying-abroad-thats-a-problem-for-japanese-businesses/>
- Tada, M. (2016). Recent Reform to the English Education System in Japan. *21st Century Education Forum*, 11, 21-29.
- Takubo, Y. (2018). *How Many Languages are There in Japan?* [PDF].
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/332696529_How_many_languages_are_there_in_Japan
- Urquhart, C., Light, A., Thomas, R., Barker, A., Yeoman, A. Cooper, J., Armstrong, C., Fenton, R., Lonsdale, R. and Spink, S. (2003). Critical incident technique and explicitation interviewing in studies of information behavior. *Library and Information Science Research*, 25(1), 63-88.
- UNESCO. (2013b). *Intercultural Competencies: Conceptual and operational framework*. UNESCO.
- Valdés, G. (n.d.). *Multilingualism*. Linguistic Society of America.
<https://www.linguisticsociety.org/resource/multilingualism>
- Velasco, D. (2015). Evaluate, analyze, describe (EAD): Confronting underlying issues of racism and other prejudices for effective intercultural communication. *IAFOR Journal of Education*, 3(2), 82-93.
- Wang, H. L. (2018). Definitions of Bilingualism and their Applications to Japanese Society. *Morioka University Bulletin*, 35, 13-26.
- World Population Review. (2022). *Education Rankings by Country 2022*.
<https://worldpopulationreview.com/country-rankings/education-rankings-by-country>
- Zoni Upton, J. (2021). Integrating Critical Incidents in the Language Classroom. *Bulletin of Nagoya University of Foreign Studies*, 8, 303-312.
https://www.researchgate.net/publication/347909704_Integrating_Critical_Incidents_in_the_Language_Classroom
- Zottman, I. (2017). *The Technique of Role Play in Intercultural Trainings*. GRIN Verlag.

Appendix A

D.I.E. Classroom Activity (Teacher's Guide)

In small groups, ask students to look at the picture below, describe, interpret, and evaluate it. (*What do you see in the picture? What do you think it is? How do you feel about it?*)



Image Source: <https://www.plan-norge.no/stoppbryllupet>

After students have shared their groups' interpretations and impressions with the class, proceed to give students follow-up questions to discuss in their groups:

1. In your opinion, how important is age in a romantic relationship?
2. What are some pros and cons of being in a relationship with someone much older or much younger?
3. In your opinion, what is a good age to get married? Explain.
4. What do you know about child marriage? What do you think about it?
5. In your opinion, why do some cultures practice child marriage?
6. Is arranged marriage common in your culture? Explain.
7. How would you react if you had to marry someone you didn't choose?

After students have discussed the questions above in their small groups, have a class discussion.

Appendix B

Cocktail Party Role-play (Teacher's Guide)

Step 1: Divide students into four groups and give each one of four role-play cards.

Step 2: Explain the role-play: They are now people from different countries, meeting at an international cocktail party. They must find a partner from a different group and have a casual conversation using the topics in the cards. After 5 minutes, they will change partners and repeat. After X number of conversations, the role-play will be over. Rules: 1) Conversation partners should never be from the same group. 2) The role-play cards should not be shown to others.

Step 3: Give time for groups to understand the roles on their cards and prepare.

Step 4: Prepare drinks and snacks (optional) and start the role-play.

Step 5: Once the role-play is over, give follow-up questions to discuss in groups, then share in a class discussion.

Role A: Redland People

When you meet someone, bow to them.
While you talk, keep a social distance.
Agree with the other person often.
Never start the conversation.
Conversation Topics: Work, Life goals

Role B: Blueland People

When you meet someone, shake hands.
Always start the conversation.
Stand close to the other person and use many gestures.
Conversation Topics: Romance, Money.

Role C: Purpleland People

When you meet someone, say "May peace be with you".
If you are talking to someone of the same gender, hold hands. If they are of the opposite gender, avoid body touch.
Conversation Topics: Religion, Politics

Role D: Orangeland People

When you meet someone, say "Hello".
While you talk, shake your head sideways and smile.
Speak fast with a loud voice.
Conversation topics: Family, Culture

(The non-verbal behaviors and topics for each role are not representative of any specific culture, but rather a mix of real cultural traits which might or might not be unfamiliar to participants)

Follow- Up Discussion Questions:

- How did you feel playing that role?
- How did you feel about the people you spoke to?
- Have you ever experienced a situation like this in real life? If so, how did you behave?
- What were some good points and bad points of this activity?
- What would you do differently next time?

Things I Wish I Had Known about Culture When I Started Teaching

Stephen M. Ryan
Sanyo Gakuen University

Having more than one set of expectations about teaching and learning in play in the same classroom is a salient feature of EFL teaching, especially for those of us working outside the environment in which we ourselves were taught. In this largely autobiographical account, the author outlines the evolution of his understanding of and approach to this issue. Beginning with an attitude that “a student is a student and a classroom a classroom,” he charts his growing awareness that culture plays a role in expectations about what will happen in and around the classroom, his pursuit of ever deeper insights into his students’ culture, and his subsequent realization that thinking of his students as products of their own culture had become the single greatest impediment to learning and teaching in his classroom.

同じ教室での授業と学習について複数の期待を抱くことは、特に私たち自身が教えられた環境の外で働く私たちにとって、EFL教育の顕著な特徴です。この主に自伝的な説明では、著者はこの問題に対する彼の理解とアプローチの進化について概説します。「生徒は生徒であり、教室は教室である」という姿勢から始めて、彼は文化が教室内およびその周辺で何が起こるかについての期待に影響を与えるという彼の認識の高まりを示し、生徒に対するより深い洞察を追求しています。文化、そして彼の生徒を彼ら自身の文化の産物として考えることが彼の教室での学習と教育に対する唯一の最大の障害となったという彼のその後の認識。

In this autobiographical account, I sketch the evolution of my thinking about the role of culture in foreign language pedagogy. By this, I do not mean what or how to teach about culture, but rather to what extent and how a teacher should take into account the culture of the students in the foreign language class when deciding how best to help them to learn. This issue is particularly salient for teachers who, like myself, teach in a cultural context which is substantially different from the one in which they grew up. The issue is, however, of relevance to all teachers as we are all different in some ways from the students we teach. These differences may be socio-economic, generational, gender-related, age-related, or just the fact that we did well in school and some of our students do not. Whatever their origin, these differences most often manifest themselves in different assumptions about what should and can happen in and around a foreign language classroom: what seems normal and acceptable to some will be outrageously unacceptable to others.

The account is a personal one but the lessons from it will, I hope, be of relevance to all.

Fresh off the Boat

I arrived in Japan to take up a teaching position on September 1, 1984, looking for a cultural experience. I expected life here to be very different from the

European contexts in which I had grown up. I expected differences in the physical environment, in people’s social attitudes, in the ways people chose to spend their time, and in the way people communicated with each other. I was ready for a big adventure.

I did not expect there to be marked differences in the process of teaching and learning that was at the heart of my new job. After all, good teaching is good teaching and the mechanisms of learning are, surely, shared by all neurotypical humans, regardless of nationality or local environment.

Indeed, this was the precept on which my generic training as a teacher of English as a Foreign Language was based. The training was not targeted to any particular context, since there is, I had been taught, a way to teach foreign languages, based on theory, experience, and research, that will work, with minor adaptations, in all contexts. Materials designed for use with this approach to teaching were distributed worldwide by international publishing companies, further reinforcing the idea that, although it would be naïve to believe that “one size fits all,” with a few minor adjustments (no pet dogs in textbooks for Saudi Arabia, they told me) the materials could certainly be made to fit the context.

And when it came to being a student, I knew how to do that. I had been very good at it. In fact, that is how I got the teaching job—by being a good student. Paying

attention in class, volunteering to answer the teacher's questions, studying diligently out of class, thinking independently, developing my own ideas and supporting arguments. These were the elements that not only ensured academic success but also the esteem of teachers and classmates. I knew how the game was

The Rubber Meets the Road

Utter shock. That was my reaction when I first set foot in a Japanese classroom. It was so unlike the classrooms I had previously experienced as a student (in the US and the UK) or as a teacher (in France and the UK). Things outside the school had been different enough but this was a whole new level of difference.

The students sat in serried ranks (this was high school). They were silent. They did not interact with each other. They never volunteered. They barely responded when I called on them by name. They were uniform: not just the clothes they wore, but their hair styles, hair colour, way of sitting. They seemed hesitant and meek.

In fact, the differences I have listed above were among the easiest to get used to. After a few weeks, they came to seem almost normal to me. There were, though, other things going on that I barely sensed at first: assumptions about education, about language learning, about the roles of students and teachers, and the relations between students. In answer to questions about my family, I told them I had a brother who was so intelligent that he did not really need to study at all; and I saw that this did not compute. I watched a few lessons taught by Japanese colleagues and was amazed that they were virtually unrecognizable as lessons; they seemed to focus almost exclusively on the transmission of knowledge rather than its discovery, examination, or application.

"What is wrong here?" I wanted to ask, but I was too well-brought up to articulate it in those terms. "What is different about these people" I re-phrased. Put that way, the answer was clear: they were Japanese and I was not. They were products of social and educational forces in Japan that were very different from the ones with which I had grown up.

Diving for Cover

As the product of a Western education system, I knew what to do now: read. Read as much as I could about what it meant to be Japanese. Immerse myself in books about the culture, especially the educational culture, of Japan in order to better understand my students.

I started with a classic: Ruth Benedict's *Chrysanthemum and the Sword* (1946). One of the most respected anthropologists ever laid out for me the foundations of Japanese society. I was a little disconcerted to find she had never been to Japan, but

as I read I started to organize my experiences in the classroom around some of the concepts she expounded.

A little closer to my actual context was Rohlen's *Japan's High Schools* (1983). Based on anthropological research in five very different high schools around Japan, Rohlen's study provided me with some factual information and a wealth of observations that fleshed out some of the things I was beginning to understand about Japanese education. There were other works, too, about junior high schools (Singleton, 1982) and kindergartens (Tobin, Wu, & Davidson, 1989) that helped.

For a broader perspective, I turned to Hofstede's seminal (1984) *Culture's Consequences*. Hofstede explained it all for me, in numbers and graphs. I could see differences in cultural patterns from 53 countries and regions. I could locate Japan and other countries on dimensions called "Uncertainty Avoidance," or "Power Distance." I was right: Japan was very different from other places I had known, in ways I had not even begun to imagine, and Hofstede made them visible to me thanks to the wonders of big data.

Back to the Classroom

These attempts to understand my students as products of Japanese culture were rather comforting. Others had puzzled over these issues and drawn conclusions they could support with observations and statistics. I felt validated.

I did not, though, find the things I was reading particularly useful. It was interesting to know that *arigato*—the word my students used for "thank you" actually meant "oh this heavy burden you are placing on me" (Benedict, 1946), or that Japanese people far outranked most European people in terms of Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1984) but neither of these pieces of information were particularly useful when I was faced with a student who could not decide what her favourite colour was when asked in a language lesson.

So, I decided to do some research of my own into the beliefs and expectations of my Japanese students. Using a methodology largely copied from Barnlund (1989), I asked my students (I was teaching at a university by this time) simple questions, such as "What is a good teacher?" or "What is good student behaviour?" and compared their answers with those to a similar question a colleague asked her students in Australia. The results (Ryan et al., 1996; Ryan & Durham, 1993,1997) were interesting and a little more enlightening than my reading so far, but we did hit a number of methodological problems.

Our main problem concerned whom to include in our sample of students in each country. Since country was our unit of analysis (as a proxy for culture), we wanted

to be sure that the students whose responses we included were indeed of the country in which the data was collected. So, we first eliminated responses from international students; then, those who had studied abroad for a significant period of time (but how long was “significant?”); finally, we removed the responses of students who had been overseas for part of their lives (but how long would a “part of their lives” need to be in order to disqualify them?). In doing this, we were following the example of Barnlund (1989) and several other reputable scholars of the time, but the methodology, with its search for “national essences” did raise some disturbing questions: Just what would it take for somebody to be included in a representative sample of “Japanese (or Australian) students”? Was there even such a thing as a national essence?

Most troubling of all: the samples we ended up with did not reflect the backgrounds of any real class of students likely to be found in either Japan or Australia. I was starting to doubt the usefulness not only of own research but also that of the scholars whose works on “Japanese culture” or indeed any culture that I had so eagerly devoured.

Reality Strikes

These were not the only issues that worried me in my search to understand my Japanese students better. By this point, I was fairly well read in the relevant published literature and had gathered a fair amount of questionnaire data. I was learning to adapt my teaching style to what Japanese students seemed to need. Yet, the results were decidedly mixed. One, memorable, class presented me with a bouquet of best-teacher-ever flowers. Another was so incensed by my way of teaching that a male student punched me in the face.

A significant, if rather personal, conversation happened around that time. A person I was rather close to, in the midst of a heated exchange of views, said, “I wish I knew how much of this was you, and how much other people from your country think like you, too.” I suddenly realized it did not matter. It did not matter whether or not my thought processes, attitudes, and expectations were shared with others from my country or were my own idiosyncratic ways. It did not matter because the person she was arguing with was me—a unique amalgam of many influences, both cultural and personal.

Was not that, though, just what each of my students was—a unique amalgam? There was Ms. A, who narrowly failed to get into a better university than ours and was still resentful, especially when she noticed that her English was better than most of her classmates. Rather highly strung to start with, she needed to be treated carefully in order not to insult her high opinion of herself. There was Mr. B, shy and thoughtful. He never

shone in Conversation class, as he was reluctant to speak in front of classmates, but when I had him in Writing class, I realized that his still waters ran very deep indeed: he was absorbing ideas from all around, reading deeply and broadly, pondering on life and its meanings, and enjoying his own thought processes. There was Ms. C, with a very low tolerance of ambiguity, and a sweet nature that she never really shared with any of her classmates. She would do anything I asked of her in class, as long as I was totally explicit about what she was to do. She had no conception of irony and no friends, because she found the social world confusing, preferring to focus on the more straightforward teacher-student relationship. And there was Ms. D, from an affluent background, ready to sign up for any Study Abroad programme we offered; outgoing and vivacious, except when she was not, which was about one day in three. All of them, A through D, were Japanese students.

Conclusions

In this way, I came to realise that trying to understand my students’ “culture” had actually been stopping me from understanding my students. They were all unique individuals, and no amount of nuanced understanding of cultural patterns would be an adequate substitute for getting to know each of them as people. Viewing them as “Japanese” students had been a huge mistake; the cultural lens had stopped me from seeing what should have been obvious: we each have our own motivation, preferred ways of studying, and individual interests. Knowing my students better, rather than learning about their “culture,” was the key to finding more effective ways of teaching them.

Why am I sharing these reflections? Well, clearly there is an element of “advice to the young” about them. If reading this piece will help other teachers to remove their “cultural” lenses and see their students as unique individuals, I will be content.

There is, however, more to it than that. I see my own students making the same mistake I did. Quite often, I accompany them on study trips to other countries, where they are dazzled by differences in material possessions, behaviour, and ways of thinking. Each of these encounters with different lifestyles has the potential to spark the kind of deep reflection that leads to a greater understanding of the world and its diversity. Time and again, though, I hear the students dismiss the opportunity to learn from their experiences of difference with the simple but powerful words: “It’s cultural.” They seem to think these words explain everything, when in fact they explain nothing.

I was not wrong as a young man to think that the world was full of adventures for me to learn from. I was wrong,

however, to think of unique individual experiences as “cultural” and move on. In doing so, I deprived myself of opportunities to learn and to grow, both as a teacher and as a person.

Calling something “cultural” is too often considered to be the end of an analysis, when really it should be the beginning. All too often it is an impediment to further exploration.

So, the next time you find yourself, or one of your students, thinking of an experience as “cultural,” do not let that distract you (or them) from the precious chance to explore and learn about the individuals in the interaction.

References

- Barnlund, D. C. (1989). Public and private self in Japan and the United States: Communicative styles of two cultures. Simul Press.
- Benedict, R. (1946). The chrysanthemum and the sword: Patterns of Japanese culture. Houghton-Mifflin.
- Hofstede, G. (1984). Culture’s consequences: Intercultural differences in work-related values. Sage Publications.
- Ryan, S. M., Durham, M., & Leonard, R. (1996). Behaviour in universities: A cross-cultural study of students’ expectations. *Speech Communication Education*, (9), 99-128.
- Ryan, S. M., & Durham, M. (1993). What kind of teacher do students want? A cross-cultural comparison. *Speech Communication Education*, (5), 70-99.
- Ryan, S. M., & Durham, M. (1997). What is a good student? A cross-cultural comparison. *Memoirs of the Osaka Institute of Technology, Series B*, 42(1), 1-30.
- Singleton, J. C. (1982). *Nichu, a Japanese school*. Irvington Publishers.
- Tobin, J. J., Wu, D. Y. H., & Davidson, D. H. (1989) *Preschool in three cultures: Japan, China, and the United States*. Yale University Press

Understanding JTE Attitudes to Lifelong Learning

Yuko Matsubara
Kumamoto University

Lifelong learning is a field that has been attracting attention in Japan's aging society. However, few studies have treated teachers themselves as lifelong learners. Considering that the national curricula are constantly being revised and teachers must inevitably adapt and grow, teachers' attitude toward lifelong learning should be better understood. This paper presents the results of semi-structured interviews conducted with Japanese teachers of English and teachers of other subjects about their attitudes toward lifelong learning. For these interviews, the Jefferson Scale of Physician Lifelong Learning (Hojat et al., 2010) was adapted to the educational domain and translated into Japanese. The interview focused on qualitatively exploring participants' responses to these items. The results showed that the path to becoming a teacher was different for English teachers than for teachers of other subjects, and that this was potentially explanatory for some of their attitudes to lifelong learning.

生涯学習は、高齢化社会を迎えた日本で注目されている分野である。しかし、教師自身を生涯学習者として扱った研究はほとんどない。学習指導要領が常に改訂され、教師も必然的に適応・成長しなければならないことを考えると、教師の生涯学習に対する姿勢はもっと理解されてもよいのではないだろうか。本稿では、日本人の英語教師と他教科の教師を対象に、生涯学習に対する態度について半構造化インタビューを行った結果を紹介する。このインタビューでは、**the Jefferson Scale of Physician Lifelong Learning (Hojat et al., 2010)**を教育領域に合わせて日本語に翻訳した。インタビューでは、これらの項目に対する参加者の回答を質的に探ることに重点を置いた。その結果、英語教師の場合、教師になるまでの道のりが他教科の教師とは異なっており、そのことが生涯学習に対する姿勢の一部を説明できる可能性があることがわかった。

Because the national curriculum is revised approximately every ten years, teachers have to change their teaching methods and acquire new knowledge and skills to accommodate these changes. Some legislation even refers to teachers continually striving for and cultivating self-development in order to carry out their responsibilities, and even refers to the spirit of learning is as a requirement for teachers (Special Act for Education Personnel, 1949; Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2006). In particular, with the dramatic changes currently taking place in English education, there are high expectations for English teachers. The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology requires all English teachers to have a score equivalent to or higher than the CEFR B2 level. However, in 2019, the percentage of teachers with that score was only 36.2% in junior high schools and 68.2% in high schools although training had been implemented for all English teachers from 2014 through 2018 (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2006, 2019). This would suggest that English teachers face additional pressure when compared to other subject teachers.

Motivation of English Teachers

Against this institutional and policy background, research on the motivation of English teachers has received much attention in recent years. Yukimori (2015) identified six factors relating to teachers' motivation for pursuing English teaching: normative orientation, cultural interest, communicative interest and successful experiences, linguistic interest, pragmatic orientation, and knowledge orientation. Han and Yin (2016) observed that early research on teacher motivation was mostly related to why teachers chose the teaching profession (i.e. the path to becoming a teacher), and more recently, it has also started to focus on in-service teachers' desire to stay in the profession (i.e. persistence). Praver and Oga-Baldwin (2008) had earlier argued that at the center of the language teaching profession is the wish of the teacher to transfer linguistic as well as cultural knowledge with the aim of assisting learners to communicate and that the teacher is drawn to teaching for the intrinsic pleasure of watching this process unfold successfully. However, they also went on to argue that external factors such as job security, stress, workload, and disagreements about teaching methods were found to undermine teacher motivation. This is important, because as Suemori (2019) has more recently elaborated in interviews and

classroom observations with two JTEs, teacher motivation not only affects learners' motivation, but is also important in terms of the teaching style and professional growth of teachers. Earlier than Suemori, Kurazumi and Saito (2013) had reflected on their experiences as junior high school teachers and described how national policies and curriculum guidelines on English education influenced their ideas about teaching and work, and the later findings of Suemori (2019) tend to corroborate this.

Purpose of Study

Looking at how Japanese teachers of English (JTEs) handle pressure and how they deal with changes such as those associated with the new national curriculum is important. In the context of how JTEs approach this change and pressure, lifelong learning and attitudes toward lifelong learning are important backgrounds for teacher development as are their motives for becoming a teacher and persisting at being a teacher. As the results of tests of English proficiency levels show, existing training is insufficient, and leaves JTEs to accomplish what is expected of them through their own individual learning. In other words, it is necessary for them to motivate themselves to engage in their own lifelong education, and there is a nexus of theoretical association between motivation, professional pressure and attitudes to lifelong learning at the center of how English teachers experience institutional change. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to qualitatively explore differences between JTEs and teachers of other subjects (TOSs) regarding their attitudes toward lifelong learning, and within the context of motivation for being a teacher. The path to becoming a teacher in the first place was also considered to be potentially important for explaining attitudes to lifelong learning. The study was conducted on a qualitative and exploratory basis in order to be indicative of future lines of research.

Methods

In this study, an adaptation of the Jefferson Scale of Physician Lifelong Learning (Hojat et al., 2010) was used. Originally that instrument (Appendix A) was designed to measure physician's attitudes to life-long learning. I chose to adapt it to education for two reasons. First, it presented in the literature with good and well-documented psychometric properties obtained from a large group of participants (N = 3,195). Second, the items themselves were highly adaptable from the clinical domain to the educational domain, and were also easily translated for use with Japanese people as they were simple and straightforward. The instrument comprises three factors: learning beliefs and motivation, attention to learning opportunity, and technical skills in information seeking.

The new version, involving alterations to professional reference, is designated in this study as the Jefferson Scale of Lifelong Learning for Educators (Japanese version; Appendix B) or JSLL-E-J. The domain adaptation involved alterations to professional reference and other changes to make the instrument appropriate for the educational context. The translation followed accepted protocols of forward and backward translation.

Although the instrument was prepared for future quantitative studies, the study reported in this paper used extreme responses (Strongly Agree or Strongly Disagree) on items in the instrument as the starting point for qualitative interviews. While quantitative research allows us to generalize by focusing on central tendency, qualitative research explores the reasons for certain processes. In qualitative research, extreme scores are potentially informative starting points for interview discussions because they are more likely to reflect issues about which respondents have strong convictions, and are therefore more likely to reveal motives for human action and agency, provided of course the interviewer can move the interviewee to providing rich explanation of the strong feelings which prompted the extreme score.

There were eight participants in the study, who were all teaching in junior high schools in Fukuoka City. Four were TOSs (who were called TOS A, TOS B, TOS C, and TOS D) including one female and three males, between 30 and 50 years of age, and having between 9 and 31 years of teaching experience. Four were JTEs (who were called JTE E, JTE F, JTE G, and JTE H) including two females and two males, between 30 and 50 years of age, and having between 15 and 33 years of teaching experience.

Interviews of 35-50 minutes were conducted over a two-week period in late January of 2021. Fourteen questions were initially addressed in the interview including about age, teaching experience, routes to becoming a teacher, lifelong learning attitude, and about the reason for responding with extreme scores for particular items on the instrument which had been completed prior to the interview. Especially, the question about the route to becoming a teacher was engaged with as it was seen as possibly distinguishing of the two groups and possible explanatory in understanding attitudes toward lifelong learning.

Results

Table 1 shows the frequencies of extreme responses for each item comprising the JSLL-E-J, presented by TOSs and JTEs. JTEs and TOSs produced three instances and two instances, respectively, of extreme responses on the "Strongly Disagree" end of the scale. On the other hand, JTEs and TOSs produced 15 and 17

instances, respectively, of extreme responses on the “Strongly Agree” end of the scale.

The general approach taken in advance was to look for plausible disparities between the two groups. For the “Strongly Disagree” category, two JTEs E and H responded that they did not read professional magazines at all while no TOSs responded this way, and in fact one TOS responded strongly on the opposite end of the scale. This was a notable difference between the JTEs and the TOSs. For Item 10, only TOS B answered “Strongly Disagree.”

Table 1

Frequencies of Extreme Scores on the JSLLE-J

Factor	Items	Frequencies of Extreme Scores			
		JTEs	TOSs	JTEs	TOSs
		Low	Low	High	High
L	1. Searching for the answer to a question is, in and by itself rewarding.	0	0	2 _(EH)	2 _(BD)
L	2. Life-long learning is a professional responsibility of all teachers.	0	0	0	2 _(CD)
L	3. I enjoy reading articles in which issues of my professional interest are discussed.	0	0	1 _(H)	2 _(BC)
A	4. I routinely attend meetings of professional educational organizations.	0	0	1 _(H)	0
L	5. I read professional magazines at least once every week.	2 _(EH)	0	0	1 _(B)
T	6. I routinely search the Internet to find out about new developments in my specialty.	0	0	0	1 _(B)
L	7. I believe that I would fall behind if I stopped learning about new developments in my profession.	0	0	2 _(EF)	1 _(C)
L	8. One of the important goals of teacher training school at university is to develop students' life-long learning skills.	0	0	1 _(H)	1 _(A)
L	9. Rapid changes in the field of education require constant updating of knowledge and development of new professional skills.	0	0	3 _(EFH)	4 _(ABCD)
L	10. I always make time for self-directed learning, even when I have a busy teaching schedule and other professional and family obligations.	0	1 _(B)	1 _(H)	0
L	11. I recognize my need to constantly acquire new professional knowledge.	0	0	1 _(F)	2 _(CD)
A	12. I routinely attend continuing in-service training programs to improve student education.	1 _(G)	1 _(B)	1 _(H)	0
A	13. I take every opportunity to gain new knowledge/skills that are important to my profession.	0	0	0	1 _(C)
T	14. My preferred approach in finding an answer to a question is to search the appropriate websites on the Internet.	0	0	2 _(EH)	0
Total Numbers of Extreme Scores		3	2	15	17

Note. In the first column of Table 1, three factors are presented: L for Learning Beliefs and Motivation, A for Attention to Learning Opportunity, and T for Technical Skills in Information Seeking. The letters in subscript in each column identify the particular interviewee. A through D are TOSs, and E through H are JTEs. The original instrument in English and the Japanese translation of the above domain-adapted instrument are in the appendices for reference.

With regard to the extreme response of “Strongly Agree,” TOSs C and D responded to Item 2 in this way, while no JTEs did so, indicating a potential for difference across the two groups here. For Item 3 a potential difference was observed with more TOSs endorsing this item while for Item 4, only JTE H strongly endorsed this item. For Items 5 and 6, TOS B endorsed these items strongly. For Items 10 and 12, JTE H responded with strong endorsement, and for Item 13, TOS C did so. Furthermore, in Item 14, even though there were no extreme responses from TOSs, JTEs E and H responded with strong endorsement, indicating a difference between JTEs and TOSs on this issue.

Discussion

The discussion first considers interview data on the routes by which JETs and TOSs became teachers followed by a brief discussion of attitudes to lifelong learning. Finally, interviewee discussion of extreme scores is covered.

Routes to Becoming a Teacher

All of the TOSs reported that they had wanted to be a teacher since their school days. Some of them were influenced by teachers they had met: TOS A said, “I wanted to be a teacher like my basketball coach, so I became a physical education teacher” and TOS B said, “I have wanted to be a teacher since I was in elementary school.”

With respect to the JTEs, on the other hand, and other than for JTE H, they did not plan on becoming teachers from early school days. They chose to work as teachers after having experienced other jobs. They were more interested in English itself than in teaching it, at least initially. JTE F said, “I worked as an office clerk for three years after I graduated from college. I wanted to study in the United States.” While the disparity between JTEs and TOSs does not benefit from a sufficient sample to permit generalization, it is interesting nonetheless as a starting point for further inquiry, and as a basis for analysis of extreme responses covered below. At least intuitively, it also suggests that there may be something qualitatively different between the path to becoming a JTE and the

path to becoming a TOS, and this could be a direction for future research.

Attitudes Towards Lifelong Learning

Regarding lifelong learning, the interview data supported the position that both the TOSs and JTEs thought it was important to keep learning as a teacher. TOSs understood that society is changing and teachers need to adapt to these changes. JTEs also understood the need for lifelong learning. JTE H mentioned, “When I was a university student, I learned that research and growth were my duties, didn't I? I still remember that.” This response is in line with the general sentiments expressed in the data.

Professional Magazines (Strongly Disagree)

For Item 5, “I read professional magazines at least once every week,” two JTEs E and H answered “Strongly Disagree.” JTE E is a female in her 50s with 33 years of teaching experience, and JTE H is a male in his 30s with 15 years of teaching experience. Interview data corroborated these responses. JTE E said, “I haven't read any. I'm not interested in reading them right now. I'm not really interested in English education.” JTE H said, “I don't read any professional journals. I only read newspapers. ...I haven't been in the habit of regularly reading professional journals, like magazines. Even when I was a student, I never bought any.” JTE E teaches English, however she was recently reassigned to supporting students with learning problems, and seemed to have become defocused from teaching English. JTE H is a front-line teacher, but has not had the habit of acquiring expertise through print media since his school days.

Making Time for Self-Directed Learning (Strongly Disagree)

Regarding Item 10, “I always make time for self-directed learning, even when I have a busy teaching schedule and other professional and family obligations,” one of the TOSs, TOS B, gave an extreme response. TOS B holds a significant administrative position and has 31 years of teaching experience, and his subject is science. He said, “When I am busy, I don't do it. I like to...read, though. I don't think of it as a separate study. A hobby.” What is important here, therefore, is that care be taken not to make an inference about this being related to the TOS versus JTE distinction when it could just as easily be related to the burden of administrative responsibility. The difference observed with respect to Item 5 in the paragraph above is more likely to be based on the TOS versus JTE distinction and indicates greater potential for future research.

In Service-Training (Strongly Disagree)

The care needed to not confuse administrative responsibility with field specialization when reaching for inferences with respect to extreme responses is emphasized when considering Item 12: "I routinely attend continuing in-service training programs to improve student education care." JTE G and TOS B both strongly disagreed with the item. JTE G is a male teacher in his 50s who has been teaching for 33 years. He stated, "No need. Not to improve the education of the students, but in my case, to improve the quality of the teachers." TOS B elaborated as follows, "I don't. ... I don't have any trouble with skills in communicating with children." Both teachers were in managing positions and confident in their own expertise, and this is probably more explanatory of their position than the respective specializations they come from. Furthermore, both teachers were interested in managing teachers as administrators.

Professional Responsibility (Strongly Agree)

As for Item 2, "Life-long learning is a professional responsibility of all teachers," TOSs C and D, responded "Strongly Agree," but none of the JTEs did. TOS C was a male teacher in his 40s who had been teaching for 20 years as a home economics teacher. He said, "I have to keep learning. ... Mr. Y... taught me a lot." It is arguable that being influenced by other fellow teachers and having a keen awareness of his own responsibilities as a teacher led him to lifelong learning. TOS D is a social studies teacher in his 30s who had been teaching for 9 years. He said, "There were not many adults who would listen to me, and I feel that this has become a counter-teacher for me." He also mentioned his fellow teachers, suggesting that he was influenced a lot by the people around him: "He was a teacher who was able to convey the meaning of things to the kids. ...I saw how he did it, and I thought, 'Wow, that's really cool...!' I really want to do something like that when I have a class or something." As mentioned in the section above on the route to becoming a teacher, JTEs may be less likely to have an ideal image of a teacher because they were not influenced to become teachers in their school days.

Professional Magazines (Strongly Agree)

Turning to Item 5, "I read professional magazines at least once every week," there was not much difference between the TOS and JTE group with only TOS B endorsing the item with "Strongly Agree." Nonetheless, it is important to note that two JTEs appeared on the "Strongly Disagree" side of the scale (discussed in the section above), and this confirms an overall picture of TOSs being more open to engagement with professional literature as part of lifelong learning. TOS B, for example,

said, "The Web. National Geographic. I try to have it come automatically. I try to have new information ping in." Item 6 was also strongly endorsed by TOS B, and in the follow up interview data he said "I routinely search the Internet to find out about new developments in my specialty," and "I look at it for some reason. I look at science, science-related things. ...I'm looking at it from a wide range of perspectives." This indicates that his teaching identity is at least partly associated with keeping up with the rapidly evolving field of science.

Time for Self-Directed Learning and In-Service Training (Strongly Agree)

A plausible direction for future inquiry may be that JTEs perceive English, because it is a language, as static. If they have developed sufficient command of this non-moving target then the goal has been reached and does not require further pursuit. This inference, however, needs to be treated cautiously and as more of an exploratory inference for future inquiry because the data contains contradiction to it to some extent. Item 10, for example, "I always make time for self-directed learning, even when I have a busy teaching schedule and other professional and family obligations" and Item 12 "I routinely attend continuing in-service training programs to improve student education care," were both endorsed by JTE H. He said, "I don't feel like I'm studying, but I feel like I'm doing it. It's like when I study science on YouTube. It's become a hobby" and "If I can count Workshop A, I do." For him, English is not a job, but a hobby. So, while this teacher did not endorse direct engagement with professional literature, other forms of in-service engagement related to professional development were endorsed strongly.

Preferred Approach (Strongly Agree)

Item 14 "My preferred approach in finding an answer to a question is to search the appropriate websites on the Internet" was also interesting and continues the caution to be careful with inferences. This item was strongly endorsed by JTEs E and H. JTE E said, "The Internet, because it is convenient. You type in a keyword and bam, it comes up." JTE H responded, "I think the fastest way is probably the best. ...There's a Wikipedia of pronunciation." What this possibly suggests is that for JTEs, the Internet is more of a reference source for discovering the meanings and pronunciations of words and phrases, and this may supplant the engagement that TOSs have with other sources such as specialized journals and literature.

Conclusion

The current study was not a quantitative study, which tends to seek generalizations based on central tendencies, but a qualitative study, finding the clearest starting point for qualitative exploration in the more extreme, or outlier, responses produced by teachers on the JSLE-J. With regard to the purpose of study, the most important underlying source of potential explanation for results was differences in the route to becoming a teacher where TOSs seemed to have had a long-standing desire to be a teacher. JTEs, on the other hand, were more likely to have had a long-standing interest in English as a language, and this interest turned over to career expression by becoming a teacher at a later point.

Both TOSs and JTEs believed that lifelong learning was important when asked about this in the general sense, but there may be differences in how the two respective groups of teachers perceive this. For example, TOSs such as science teachers might feel the need to constantly update their knowledge of science which they see as a moving target because new findings are definitive of progress in the field. However, English teachers may perceive their role differently, being more interested in competence in the language, and therefore have more reference-based engagement with information on the Internet in the search for linguistic information. This implies that teacher development for JTEs may have to be done in a different way from other teachers, because they might be more motivated by language knowledge itself rather than teaching, although this should not imply that lack of interest in teaching itself by JTEs should be indulged. Pedagogy is just as important as knowledge of the language itself.

Finally, the kind of qualitative research reported in this study is exploratory by nature and not generalizable, and differences in levels of participation in administrative roles, and associated seniority, are an equally important source of possible explanation for attitudes to lifelong learning. The study suggests that there is room for ongoing research into what distinguishes JTEs from TOSs, and how this impacts their attitudes and course for lifelong learning.

References

Han, J., & Yin, H. (2016). Teacher motivation: Definition, research development and implications for teachers. *Cogent Education*, 3. Retrieved from <http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/2331186X.2016.1217819>

- Hojat, M., Veloski, J. J., & Gonnella, J. S. (2010). Physician lifelong learning: Conceptualization, measurement, and correlates in full-time clinicians and academic clinicians. In M. P. Caltone (Ed.), *Handbook of lifelong learning development* (pp.37-78). New York: Nova Science Publishers, Inc.
- Kurazumi, O., & Saito, R. (2013). Nihon no chugakko eigo kyoiku no yukue: Chugakko kyoin no naisei repoto wo tsujite [The future of English education in Japanese junior high schools: A report on junior high school teachers' reflections]. *Shirayuri Joshi Daigaku Kenkyukiyo*, 49, 77-99.
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. (2006). Kongo no kyoin yousei •menkyo seido no arikata nit suite (Toshin) [Draft Report on the Future of the Teacher Training and Licensure System]. *Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan*. Retrieved from https://www.mext.go.jp/b_menu/shingi/chukyo/chu kyo3/siry/attach/1346376.htm
- Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology. (2019). Heisei 30 nendo "eigo kyoiku jissi jokyo chosa" no kekka ni tsuite [Results of the English education implementation survey in the fiscal year of Heisei 30]. *Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology of Japan*. Retrieved from http://www.mext.go.jp/component/a_menu/education/detail/_icsFiles/afieldfile/2019/04/17/1415043_01_1.pdf
- Praver, M. & Oga-Baldwin, W. (2008). What motivates language teachers: Investing work satisfaction and second language pedagogy. *Polyglossia*, 14, 1-8.

Suemori, S. (2019). Teacher motivation and practice in the language learning classroom. In P. Clements, A. Krause, & P. Bennett (Eds.), *Diversity and Inclusion*. Tokyo: JALT.

Special Act for Education Personnel, 21. §4 (1949).
https://www.mext.go.jp/a_menu/shotou/kenshu/012.htm

Yukimori, M. (2015). Nihonjin eigo kyoshi no eigokan – “Kokusaigo toshiteno eigo” wo chushin toshite – [Japanese English teachers' views on English: Focusing on “English as an international language]”. *Eiken Bulletin*, 27, 175-183.

Appendix A

Jefferson Scale of Physician Lifelong Learning

Factors	Items
L	1. Searching for the answer to a question is, in and by itself rewarding.
L	2. Life-long learning is a professional responsibility of all physicians.
L	3. I enjoy reading articles in which issues of my professional interest are discussed.
A	4. I routinely attend meetings of professional medical organizations.
L	5. I read professional magazines at least once every week.
T	6. I routinely search computer databases to find out about new developments in my specialty.
L	7. I believe that I would fall behind if I stopped learning about new developments in my profession.
L	8. One of the important goals of medical school is to develop students' life-long learning skills.
L	9. Rapid changes in medical science require constant updating of knowledge and development of new professional skills.
L	10. I always make time for self-directed learning, even when I have a busy practice schedule and other professional and family obligations.
L	11. I recognize my need to constantly acquire new professional knowledge.
A	12. I routinely attend continuing medical education programs to improve patient care.
A	13. I take every opportunity to gain new knowledge/skills that are important to my profession.
T	14. My preferred approach in finding an answer to a question is to search the appropriate computer databases.

Appendix A. Jefferson Scale of Physician Lifelong Learning (Hojat et al., 2010)

Appendix B

教師の生涯学習の尺度

以下の各項目について、あなたがどの程度同意するか、該当する番号に○をつけてください。	全く そう 思わ ない 。	そ う 思 わ な い 。	ど ち ら で も な い 。	そ う 思 う 。	非 常 に そ う 思 う 。
1. ある疑問について答えを追求するという事は、それ自体やりがいがある。	1	2	3	4	5
2. 生涯学習はすべての教師にとってプロとしての責任である。	1	2	3	4	5
3. 自分の専門分野の問題を取り上げている文献を読むのを楽しんでいる。	1	2	3	4	5
4. 専門的な教育機関の集まりに定期的に参加している。	1	2	3	4	5
5. 週に少なくとも1回は専門誌を読んでいる。	1	2	3	4	5
6. 自分の専門分野において進歩がないか定期的にインターネットで検索をしている。	1	2	3	4	5
7. 自分の専門における進歩について学ぶのを諦めれば、取り残されると思う。	1	2	3	4	5
8. 大学での教員養成の重要な目標の一つは、学生の生涯学習のスキルをのばすことである。	1	2	3	4	5
9. 教育分野における急速な変化は、知識の更新と新しい専門スキルの向上をたえず必要とする。	1	2	3	4	5
10. 公私にわたって忙しい時でさえ、自分の勉強の時間を常にとっている。	1	2	3	4	5
11. 専門分野に関する新しい知識をたえず習得する必要があると思う。	1	2	3	4	5
12. 生徒への教育を向上させるために、研修プログラムに定期的に参加している。	1	2	3	4	5
13. 自分の専門に重要だと思われる新しい知識やスキルを得るために、あらゆる機会を活用している。	1	2	3	4	5
14. 問題解決に向けて好んで行う方法は、インターネットでの適切なウェブサイトを検索することである。	1	2	3	4	5

Appendix B. Jefferson Scale of Lifelong Learning for Educators (Japanese version) or JSLLE-J

Flash Fiction: Springboards for Real Communication

Jennifer Igawa
Meiji Gakuin University

This paper presents a method to use flash fiction in English Communication courses typically required of freshmen in Japanese universities. After a review of the rationale for using fiction in the second language learning environment, I explain how to use flash fiction to promote active participation in meaningful discussion among students. Specific texts and how to incorporate them into a course are provided. Finally, student feedback on the use of flash fiction in the course supports the potential for the use of this genre to stimulate real communication amongst students in the EFL classroom.

本論文では、日本の大学一年生が通常履修する英語コミュニケーション科目において、フラッシュ・フィクションを活用する方法を紹介する。第二言語学習環境においてフィクションを使用する根拠を確認した後、学生間の有意義なディスカッションへの積極的な参加を促進するためにフラッシュ・フィクションをどのように使用するかを説明する。具体的なテキストとコースへの取り入れ方についても説明する。最後に、フラッシュ・フィクションを使用することがEFL授業内での有意義な学生間のコミュニケーションを生む可能性を秘めていることを、フラッシュ・フィクションを使用した授業の学生の感想をもとに述べる。

Literature, once a component of English-language classrooms in Japan, was closeted in the late 1990s with the introduction of “practical communicative competence” to the junior and senior high school curricula (Takahashi, 2015). However, the closet door was left ajar, and literature has found its way back into the classroom since the turn of the century. Its use as another tool for teachers to build on structural and cultural linguistic competence is well-documented (Collie & Slater, 1987; Jones, 2019; Lazar, 1993; Takahashi, 2015; Teranishi, Saito, & Wales, 2015; Thaler, 2016), and the Companion Volume for the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2020) now includes descriptors related to the reading of literature. Despite such a rich library of material readily available, many university English language classrooms in Japan still rely on mass-produced four-skill textbooks that are colorful, expensive, and, as Lazar (1993) suggests, can fail to pique the interest of most students.

This paper will review reasons to use fiction, and why and how to use flash fiction to ease students into the use of longer texts in a typical freshmen English Communication course that is required at most universities in Japan.

A clarification of terms used in the paper is called for here. *Literature* and *fiction* are meant as any fictional written text and may include novels, plays, short stories, poetry, fables, etc. *Flash fiction* is typically defined as a fictional narrative of fewer than 1000 words. Finally, for

the sake of simplicity, English is used as the L2 in this paper. There is no intention to suggest that the benefits of using literature or flash fiction in the L2 classroom is limited to English language texts or to EFL/ESL.

Rationale for Using Literature

Rationale for using literature in the second language learning classroom has been discussed extensively (in general: Collie & Slater, 1987; Jones, 2019; Lazar, 1993; in Japan specifically: Takahashi, 2015; Teranishi, Saito, & Wales, 2015; Thaler, 2016.). A primary reason for the use of literature in the second language learning environment is that it can be a motivating factor in that students can become absorbed in an interesting plot, something that “pseudo-narratives frequently found in coursebooks” often fail to do (Lazar, 1993, p. 15).

Another reason for using literature in the classroom is that literature provides access to the target culture, which in turn can lead to the development of cultural competence and intercultural awareness. Students can see how characters behave in certain situations and “become more familiar with patterns of social interaction” in foreign countries (Collie & Slater, 1987, p. 2). Students can then compare those behavior and social patterns with typical behavior and social patterns of their own culture. Indeed, students might even find that, in some situations, there is little if any cultural difference. Furthermore, while the details might differ among

cultures, the overarching themes of literature often transcend culture (Collie & Slater, 1987).

A third rationale is that the use of literature promotes linguistic development and language acquisition. Readers are exposed to spoken language in rich contexts and can therefore see not only what language is used but also when, how, and why. Students also gain experience and comfort in reading fiction, and this opens up an additional language learning tool for outside the classroom. The discussion of literature often requires students to express their own interpretations of a text, necessitating new language production. Reading literature also develops language awareness and enrichment through the exposure to unusual uses of language (Jones & Cleary, 2019). The rich use of metaphor, for example, in some forms of literature illuminates this linguistic feature and provides an opportunity to reflect on its relatively frequent use in non-literary texts and speech. Students learn to interpret language, a valuable and transferable skill (Lazar, 1993).

A final rationale is that reading literature educates the person and not only the language learner. Reading literature is a way to develop cognitive skills, pragmatic competence, and the ability to be critically reflective, all of which are becoming a priority in foreign language learning (Reimão, 2020; Economou, 2015). Students learn to “read between the lines” and make inferences. Economou (2015) found that students’ tendency to bias their own experience became a springboard for discussion. Students become able to consider perspective and rethink their own experiences in relation to the text. Gaining experience in responding on a personal level to a text helps students gain more confidence in expressing themselves in English and in handling seemingly difficult texts. This increase in confidence in itself is intrinsically motivating. Another way in which the whole person is educated is that reading literature increases a person’s emotional awareness; we become more empathetic (Lazar, 1993; Oatley, 2016).

With these benefits in mind, I began to incorporate literature, specifically, flash fiction, in my freshmen university English Communication course. In the next sections, I discuss why I chose to use flash fiction and introduce a five-class process to introduce the use of fiction into the typical English language class that is typically required of freshmen at Japanese universities.

The Japanese University Context

Most Japanese university freshmen have completed six or more years of English language education. The grammar knowledge they have learned is relatively quite advanced and can even be archaic, not lending

itself to day-to-day conversation or being able to communicate opinions. Nevertheless, most university freshmen have mastered most of the secondary English curriculum. The problem is not in their knowledge about grammar or the items on an academic word list; what we as university instructors face are classrooms of students who have not made the transition from language learners to language users.

Most freshmen are required to take at least one year of English, often denoted as English Communication. For non-English majors or those not in a program conducted exclusively in English (EMI), the goal of the students is often to simply pass the course for the credit. There is often no motivation to improve their English communication skills. My observation is that classes structured around a textbook might add to demotivation as students seem to have little interest in if any prior knowledge of the generic topics covered in the costly textbooks. The readings often are followed by questions that have correct answers. I submit that correct answers are rare in real communication and that interpretation is subjective, based on one’s own experience. Therefore, students need to use textual information in tandem with their own experiences to support their opinions. Fiction allows them to do this, and good flash fiction demands this of its readers. Flash fiction only gives enough that the reader must fill in the blanks to fully understand the meaning of the text (Swartwood, 2009). Another limiting factor of these first year courses is the amount of time an instructor can reasonably require students to spend on homework.

Students generally identify reading as the skill they feel most confident about (Igawa & Forrester, 2016; Myskow, Underwood, & Waring, 2019). There may be several reasons for this, including the fact that reading is generally considered a solitary action in which the reader can control the pace. A student can stop to look up words or go back and reread passages. In contrast, many students are least confident in their speaking skills (Igawa & Forrester, 2016; Snyder, 2019). Using literature in the classroom is one way to take advantage of perceived strengths to improve perceived weaknesses.

One way in which using a fictional text in an EFL context can improve speaking skills is that the texts serve as springboards for discussion. Longer texts often provide more material for discussion, but they also require a considerable time investment. Reading a long text, thinking about it, being prepared to discuss it in class, and then completing follow-up assignments, would require much more time than most students in this context would be willing to invest. With this in mind, I use flash fiction, generally defined as a text of less than 1000 words, in my class of freshmen economics majors. In addition to consideration of length, I try to choose texts that are accessible in regard to vocabulary and

context so that students have both the language and the prior knowledge or experience to engage the text and subsequently call on that engagement in discussion.

With the above in mind, below I present a five-class unit to introduce the use of literature into a class of reluctant learners, students who might have the potential to achieve but are either unwilling to participate in class or simply want to do only enough to earn credit for the course (Mahdi, 2015). Flash fiction serves as an accessible mid-point between coursebooks and classical Literature. Flash fiction stories, by nature of their length (or shortness), require only a single lesson to cover. This shortness renders a text somewhat dense, but also allows for a variety of interpretations from the readers (Thaler, 2016). This unit takes advantage of these characteristics and aims to increase student participation, that is, increase production and communication. Additional aims include stimulating and maintaining interest in the classes by using accessible texts and creating activities that require students to think about, share, and reflect on their own opinions as well as listen to, analyze, and confirm others' opinions.

Introducing Flash Fiction

In the first class of this unit, I introduce very, very short stories, short enough to read several in one 90-minute class period. The first story is 26-word "Gasp" by Michael A. Arnzen.¹ Before reading, I introduce vocabulary likely to be new or unfamiliar to students, such as *posit*, *drown*, *contradictory*, and *inhale*. Students read the story once to themselves, and then a student is asked to read the story aloud. I then ask students questions, calling on individual students if there are no volunteers. When I ask "Why?", I am careful not to challenge the reasoning students provide at this point. I praise their interesting ideas and thank them for contributing. I try to make connections between and among student answers. At this point, the focus is to create a non-threatening and cooperative learning environment. I want the students to feel comfortable enough to speak up in class and confident enough to express their opinions without fear of being "wrong".

"Gasp" by Michael A. Arnzen (26 words)

He posited that a person could drown in air. I told him to stop being contradictory. He raised a finger. Inhaled to reply. And never stopped.

Questions:

Why was "he" contradictory?

What do you think happened after he "never stopped"? Why?

Who do you think gasped? Why?

We repeat this pattern (vocabulary, silent reading, reading aloud, questions) with "Knock", a 17-word story by science fiction writer Fredric Brown. This story elicits some interesting answers to the question "Who, or what, do you think knocked on the door?", including aliens, animals, and even that the narrator is dreaming. One student suggested the wind. Another followed up on that suggestion giving more detail: a branch blowing in the wind. This story clearly shows the students that there is not one "correct" answer when interpreting a story. It also provides an opportunity to use vocabulary learned earlier in the unit ("contradictory").

"Knock" by Fredric Brown (17 words)

The last man on Earth sat alone in a room. There was a knock on the door. . .

Is there anything *contradictory* about this story?

Who, or what, do you think knocked on the door?

What adjectives would you use to describe this story?

At this point, students seem to understand what they are expected to do. The next two even shorter stories do not require pre-reading vocabulary work, so I put students into small groups of 3-4 to work through the stories and questions themselves. The students are reminded to respond to each other's comments and ask follow-up questions, as modeled with the first two stories. I observe the discussions, offering support where needed and taking note of points I will raise in the full class discussion.

"Baby Shoes" is a familiar text. There is some debate as to whether Hemingway is the author or not, which in itself is an interesting source of discussion: Why might we not know for sure who the author is? Interestingly, students easily understand the context of this very short and poignant story. In follow-up questioning, I ask students what the setting is. An interesting lesson about classified ads in newspapers and why word count is important can ensue. As students recognize the necessity for clarity and concision, they begin to understand why writing more does not always mean

writing better. For homework, students write a classified ad for something they would like to sell.

"Baby Shoes" by Ernest Hemingway (6 words)

For sale. Baby shoes. Never worn.

What do you think is the situation in this story?

Why are the baby shoes for sale?

What adjectives would you use to describe this story?

"Cosmic Report Card: Earth" by Forrest J. Ackerman is not as easily understood as "Baby Shoes". While some students think the "F" is a name or initial, others are completely perplexed. Those who do understand that Earth has received a failing grade, have trouble explaining why. The point of this exercise, though, is that various opinions or interpretations are good and promote discussion in which students begin to think from different perspectives and probe reasoning. For example, follow-up questions could include: Why has Earth received a failing grade? Is Earth responsible for its failing grade?

"Cosmic Report Card: Earth" by Forrest J. Ackerman (1 letter)

F

What do you think this story means?

The next step to train students in how to use literature in class is to increase the word count of the stories we read (Classes 2-4). Students are assigned to read a story and prepare a discussion guide for homework. The three stories listed below are fairly accessible to Japanese university students.² "The Warrior" is about the Japanese historical figure Nobunaga. "The Interview" is about an admissions interview for university. "The Eighteenth Camel" uses a little logic with numbers, something my students, as economics majors, seem to relate to. Over a third of students surveyed indicated "The Eighteenth Camel" as the story they liked the most in the semester.³ The reasons for this choice included "[T]his story is mathematical"; "[the] way to divide the eighteenth camel is very smart. I like this"; and "[T]his story is very clever and I didn't come up with the ideas that in...the story to solve the problem. So it was interesting."

After a preview of essential vocabulary, students are given an assignment to complete and submit on our Learning Management System by the day before class. (See sample handout in Appendix A.) There is also a vocabulary section on the handout in which students are asked to identify at least five words that are new or unfamiliar. Students look up the words in an English dictionary and write the meaning of the appropriate usage. Before class, I identify the words students most commonly indicate as being new or unfamiliar and prepare a short review of those words to be completed in class before discussing the story. This allows me to check that students have identified the correct meaning. For example, many students indicate the meaning of *allowance* in "The Appalachian Trail" as "an amount of money that is given to someone regularly or for a specific purpose" rather than the text appropriate "an amount of something (such as time) that is allowed or available" (Merriam-Webster, n.d.). The handout also includes two or three comprehension questions and two or three discussion questions.

The assignment compels students to read and prepare for class. Also, students now have a crib sheet to help them in their class discussions. Students can prepare some of their participation in advance, practice in relatively less intimidating small groups, and then offer their answers and opinions in a full class follow-up. Using this process allows students to gradually become more confident to actually speak up in front of others. As confidence increases, students become more willing to respond spontaneously to follow-up questions from me or other students, or even to ask questions themselves or comment on what others have said.

"The Warrior" (156 words)

"The Interview" (157 words)

"The Eighteenth Camel" (150 words)

Who is in the story?

Where does the story take place? How do you know this?

When does the story take place? How do you know this?

As the word count increases, the depth of discussion tends to as well. The story for the fifth class, "The Appalachian Trail" works best when students have a basic understanding of what the Appalachian Trail is. I provide students with a sense of the length and terrain of the trail by showing a 5-minute digest of a trek of the entire trail and a visual comparison of its length with a

length they are more familiar with: the distance between Wakkanai in Hokkaido and Naha in Okinawa. With this schemata, students can better understand the story and make inferences based on implicit content (Lazar, 1993).

“The Appalachian Trail” (in *Black Tulips* by Bruce Eason, 1991)
(489 words)

What do you think the relationship is between the characters? *Why?*

How do you think this story would be different if the two characters were a man and a woman, both men, or both women?

At what point in the story does the narrator become resigned to walk the Appalachian Trail with the woman? Explain your answer.

Do you like the characters? *Why or why not?*

Do you think you would like to hike the Appalachian Trail? *Why or why not?*

The first question elicits an animated discussion. Students challenge each other by pointing out something in the text which they think conflicts with another student’s answer. Students’ assumptions about what constitutes a couple and the roles of men and women in a household are examined.

Table 1

Student Response to the Class (N=13)

Q: Did you enjoy the class?		
Response	Number of Responses (%)	Reasons (sampling)
Yes, a lot.	5 (38.5)	“I liked discussion with friends and [the professor] and reading a lot of interesting stories.”
Yes, a little.	6 (46.1)	“[I]t little hard for me...but it keep motivation to keep learning and speaking English.” “I liked to hear other’s various idea.”
No, not much.	2 (15.4)	“I dislike the discussion the classmate because I can’t understand the Japanese’s pronunciation sometimes.” “I don’t mean I disliked the class. This was hard for me, but I could improve my English, so it was great.”
No, not at all.	0	

Conclusion

In conclusion, students indicate that they feel their speaking and reading skills have improved and that they

Student Feedback

The results of a pilot study suggest that the use of flash fiction in a university English Communication course may help students become motivated to become English users and to improve their English reading and speaking skills. Students responded positively to the use of flash fiction in the course (Table 1). Students seemed to like the discussion, and they were motivated to speak in English. Though there were two negative responses, the reasons for them were unrelated to the use of flash fiction, with one student even stating the class was “great” and that she could improve her language skills.

There is also a perceived increase in both reading and speaking skills (Tables 2 & 3 in Appendix B). All students responded positively when asked if they thought their reading skills improved over the semester. This is especially interesting, as there was no overt reading skill instruction. It could be that extensive reading contributed to the perceived improvement. Almost all students (85%) indicated they thought their speaking skills improved over the semester.

While this is only a preliminary investigation into how a very small number of students responded to a class using flash fiction, results suggest there is some benefit to its use. Further study is necessary to identify if the use of flash fiction results in measurable improvement in reading and speaking skills, and in increased motivation to learn or use English.

enjoyed the course using flash fiction. If one of the purposes of the course is to improve communication and to turn students from English learners to English

users, then it is incumbent on us as instructors to provide opportunities that allow students to use the language that they have to talk about what they know best: their own experience. The use of typical EFL textbooks can complicate student learning. As many students might lack prior knowledge about the topics covered in the textbooks, they are required to master new knowledge in order to have a discussion. As an alternative, flash fiction, carefully selected to be accessible in both content and level, can be used to stimulate real communication in the classroom. There is a saying that a story is a promise of a conversation. Using stories—literature—in the language learning classroom has great potential to increase communication amongst even the most reluctant speakers.

Notes

¹ “Gasp,” “Knock,” and “Cosmic Report Card: Earth” have been independently published. See Connolly (2010).

² “The Warrior,” “The Interview,” and “The Eighteenth Camel” are listed as anonymous at alltimeshortstories.com, where I first came across the stories. “The Warrior” is elsewhere referred to as “The Warrior and the Monk”, and “The Eighteenth Camel” is likely Bedouin in origin. All three are fables.

³ There were fourteen students in the class. Thirteen responded to the survey. Seven stories were read during the semester. Five students (38.5%) selected “The Eighteenth Camel” as their favorite, while the three next most popular stories were chosen by two students each.

References

- Collie, J., & Slater, S. (1987). *Literature in the language classroom: A resource book of ideas and activities*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Connolly, L. C. (2010). *The 21st-century scop*. Retrieved August 18, 2021, from <https://lawrenceconnolly.com/2013/10/26/the-shortest-flashes-ever-written-or-how-short-is-short-short/#comments>
- Council of Europe (2020), *Common European framework of reference for languages: learning, teaching, assessment – Companion volume*. Strasbourg, France: Council of Europe Publishing.
- Eason, B. (1991). *Black tulips*. Turnstone Press.
- Economou, C. (2015). Reading fiction in a second-language classroom. *Education Inquiry*, 6(1), 91-118.
- Igawa, J., & Forrester, D. (2016). University in English? Questions of confidence. *The Language Teacher*, 40(6), 9-13.
- Jones, C. (Ed.). (2019). *Literature, spoken language and speaking skills in second language learning*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Jones, C., & Cleary, J. (2019). Using literature in text-driven materials to help develop spoken language awareness. In C. Jones (Ed.). *Literature, spoken language and speaking skills in second language learning* (pp. 66-95). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Kawabata, Y. (1971). *Tenohira no shōsetsu [Palm of the hand stories]*. Tokyo: Shinchō.
- Lazar, G. (1993). *Literature and language teaching: A guide for teachers and trainers*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Mahdi, D. A. (2015). Motivating reluctant EFL students to talk in class: Strategies and tactics. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 5(8), 1703-1709.
- Merriam-Webster. (n.d.). Allowance. In [learnersdictionary.com](https://www.learnersdictionary.com) dictionary. Retrieved August 23, 2021, from <https://www.learnersdictionary.com/definition/allowance>

Myskow, G., Underwood, P. R., & Waring, R. (2019). The blind spots of reading: Turning on lights in the Japanese university classroom. In P. Wadden & C. C. Hale (Eds.), *Teaching English at Japanese universities: A new handbook* (pp. 54-63). London: Routledge.

Oatley, K. (2016). Fiction: Simulation of social worlds. *Trends in Cognitive Science*, 20(8), 618-628.

Reimão, A. (2020). Developing soft skills with micro-fiction: A close-reading experience. In A. B. Almeida, U. Bavendiek, & R. Biasini (Eds.), *Literature in language learning: New approaches* (pp. 51-58). doi:10.14705/rpnet.2020.43.9782490057696

Snyder, B. (2019). Creating engagement and motivation in the Japanese university language classroom. In P. Wadden & C. C. Hale (Eds.), *Teaching English at Japanese universities: A new handbook* (pp. 137-143). London: Routledge.

Swartwood, R. (n.d.)
<https://www.robertswartwood.com/hint-fiction-when-flash-fiction-becomes-just-too-flashy>

Takahashi, K. (2015). *The possibilities of literary materials in English teaching in Japan*. Tokyo: Hitsuji Shobō.

Teranishi, M., Saito, Y., & Wales, K. (2015). *Literature and Language Learning in the EFL Classroom*. London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Thaler, E. (Ed.). (2016). *Shorties: Flash fiction in English language teaching*. Tübingen, Germany: Narr Francke Attempto Verlag GmbH.

Appendix A

This is a sample text and accompanying handout for using flash fiction in an EFL classroom.

The Interview

Once, a panel of intelligent interviewers at a reputed business school was interviewing prospective students for admission to the school. When one of the prospective students entered the room and nervously sat on the chair in front of them, the panel said to the boy, "We shall either ask you ten easy questions or one really difficult question. Choose carefully as it will determine your admission to the school!"

The boy thought for a while and answered, "I would like to answer one really difficult question."

"Well, good luck to you, you have made your choice! Now answer us. What comes first, Day or Night?"

The boy was jolted into reality as his admission depended on the correctness of his answer to this single question, but he thought for a while and said, "It's the day sir!"

"How?" asked the interviewer.

"Sorry sir, you assured me that I do not need to answer the second difficult question!"

QUESTIONS

Who is in the story?

Where does the story take place? How do you know this?

When does the story take place? How do you know this?

Look up the adjective *prospective* (line 2) in learnersdictionary.com Look up the noun *perspective* as well. These two words are often misused by even native speakers. Create at least two sentences to help you distinguish between the two words.

Make a list of five words or phrases that are new to you. Look up the words in an English-English dictionary and write the definition in the table.

Word/Phrase	Definition

If you were in the boy's situation, would you have chosen "ten easy questions or one really difficult question"? Why?

Do you think this was a good way to determine admission to the business school? Why/Why not?

Which do you think comes first, Day or Night? Explain your answer.

Appendix B

Table 2

Self-Perceived Improvement in English Reading Skills (N=13)

<i>Q: Do you think your English reading skills improved over the semester?</i>	
<i>Response</i>	<i>Number of Responses</i>
<i>Yes, a lot.</i>	<i>5 (38.5%)</i>
<i>Yes, a little.</i>	<i>8 (61.5%)</i>
<i>No, not much.</i>	<i>0 (0%)</i>
<i>No, not at all.</i>	<i>0 (0%)</i>

Table 3

Self-Perceived Improvement in English Speaking Skills (N=13)

<i>Q: Do you think your English speaking skills improved over the semester?</i>	
<i>Response</i>	<i>Number of Responses</i>
<i>Yes, a lot.</i>	<i>6 (46.1%)</i>
<i>Yes, a little.</i>	<i>5 (38.5%)</i>
<i>No, not much.</i>	<i>2 (15.4%)</i>
<i>No, not at all.</i>	<i>0 (0%)</i>

Mapping a familiar text-world: Japanese literature in the English language classroom

Luke Draper

Kwansei Gakuin University (School of Policy Studies)

Literature is used in ESL classrooms not only as a rich resource for language, but also as a means of allowing students to explore the culture and sociohistory of the textual setting. While literature is often used to teach other cultures, this paper argues for the inclusion of literature that responds to the *learners'* culture. First, Text-World Theory will be introduced as a suitable framework from which to argue that literature of a culture more familiar to the learner can facilitate engagement. Next, an overview of a 'Japanese Literature in English Translation' university course will be provided. Four Japanese short stories translated into English used in the course will be discussed, with validations for their inclusion and general observations of student response given.

英語教育の教室において、文学は充実した言語教材としてのみならず、学生がその原文の背景となる文化や社会史について探求することのできる手段としても活用される。文学は異文化を教えるという目的のためにしばしば用いられるが、本論文では学習者自身が属する文化の文学を取り入れることについて述べる。まず Text-World Theory (テキスト世界論) が適切な枠組みとして機能し、学習者にとってより身近な文化の文学を用いることで学習への従事が促進されることを述べる。次に、大学の開講科目 “Japanese Literature in English Translation (英訳日本文学)” の概要について触れ、授業で使用した日本文学の短編作品 4 作の英訳について論じ、その妥当性と学生の反応について考察す

It has long been argued that literature offers valuable material resources for the language classroom (Widdowson, 1983; Lazar, 1993). Literature can be a rich source of vocabulary and grammar constructs and exposes language learners to a range of standard and non-standard language models. It can also foster the development of more complex learning proficiencies, such as criticality, analysis, and creativity (Paramour, nd). Indeed, the creative nature of literary texts can offer a more immersive and engaging reading experience than other learning texts and as such may elicit a wider range of competences. Another argument for the inclusion of literature is that it can nurture cultural awareness. Indeed, literature can present insight into the sociohistory of other countries, tracing historical and contemporary matters attached to that culture. Further, literature can foster communication skills. When verbally summarizing, evaluating and discussing a text with classmates, learners are actively applying practical and sophisticated conversation constructs. A successful discussion of literature involves these skills, as well as listening and critically responding to other interpretations and justifying personal interpretations with both direct and indirect reference to the text. When writing an analysis essay, learners must construct a coherent and well-organized text while effectively persuading the reader of the accuracy and significance of their interpretation. In the sense of standard EFL productive assessment, literature clearly offers

opportunities to examine socially relevant matters through a range of communicative strategies.

Although literature can be a valuable conduit for these skills, there are challenges when selecting suitable texts for a class. For example, the language must be of an appropriate class level, with more complex vocabulary and grammar structures explained and practiced through classroom exercises. Assessment must clearly measure learner progress while engaging the learner. Indeed, in her English L1 Junior High literature class, Walker (1997) observed positive learner participation when substituting rote-learning tests for practical and creative tasks that also established learner comprehension of the text. This shows that learners often engage positively with communicative and applied tasks.

Walker also noted that “...even though we were “covering” all the material, we were *telling* students what we thought they should know, and they saw little connection between the readings and their own lives” (p. 69, author's italics). In other words, the teachers imposed a reading onto the learner instead of granting opportunities for the learner to construct their own meanings. This observation is particularly relevant in the context of Japanese university students, where teacher-centered approaches are still common and reticence to actively participate in discussion are already barriers for language-learning. To maximize the benefits of literary

texts as materials, curricula should promote *authentic* reading over *manufactured* reading. By this, I look to Giovanelli and Mason's (2018) representation of an authentic reading experience as "born out of an individual's own process of unmediated interpretation" (p. 42), while imposed explanations result in a 'manufactured' reading.

It is also important to keep in mind the overall syllabus goal in Japanese universities' English programs, which is often the development of English-language proficiency. Some programs may aim to develop intercultural competence and cultural awareness as a secondary goal. This may potentially lead to a challenge faced by Kelen (2014), who sought strategies to motivate non-English speakers to engage with 'his' literature – or Western, English-language literature.

When developing a post-intermediate-level content course for a University English program, I wanted to maximize opportunities for both language acquisition and productive skill practice. As Hillis (2021) claims, texts that activate a learner's schemata are more likely to engage learners due to their familiarity. To be concrete, when tasked with reading and responding to the translated prose fiction of *their* culture, they may identify with the characters, visualize the settings, and understand plot, metaphor and imagery much more readily than if the story was outside their cultural cognizance. This in turn should generate active discussion and increased productivity.

Text-World Theory: Using Mental Scripts to Conceptualize Texts

This paper explores the usefulness of English translations of Japanese literature in the language classroom from the perspective of Text-World theory. Text-worlds are the mental representations of language that facilitates conceptualization and understanding of a text (Gavins, 2007). The principle of this phenomena contends that these mental images are formed by 'scripts', or information banks within the human mind that have been formed through life experience. These cognitive scripts allow us to understand linguistic prompts from their context, the most familiar of which results in a clearer interpretation. These mental constructs are also referred to as *schema*, a concept that is applied often in the field of language education; for example, in initial schemata activation tasks that help learners conceptualize the topic of the text before engaging with it. Text-World theory, then, is a discourse model that aims to explore the ways participants – in this case, readers – makes sense of a text.

It is inaccurate to suggest Text-World Theory only explores the participants' *comprehension* of a text. The relationship between the text and the participant is far

too complex to generalize, especially when authentic, ungraded literature is introduced to the classroom. However, a participant's script is a significant factor in helping them identify with unfamiliar situations. Though their imagination helps the participant navigate a mental text-world, it is their scripts that shape the images. As Scott (2013) says:

...we create a kind of 'map' upon which are represented recurrent aspects and features of our daily life: memories, faces, locations, names, actions, emotions, etc. These aspects are stored with the same level of detail as in the real world; thus, when we are faced with something new, we 'import' information from the world to be stored onto our map, much like video games loads new screens as the player progresses through the game world (p. 137)

In other words, when faced with unfamiliar situations, we decode them by 'mapping' our existent experiences and knowledge onto them.

The pleasurable aspect of avid reading is creating the text-worlds in our minds, text-worlds that vary from reader-to-reader. Reading in our non-L1 can seriously impede this process, as we add the extra task of internal translation. Therefore, it is through the framework of Text-world Theory this paper argues that culturally familiar literature is a fertile source of material for the English language classroom. Indeed, by offering texts that a learner can culturally identify with and thus mentally visualize, it can be posited that broader and more informed analyses and interpretations of the text are facilitated, fostering meaningful communication experiences.

From the context of a post-intermediate-to-advanced level content course in a Japanese University English program, this paper will discuss selected texts, justifications for the text and general responses from the learners.

Japanese Literature in English Translation: A 'Special Topics' Course

'English Translations of Japanese Literature' was created for the intermediate-advanced level (CEFR B2+) 'Special Topics' suite of courses on the Kwansai Gakuin University's School of Policy Studies English program. Each 'Special Topics' course is designed to allow learners to apply their English skills within a Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) style of education. Other topics included Global Studies, Intercultural Communication, Behavioral Economics and Creative Writing, for example. It was a fourteen-week course that ran during the Spring 2021 semester.

Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, all classes were held online.

The specific purpose of the course was to allow learners to recycle the skills they had previously learned on the English Program, specifically seminar discussion and essay writing skills. Repeated assessments were literary circle-style discussions, where learners summarized the text and discussed pre-set questions that assessed their interactions with the text, as well as regular written essays.

A key point reiterated throughout the course is that everybody's readings of the stories will be different, and that no interpretation is wrong; however, it is important to reference the story to justify interpretations. The following section will provide examples of the two main formative assessments delivered throughout the course.

Literary Circle Discussions

A goal of the course is to facilitate a range of dialogic activities, culminating in literary circle-style discussions.

Below is an example prompt for the short story *Factory Town* by Minoru Betsuyaku (see *Text 1*).

***Factory Town* by Minoru Betsuyaku**

One member of the group summarizes the story (1 minute)

Questions to discuss:

What do the townspeople think about the factory and its workers? What parts of the story give you this impression?

How can this story be interpreted as "a commentary on modernization and industrialization in Japan"?

How did you feel when reading this story? Why did you feel this way?

These discussion questions for a reading that occurs early in the course facilitates a range of cognitive and dialogic skills. Question 2 expects learners to comprehend the actions and dialogue of the characters as well as verbally referencing the text to support their opinions. Question 3 requires further interpretation skills as well the ability to connect ideas from the story to a specific issue within Japan. Question 4 allows learners to discuss their emotional reactions, further elucidating the learners' personal response to the story. Within the discussions, key skills such as critical thinking, evaluating ideas and providing arguments are employed as learners share their individual analyses and responses to the stories.

During the assignment, it is important that the teacher intervenes minimally and only when discussion is lagging through repetition or rephrasing of the question. The teacher should not influence interpretive responses and mostly stay silent during the discussion, noting interesting points to include in a summary of the discussion and areas of needed improvement.

Essay writing

The essays followed a pattern developing from the following:

INTRODUCTION: Brief synopsis of the story; author biography; thesis statement.

MAIN BODY PARAGRAPH 1 – SUMMARY: Write a longer summary of the story

MAIN BODY PARAGRAPH 2 – CHARACTERIZATION: Write a description of the main characters

MAIN BODY PARAGRAPH 3 – INTERPRETATION: Focus on the essay question here (this should be your longest paragraph).

CONCLUSION

An example essay question is: *To what extent does Factory Town by Minoru Betsuyaku comment on modernization and industrialization in modern Japan?*

Each paragraph prompt is designed to stimulate different types of response and written structure and draws on the ideas shared in the previous discussions.

Students were able to select their own text for the final written assessment, a 1,000-word essay, similarly structured essay. Popular student choices included the contemporary novel *I Want to Eat Your Pancreas* by Yoru Sumino, Ryūnosuke Akutagawa's short story *The Spider's Thread* and two works by Osamu Dazai: *No Longer Human* and *Run, Melos!*

Challenges in creating the course

The major challenge faced in creating the course was selecting appropriate texts. Locating original texts with reduced lexical and grammatical complexity is often problematic and relies on both analysis and intuition. Graded Readers offer opportunities for uninterrupted extensive reading due to their simplified syntax and lexical constructs, though adaptations of Japanese literature in translation are scarce, and original translations were deemed linguistically suitable for the

level of class. However, the text must be accessible as well as challenging, and texts that are overtly lexically dense or grammatically complex will lead to unengaged and unmotivated learners. As a result, most of the texts used, apart from *Carp* by Masuji Ibuse (1926), were from the modern era and adopted a contemporary prose style. Literature from the Meiji to the Shōwa period offers rich accounts of Japan in a culturally shifting phase of its history, though their English translations are often faithful to the original and use style and terminology synonymous with the period. This means that, even with the Japanese reader's mental scripts culturally and perhaps narratively attuned with the story, reading the text will be demanding.

A final challenge was selecting texts that were thematically suitable for the learner. Though the learners were of university age and did not require 'shielding' from controversial issues, I was acutely aware of the mental pressures many were facing during the pandemic. As such, nihilist or existentialist stories on the topic of depression or suicide were not considered. Excellently written stories that focused on events such as the Tōhoku earthquake were selected, then deemed too triggering and subsequently dropped. As mentioned, the learners were permitted to analyze any text of their choosing for their final assessments without opposition.

The following section will briefly discuss four texts used in the course. It will also analyze general responses from the learners in their literary circle discussions and essays, demonstrating the student's interpretations of the stories and thus the 'text-worlds' the prose activated.

Text 1: 'Factory Town'

Factory town is a 'short short' story written by Minoru Betsuyaku in 1973. The text chosen for the class was the English translation by Royall Tyler published in the Penguin Book of Japanese Short Stories (2018). The story is told in allegory form and utilizes an uncomplicated sentence structure. The story is set in an unspoiled, self-sustaining village where a new factory is suddenly situated. Initially, the residents – unfamiliar with industrialization – are impressed with the unique appearance of the factory and the work ethic of its workers, though soon become overwhelmed with the smoke that emits from the factory's chimneys. The heterodiegetic narration shifts its focus from nameless townspeople, the town mayor and the factory chief. It is revealed that the factory produces cough drops, a product the townspeople are satisfied with due to the demand the smoke of the chimneys has created.

Though the language of the story is simple, there is lexis that learners can recycle in the activities and add to their

active vocabulary, such as the adjectives 'idyllic' and 'self-sufficient'.

Though learners are led to the general idea of the text as an allegory of modernization and industrialization in Japan, many read scenes in different ways, meaning the readings are authentic rather than manufactured. Some stated they found the story 'funny', while others commented they found it 'sad'. Some drew parallels with the environmental messages within Ghibli movies. The majority, however, commented that the story is still of great significance to Japan, a country that underwent rapid post-war industrial development and continues to modernize. Especially, students from rural areas of Japan expressed the most unhappiness with the industrialist's actions in the story, clearly demonstrating how their sociopolitical identity mapped their reading experienced.

Text 2: 'The Lonesome Bodybuilder'

The Lonesome Bodybuilder is a short story written by Yukiko Motoya, published in English in a short story collection by the same name in 2018. It was translated into English by Asa Yoneda. The narration is written in the first person from the perspective of a Japanese housewife. Feeling neglected by her husband, the narrator takes up bodybuilding, though as she continues to physically grow, her husband does not notice the changes.

As the story is contemporary and written in minimalist prose, this story was chosen for a module where female identity in Japan was explored.

The story offered rich opportunities for vocabulary acquisition. Nouns such as *physique*, *workaholic* and *neglected* were explored, as well as noun phrases such *radical change* and idiomatic phrases like *put on a brave face*, *swing by* (the pharmacy) and *out of kilter*.

With minimal direction in the discussions, most students picked up on the scene where the narrator enters the gym for the first time and expresses her intention to begin bodybuilding, to be met by surprise by her eventual trainer who claims that it is unusual for women to train for anything but weight loss.

The learners mostly understood the story is a comment on the female role in society, with many explaining that it is a societal expectation for a woman to be effeminate and demure. The fact that the narrator is engaging in such a masculine hobby, along with her husband's failure to notice her bodily changes, sees the narrator gradually and intentionally lose her femininity.

Many also highlighted the trainer telling the narrator that the world of bodybuilding is lonely, and thus uses bodybuilding as a metaphor for social isolation.

The following are paraphrased ideas from learners' essays, demonstrating the different stimulated text-worlds:

In this story, Motoya wants to tell the readers it is important to live your life without being bound by social and gender prejudices.

The scene where the narrator comes home from the supermarket and about to cook dinner suggests the husband and wife live in a conventional relationship of the husband working and the wife staying home...The gender division of labor and social expectations rob women of their identity.

The fact she did not want to show her husband her bodybuilding poses and expressions suggests females have a side they do not want to reveal to their partners, perhaps out of lack of confidence or shame.

The scene where her manager infers her enlarged state as pregnancy or a side effect of medication or a hormone imbalance comments on social expectations of women: Women should be slender and smaller than men.

Texts 3 & 4: 'Carp' and 'Mr Carp'

Later in the course, two short stories were analyzed for comparison: *Carp* by Masuji Ibuse and *Mr Carp* by Kuniko Mukoda. *Carp* was originally published in 1926 and was translated by John Bester. *Mr Carp* was published in the mid-to-late Shōwa period and was translated by Tomone Matsumoto. Both stories were taken from the Oxford Book of Japanese Short stories (1997).

Carp is written in first person narration. The narrator reminisces on the white carp he received as a gift from his friend Aoki. As he has nowhere to keep it, he releases it into the pond of Aoki's mistress. Six years later, Aoki dies, and the narrator retrieves the carp to release it in the Waseda University swimming pool.

Mr Carp is written from the perspective of a male protagonist named Shiomura, who receives a carp in a bucket outside his family's house that he realizes belonged to his former mistress.

These two stories generated perhaps the most interesting and diverse readings from the learners.

First, learner insight on *Carp*'s narrator differed greatly. Some learners characterized him as 'loyal' and 'a good friend' for keeping his promise of taking care of the carp

after his friend died, while others focused on the narrator's initial irritation and used words such as 'selfish' and 'self-centered' to describe his personality.

Most learners understood the carp represented the friendship between the narrator and Aoki, and many drew attention to the additional metaphorical significance of its color. For Japanese, a carp is a representation of love and friendship, while the color white represents physical and spiritual purity. Though archaically the color may also relate to death and mourning, this was not raised. Many drew comparisons of the white color to the innocence of young friendships.

The following are paraphrased ideas from learners' essays, again demonstrating unique perspectives developed from their readings:

It is embarrassing to convey love, which is why the narrator distanced himself from the carp so often.

I think the Narrator had stronger feelings toward Aoki than just friendship.

The repeated use of the color white represents loneliness and emptiness after losing a friend.

The main character believes the spirit of Aoki is within the carp. This represents the animistic mindset Japanese have.

Aoki chose a carp as they are animals with particularly long lifespans. This represents Aoki's desire to continue living, even if it is only in the memory of the narrator.

It is particularly important to note that it was during these talks that learners seemed to be the most socially and affectively engaged (Svalberg, 2009) with the text and discussion. Indeed, learner agency was heavily evident as learners explained the relevance of carps and color to Japanese culture. Although the concept was not brought up in discussion, the essay that framed *Carp* through the lens of Animism and religion in Japan was particularly authoritative.

Mr Carp also generated distinct readings in the discussion and essay responses. The reason the Carp was left with Shiomura by his former mistress is not directly communicated in the story due to focalization from Shiomura's viewpoint. Learner speculation on the mistress's actions ranged from her wanting to remind him of the affair, inform him she is moving on, demonstrate her jealousy of his family or to simply cause trouble.

When Shiomura returns home with his son after visiting the area where his mistress lived, they find the carp dead in its tank. Though the son asks if the mother killed

it, she denies this. It is unclear from the story whether the wife killed the fish or not, and the class was mostly split when posed with the question. Some learners used evidence from the story to support their stance. For example, one learner noted that the daughter had extremely good hearing and would have heard her mother killing the fish. Many assumed the wife was aware of the affair and the carp's association with it.

The following are paraphrased ideas from learners' essays:

The carp represents Shiomura's regret of the affair.

The carp represents the love that still exists between Shiomura and his mistress.

Men think their wives are unaware of their infidelity, but the killing of the fish is a manifestation of the Japanese tradition of using indirect expressions to communicate.

In Japanese society, wives are very often emotionally hurt by their husbands, but they secretly solve it.

The Carp is an incarnation of Shiomura's mistress. At the end of the story, she may have died drowning in the Kasumigaura Lake at the same time as the carp. (In the story, Shiomura pictured her drowning herself in the lake due to the failure of their affair, but soon dismissed this as an egocentric assumption)

As can be seen, diverse opinions on the metaphorical meaning of the carp were offered. Strong opinions on infidelity and communication strategies in Japanese society were also provided, as again were parallels between the story and Japanese religion. By this time, learners were confident enough to authoritatively offer their own interpretations and looked outside of the texts for cultural references that supported their readings.

Conclusion

As is evidenced, literature can facilitate critical and analytical discourse behaviors in foreign language production. According to text-world theory, learners use their mental scripts and schema to visualize the story and utilize those representations to formulate interpretations. When a literary text is more accessible to the learner in terms of familiar settings, situations, culture and philosophies, it reduces the burdens of non L1-reading and maximizes the potential for student-centered language practice. Japanese learners can

apply their cultural schemas to the story for not only comprehension, but also the capacity to explain it from the perspectives of their knowledge and sociocultural identity. In other words, a richer mental text-world may increase a learner's understanding of a narrative and confidence to offer interpretations that may differ from those of other learners.

Many Japanese university students are globally aware and culturally inquisitive. Though as young individuals, their cultural schemas are still maturing. If the goal of any language course is to promote open and engaged dialogue, asking learners to discuss *their* culture is an effective strategy, and using literature that reflects that culture and encourages learners to express it through their unique readings and voices has so far generated engaging and successful classes.

References

- Giovanelli, M. & Mason, J. (2018) 'Well I don't feel that': Schemas, worlds and authentic reading in the classroom. *English in Education*. 49 (1). 41-55
- Hillis, M. (2021). Crossing Borders: Going from Poetry to News before Coming Back. *Journal of Literature in language Teaching*. 10 (1). 21 - 26
- Kelen, C. (2014) Process and product, means and ends: Creative writing in Macao. In Disney, D (ed). *Exploring second language creative writing: Beyond Babel*. John Benjamins publishing
- Lazar, G. (1993). *Literature and language teaching: A guide for teachers and trainers*. Cambridge University Press.
- Paramour, A. (Nd) Using literature in ELT. Retrieved May 13 2021 from: <http://fdslive.oup.com/www.oup.com/elt/teachers/generalcontent/focus-papers/using-literature-in-elt-focus-paper.pdf>
- Scott, J. (2013). *Creative writing and stylistics: Creative and critical approaches*. Palgrave Macmillan

Svalberg, A. M. (2009) Engagement with language: Interrogating a construct. *Language awareness*. 18 (3). 242-258.

Walker, M. (1997) Authentic Assessment in the Literature Classroom. *The English Journal*. 86 (1). 69-73.

Widdowson, H. G. (1983). Talking Shop: Literature and ELT. *ELT Journal*, 37 (1). 30-35.

Literary Texts Cited

Betsuyaku, M. (2018) Factory Town (R. Tyler, Trans.) in J. Rubin (Ed.) *The Penguin book of Japanese short stories*. Penguin Random House

Ibuse, M. (1997). Carp (J. Bester, Trans.). In T.W. Goosen (Ed.) *The Oxford book of Japanese short stories*. Oxford University Press.

Motoya, Y. (2018). *The Lonesome Bodybuilder* (A. Yoneda, Trans.). Soft Skull. (Original work published in 2015).

Mukoda, K. (1997). Mr. Carp (T. Matsumoto, Trans.). In T.W. Goosen (Ed.) *The Oxford book of Japanese short stories*. Oxford University Press.

Moving Towards Higher Quality Materials Development in Japan

Niall Walsh

Aichi Prefectural University

mullingarman@gmail.com

Brian Cullen

Nagoya Institute of Technology

cullen.brian@gmail.com

This paper builds upon earlier survey research from Walsh and Cullen (2021) that investigated the materials development approaches of a sample of EFL teachers in Japan. A major limitation of that study that prompted the current one was its failure to spotlight the detailed practices of individual teachers. Through case studies, the real-life experiences of four experienced teachers are documented. The results reflect the previous study's data insofar as the main challenges are a lack of time and resources. Additionally, material developers generally do not follow a principled framework when constructing or evaluating their materials, nor is there much awareness of research or models in the wider fields beyond EFL, such as education and instructional design. Based on these results, the paper concludes with potential solutions for how the language teaching profession in Japan can support materials developers and mobilize the whole profession towards producing higher quality materials.

本論文は日本で働いている EFL 教師の教材作成アプローチを調べた Walsh & Cullen (2021) による研究の延長線上にある。前研究はアンケートで行い、その制限の一つは、個々の教師の実践にスポットライトを当てることができなかったことであった。今回の研究ではケーススタディを使用し、経験豊富な教師の 4 人の経験をしらべた。結果は前回と同じく、時間とリソースの不足であることが示されている。さらに教材作成者は一般的に、教材の作成または評価する際にフレームワークを使わず、EFL 以外の幅広い分野（教育、インストラクショナルデザインなど）の研究やモデルについての認識もあまり参考にしなかった。本論文の最後には、教材作成者の声に基づいて、日本の語学学会（JALT, JACET など）がより高品質の教材作成に向けて作成者をサポートできるように具体案を提供した。

Materials development has been described as all the processes made use of by practitioners who produce and/or use materials for language learning, including materials evaluation, their adaptation, design, production, exploitation, and research. Ideally, all of these processes should be given consideration and should interact in the making of language-learning materials.

Tomlinson (2012; 143-144)

A key point, therefore, is that materials development should have a pedagogic purpose and principled development to ultimately promote language learning. In many classrooms, materials take the form of textbooks and are an integral part of second language learning. Despite their prevalence, the debate over the effectiveness of textbooks has polarized many

language practitioners. Objectors point to a myriad of problems that include the textbook's restrictive and global nature that constricts teacher initiative and ignores local needs. On the other hand, proponents cite textbooks' principled designs and time-saving qualities for busy teachers. For a comprehensive analysis of the arguments for and against textbooks, see McGrath (2013). In practice, research by Tomlinson (2010) and Saw (2016) suggests that most teachers are frustrated with their textbooks as those surveyed were critical of their current ones. Saw (2016) explains that over 95% of respondents supplement their textbooks with other material. In fact, McGrath's (2013) synopsis of the literature on materials concluded most teachers should adapt their materials to suit the learner. EFL teachers could borrow supplementary material from other sources or commit to creating their own materials. Ideally, any supplementary materials selected would

have already been rigorously constructed using systematic procedures that optimize language learning. Alternatively, whether through choice or necessity, the teacher must initiate and execute the development process themselves. Despite McGrath's conclusion (2013) that all the literature endorses teachers to supplement materials, Tomlinson and Masuhara (2018) report there is little documentation on the actual processes EFL teachers navigate as they design their materials. Therefore, the extent to which teachers apply principled procedures from a pedagogic point of view is largely unknown. The shortage of empirical studies documenting the planning and execution processes of EFL teachers is striking considering that materials are one of the core tools of language learning. Without a better understanding of how teachers create their learning materials, it is unlikely that the EFL profession in Japan can move effectively towards developing higher-quality, more effective learning materials. Previous research by the current authors (Walsh and Cullen, 2021) identified this gap in the literature and reported on a survey to teachers in Japan about common approaches used in developing EFL materials.

Summary of Previous Research

Research by Walsh and Cullen (2021) attempted to clarify three issues pertaining to materials development for language learning in Japan. Firstly, it looked at teachers' attitudes towards EFL textbooks as opposed to teacher-developed materials. Secondly, it questioned teachers on major difficulties they encounter with materials development. Finally, it asked if respondents adhered to a materials development framework.

The previous study revealed that 80% of respondents (N=20) were satisfied with the coursebook they were using. This is in sharp contrast to data reported by Tomlinson (2010), who discovered that 78% of his respondents were not satisfied with the coursebook being used. Similarly, the majority of Saw's (2016) respondents in Myanmar and the United Kingdom perceived coursebooks as dull, with 95% choosing to create supplementary material to enhance the learning experience. However, the initial findings of Walsh and Cullen (2021) of a high level of satisfaction with coursebooks may provide a false narrative as further probing revealed that most respondents in their study also have a preference for designing their own materials.

The data revealed some of the many challenges teachers face in developing their own materials. Limited time was the major barrier to materials development among the respondents. This was followed by problems in establishing the appropriate level and constructing innovative materials that appeal to the students.

On the topic of adhering to a materials development framework when creating materials, there was a clear discrepancy between teachers who are guided by a framework and those that are not. 55% of respondents indicated that they had used a framework, while 45% responded that they had never followed one.

Finally, Walsh and Cullen (2021) identified and summarized four commonly reported approaches to materials development among the respondents.

A theory-informed approach in which the developer is acutely aware that materials development is a methodological process requiring careful planning.

A practical approach that is primarily goal-driven and involves a lot of trial and error with different materials in the classroom.

A curriculum-driven approach in which the materials are largely imposed by the school or education board.

A personal approach in which the teachers develop materials based on their specialty or interests.

While this survey-based research was a useful starting point for investigating the processes of materials development for a sample of teachers, one limitation was the failure to spotlight the precise materials development practices of individual teachers. Subsequently, the current study aims to probe the real-life practices of EFL teachers through more detailed case studies.

The Case Studies

The research embedded itself within a collective case study with multiple voices providing insights into materials development. Collective case studies have been lauded as they can allow for more comprehensive conclusions to be drawn on a particular area being studied (Lieberman, 2000).

The participants in this study, four experienced EFL teachers with over ten years of teaching experience in Japanese universities (see Appendix A for biodata), had also taken part in our earlier study and were selected based on their experience in the field. For these case studies they were asked to respond to an initial questionnaire (see Appendix B) that included both open- and closed-ended questions. The respondents were asked to comment on their interactions with EFL materials and materials development frameworks. Given that the objective was to extrapolate detailed accounts of materials development processes from previous research, questions were similar to those in Walsh and Cullen (2021) but allowed for more complete responses. The questionnaire was designed using Google Forms, and the data was collated automatically in a spreadsheet.

Additionally, respondents were invited to a subsequent interview to expand upon their responses during the first questionnaire.

Analysis of the Case Studies

The findings from the case studies broadly reflect those reported in Walsh and Cullen (2021). As previously found, the greatest challenge of materials development expressed by the four respondents was an insufficient amount of time in which to develop them. While lamenting the absence of time to create materials, Respondent 2 is frustrated by a lack of multimedia resources. Respondent 3 reports that selecting and translating vocabulary for a topic is particularly time-consuming. A further challenge is choosing topics that are "accessible and interesting to students and to provide opportunities for a diversity of student research projects."

Concerning the use of frameworks in scaffolding materials development, three out of four respondents reported they have never used an established materials development framework. Only Respondent 2 had adhered to a framework, "ADDIE, the Morrison, Ross and Kemp model" and only "rarely." Additionally, Respondent 2 mentioned that he created his own framework to follow.

Regarding the attitudes of respondents to the use of textbooks as opposed to developing their own materials, the responses reflect the findings from Walsh and Cullen (2021) insofar as respondents, while acknowledging the value of a carefully selected textbook, are slightly cautious of their inclusion as the sole resource in the language classroom as most agree that a textbook is never enough. Respondent 1 points out that textbooks and teacher developed materials are "not mutually exclusive... Textbooks do a lot of the work for you, but, by themselves, are NEVER, ever enough." Respondent 2 is conflicted by the choice and struggles to provide an answer. He distinguishes between an "ideal world" and "reality" and says "in an ideal world, where I only teach courses that I am interested in and have all the time and resources in the world, then I would only create my own materials." He continues to state that in reality, creating materials from scratch is not always attainable but that he tends to prioritize creating his own materials for classes that fall within his areas of expertise or interests and ones that can be recycled in other classes.

Another interesting comment from Respondent 2 is external factors impinge on EFL teachers in Japan. For example, as a non-tenured lecturer on a short-term contract, most of the initial time in a new job is spent "learning how to fit in at the new school and teaching classes is my second (or even third) priority. After I am

feeling comfortable at the new university, then I will begin to write new materials." Similarly, as a part-time lecturer at some institutions, he reports that he has little input into the materials development process as he is "assigned a textbook, given the teaching schedule, and given the evaluation method." Respondent 3 prefers to use a coursebook that he developed and cautions that "there are too many [textbooks] that I think aren't as fit for purpose as I would like." Respondent 4 does not "mind coursebooks that align well with my goals," but she "generally supplements textbooks" with her own material.

On the topic of approaches, Respondent 1 replied that he is not familiar with the theory behind material development but guesses that there "are some decent ones out there." Respondent 2 points out that each approach is not "mutually exclusive," and their application depends on the teaching context at any given time. Respondent 2 stresses that whatever approach he uses, "the first rule of materials writing for EFL is to make things that students both can and will do." Respondent 3 believes his approach generally depends on the teaching goal. For example, a curriculum approach is suited towards CLIL courses, where the teacher establishes "what the students ... ought to know." In a similar vein, Respondent 4 varies her approach based on context but has a preference for a personal approach focusing on "topics relevant to life", which provide stimulating content.

Comparing Actual Development Process with a Materials Development Framework

To understand the lived materials development processes of respondents, each was asked to consider their own materials development process using an established six-step framework (Jolly and Bolitho, 2010). Table 1 summarizes the steps from the framework and how it is considered by the respondents.

Table 1

Comparing Actual Development Processes with Jolly and Bolitho (2010)

Step	Summary
Step 1: Identification of a Need	All respondents acknowledge that they start by identifying the needs and goals of the students, whether it be teacher or curriculum determined.
Step 2: Exploration of Language	All respondents include this step and consider the language needed, for example, grammar, vocabulary and genre, before creating the materials. However, respondent 3 expresses frustration that this is a difficult step that he still needs to master.
Step 3: Contextual Realization	All respondents report that they imagine a suitable context for embedding the language, for example, through conversations, role-plays, debates, and readings. Respondent 1 indicates that this step can be challenging, while Respondent 2 says he has little input into this stage as it is set by the curriculum.
Step 4: Pedagogical Realization	Each respondent considers how materials are to be used in the classroom to achieve the goals. Respondent 1 notes that this step extends beyond the classroom to encompass use for self-study, review, and on-demand learning.
Step 5: Physical Production and Use in the Classroom	All respondents create materials in a way that can be accessed by the students. Respondent 1 points to the changing nature of material production away from traditional printed materials to technology-enabled paperless materials such as html5 widgets. Respondent 3 stresses that the materials need to be "visually easy to navigate and not confusing to use." All respondents use their materials in the classroom.
Step 6: Evaluation of Materials	Three respondents say that they evaluate their materials at various stages of the process. Respondent 1 points to the impact of technology because teachers can observe students in real-time and collect quantitative data. Respondent 3, who produces materials for other teachers' use, comprehensively evaluates the materials used through collaboration with the teaching team. Only Respondent 4 comments that she "doesn't always" evaluate the materials that she uses.

Suggestions for Raising the Quality of Materials Development in Japan

As shown in Table 1, the respondents follow the framework's steps to some degree, but the responses often indicated a lack of confidence and expertise in developing materials. Respondent 2 raised the very good question, "if they aren't using a materials development framework, why aren't they?" which prompted us to ask the respondents for recommendations as to what can be done to ensure quality materials are produced. Based on the responses, follow-up questions and the overall data, the sections below offer some concrete suggestions on how professional language teacher associations such as JALT, JACET, ETJ, and other organizations can better mobilize the whole profession towards producing higher quality materials. Below, these are collectively referred to as *associations*.

Raise the Quality of Research and Knowledge

Respondent 2 succinctly described his two "pet peeves" about the field:

One, so much of what is being written is just passed on as truth and not critically reflected on, there is so much bad research out there, and two that we seem to be in a bubble where what else is going on in the academic, educational, psychological, and even linguistics fields just pass us by.

What can associations do to encourage teachers to look to the wider research field in order to go beyond this bubble? There is indeed a whole established academic field devoted to materials creation called Instructional Design (ID) that produces models focused on the topic of how to write learning materials. ADDIE (Branson et al., 1975), for example, is considered the original materials design framework that all modern models are based on. Its five steps are Analysis, Design, Development, Implementation and Evaluation (ADDIE). Unfortunately, the field of EFL, including the framework developed by Jolly and Bolitho, often takes little heed of this wider field. While language teaching may undoubtedly be considered a unique form of teaching and learning and deserving of its own distinctive model(s) for materials creation, these models could benefit by being grounded in the larger field of ID.

Respondent 4 suggests that associations should "incentivize it." Many teachers want their names on papers and books so that they can hold onto their jobs, improve their skills, or move up. Associations can set up mechanisms to get people involved in putting together practical summaries of research fields such as ID and giving them credit for it. These summaries can be shared through publications, online videos and workshops. By giving people recognition, both the teacher and the knowledge base of the whole profession can gain.

Associations can also raise the level of knowledge in the profession by providing a greater focus on materials development in their publications and events. Every language teacher has a direct professional interest in learning materials and could benefit from greater knowledge of the fundamentals of the field.

Provide Better Training for Teachers

Our respondents all noted that most teachers and materials designers are not formally trained in materials development and are drawing on their own experiences of teaching. Respondent 2 says:

I would argue that most ESL/EFL teachers are untrained and therefore likely to be writing materials based on intuition, etc. The same way that they teach based on intuition. No one ever taught them how to write materials, so they make it up as they go.

Respondent 1 says that he is not familiar with the theory behind material development but guesses that there "are some decent ones out there." How can associations raise awareness of these "decent ones?" Respondent 4 recommends having very practical workshops led by an experienced and theory-aware materials writer as chapter presentations or online workshops. These could lead to the creation of a series of online workshops or videos by experts in the field to introduce the current state of knowledge and practices in a particular area such as Instructional Design.

Teachers designing materials often begin with their own enthusiasm and knowledge about a particular area while possibly ignoring the specific language needs of their students. Certainly, enthusiasm and knowledge must be maintained in the classroom, but ideally, they are channeled into a principled framework with a concise pedagogical objective to meet the needs of the learners. How can associations provide support for teachers so that they can utilize their enthusiasm within a principled framework that leads to quality learning experiences for students? Again, workshops can be used to connect enthusiasm and existing knowledge to principles and frameworks. Expert material writers can create standards, what we might call the lowest common denominator for texts, for example, having the

teachers in the workshop specify a list of grammar points, reading skills, vocabulary, or other learning targets that are potentially covered by a text and its related learning activities. While it may be difficult to come up with a definitive list of what learners will learn from any specific set of materials, even an attempt to identify the learning points is extremely valuable in raising teacher awareness and will help teachers to develop more effective materials. Workshops should remind teachers that it is important to utilize their enthusiasm and expertise, but the pedagogical goal is to make sure students learn.

Provide Feedback and Vetting for Materials

Teachers often create their materials alone or in a small group and may get insufficient feedback on their materials from other teachers or experts in the field. Respondent 4 recommends that associations set up a group of vetters who are willing to look at materials to see if they are fulfilling the basic standards. The vetters would follow standards and provide constructive criticism of the materials so that the teacher can improve and refine them. When a teacher's materials do get vetted, and they become more knowledgeable of standards, they can eventually be encouraged to act ethically and support other writers by vetting their materials at some future point. In this way, a vibrant standards-based community can be slowly established.

Share Resources to Reduce Time Required

A lack of time is a major impediment to material design. Respondent 1 noted that "Audio and video production will eat up years of your life when you do it yourself." It used to be difficult to source photographs that could be used in materials without copyright issues arising. Sites like Pixabay have made this considerably easier, but having a dedicated site hosted by associations could be more powerful. Teachers could use it to share photos, videos, audio and exercises that they have created. These could be tagged so that they are easily searchable.

Share Skills with other Teachers

Another major barrier for developing materials is a lack of skills, and skill-sharing is a very modern, effective solution. For example, if you have a project that needs a large number of listening scripts to be recorded, it can be a daunting task for a single teacher, but by crowdsourcing it, some teachers can record segments and send the audio easily. The technology to do this is now available on everyone's smartphone and has been used effectively by existing sites like

breakingenglish.com. Other skills that can be shared include layout, video production, photography, discipline-specific expertise, and so much more.

Encourage Institutions to Give Longer Employment Contracts

Murray (2013) and others have talked about the stress caused by short-term employment contracts at schools and universities in Japan. This has a strong negative impact on teachers' ability to create materials, as evidenced by Respondent 2's response:

Last year my contract ran out, and I moved to a new university from April. When I have to do this, my first priority is learning how to fit in at the new school and teaching classes is my second (or even third) priority. After I am feeling comfortable at the new university, then I will begin to write new materials.

Employment contracts are a complex issue and not one that can be easily resolved, but it is surely one of the associations' roles to improve the perception of language teachers and to aim to improve their working conditions. Respondent 4 replies practically that:

If an association starts acting like a union, they are going to scare institutions away. They won't like being told how to manage their staff. Instead, the association could set up their own SIG or resource center composed of admins at universities and schools who can provide good information based on their own experience and insider knowledge in order to help individual teachers in learning how to best deal professionally and effectively with institutions.

This type of structure within an association could be a very useful resource. On a more formal level, the association may not be able to advocate directly for longer contracts, but it can potentially work indirectly and in conjunction with other associations and teacher unions to help institutions understand that short-term contracts are in nobody's best interest, and they are impacting on teacher dedication and student learning.

Limitations

While offering an insight into the lived experiences of four experienced EFL teachers in Japan, this study does have limitations. First, the number of case studies is small, making it difficult to draw definite conclusions that would be better justified with empirical data based on a larger number of cases. The respondents were all experienced teachers in tertiary education, which represents only a part of the diverse nature of the EFL industry. Future work should aim to include a wider diversity of respondents. Despite these limitations, the researchers believe the findings are beneficial as they

have led to the concrete suggestions outlined in the previous section.

Conclusion

To summarize, based upon our previous research and these case studies, materials development in Japan needs a more solid foundation to overcome the current shortage of time, resources, and expertise. To achieve this, measures such as workshops to improve the quality of research and practice; mechanisms for feedback, sharing resources, and skill-sharing, and encouraging institutions to give longer employment contracts must be considered. If these actions are taken, then the EFL industry in Japan will eventually move to higher quality materials, and our learners will be the eventual winners.

References

- Branson, R.K.; Rayner, G.T.; Cox, J.L.; Furman, J.P.; King, F.J.; Hannum, W.H. (1975). Interservice procedures for instructional systems development. TRADOC Pam 350-30, NAVEDTRA 106A Vol. 1-5 ed.). Fort Monroe, VA.
- Jolly, D., & Bolitho, R. (2011). A framework for materials writing. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *Materials development in language teaching* (pp. 107-134). Cambridge University Press.
- Lieberson, S. (2000). *Small N's and big conclusions. Case study method. Key issues, key texts.* London, England: Sage, 208-222.
- McGrath, I. (2013). *Teaching materials and the roles of EFL/ESL teachers: Practice and theory.* London, England: Bloomsbury.
- Murray, A. (2013). Teacher burnout in Japanese higher education. *The Language Teacher*, 37(4), 51-54.

Saw, T. S. (2016). Evaluating the external materials used for cultural elements in ELT course-books through teacher perception of teaching and learning. Unpublished PhD thesis. University of Essex.

Tomlinson, B. (2010). What do teachers think about EFL textbooks? *Modern English teacher*, 19(4), 5-9.

Tomlinson, B. (Ed.). (2011). *Materials development in language teaching* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Tomlinson, B. (2012). Materials development for language learning and teaching. *Language teaching*, 45(2), 143-179.

Appendix A:

Respondent Biodata

Respondent	Workplace	Gender	Materials Development Experience
1	University	Male	Over 10 years
2	University	Male	Over 10 years
3	University	Male	7-10 years
4	University	Female	Over 10 years

Appendix B: Questionnaire

Section 1: General Information

Q1. What is/are your teaching context(s)?

University

Senior High School

Junior High School

Elementary School

Kindergarten

English Language School

Private Language Teacher

Other

Q.2 How much experience do you have in developing your own ESL materials?

less than 1 year

1 - 3 years

4 - 6 years

7 - 10 years

Over 10 years

Q3. Have you ever used a framework to help create your ESL materials?

Yes

No

Q4. If you have used a materials development framework, could you please identify which one you used?

Section 2: Jolly and Bolitho Framework

In this section, we are exploring how well Jolly and Bolitho's (2011) seven-step framework describes the process that you are following in developing materials. For each step, please read the description. Then write whether this describes your process. At the end, you will have a chance to describe other things that you do.

Step 1. Identification of a Need

The teacher establishes the goal of the learning materials. (What do the learners need to learn? Is it for general English, academic English, English for tourism, ESP, or some other area?)

Step 2. Exploration of Language

The teacher considers the language functions, grammar, vocabulary, genre, and so on that are required to fulfil the need.

Step 3. Contextual realization

The teacher imagines a suitable context for embedding the language practice tasks, for example, conversations, role plays, readings and so on.

Step 4. Pedagogical Realization

The teacher considers how the materials are actually going to be used in the classroom in a way that will achieve the goal.

Step 5. Physical Production

The teacher creates the materials in paper or digital form in a way that can be accessed by learners.

Use in Classroom

The learning materials are used in the classroom with the students.

Step 6. Evaluation of Materials

The teacher evaluates the materials prior to using them, whilst using them and post using them.

Section 3: Other

Q. What do you find most challenging about materials development? You can write your own comments in the next question.

Not enough time to develop materials

Difficult to think of ideas for materials

Difficult to know the appropriate level for students

Q. What do you find most challenging?

Q. Given the choice, would you prefer to use a coursebook or develop your own materials? Explain.

Q. In earlier research, we identified four approaches to Materials Development. Which of these best describe your own approach? You can write your own comments in the next question.

Theory-Informed Approach

Practical Approach

Curriculum-Centered Approach

Guided by Own Interest

Q. Please explain your approach to materials development.

Q. Any other comments about materials development?

Self-report and Heart Rate: Examining the Need for Integrating Measures of Japanese College Entrance Examination Test Anxiety

Jonathan Shachter
Kyushu Sangyo University

Traced back to the existence of a perceived threat, students with test anxiety (TA) will experience varying levels of cognitive, physiological, and/or behavioral responses. Depending on the degree of a particular response or combination of responses, a student's academic performance can be negatively impacted. When TA affects outcomes on "high-stakes" Japanese university college-entrance examinations, for example, future prospects can be permanently altered. Moreover, if testing systems do not factor in the existence of TA, the validity of the test itself is open to criticism because a test anxious student's IQ may not be accurately assessed. For these reasons, it is my view that the nature and measurement of TA should be carefully scrutinized. In the following narrative review, (a) the high-stakes testing system in Japan, (b) the relationship between anxiety, performance and flow, and (c) the background of TA research will be discussed. The final section addresses the main aim of this narrative review, which is to assess the value of integrating self-reported measures of Japanese college entrance examination TA with heart rate response.

テスト不安 (TA) を持つ学生は、脅威の存在を認識することで、さまざまなレベルの認知的、生理的、行動的反応を経験することになります。特定の反応や反応の組み合わせの度合いによって、学生の学業成績にマイナスの影響を与えることがあります。例えば、日本の大学入試のような「ハイステークステスト」の結果に TA が影響を及ぼすと、将来の見通しが永久に変わってしまう可能性があります。また、TA の存在を考慮しない試験制度では、IQ を正確に評価できない可能性があるため、試験そのものの妥当性が批判されることになります。このような理由から、TA の性質と測定方法は慎重に吟味されるべきであると私は考えています。以下のナラティブレビューでは、(a) 日本におけるハイステークステスト制度、(b) 不安とパフォーマンスとフローとの関係、(c) TA 研究の背景について論じます。最後のセクションでは、このナラティブレビューの主な目的である、日本の大学入試 TA の自己申告による測定と心拍反応とを統合することの価値を評価することに言及します。

Tracing its origins to the 1950s, test anxiety (TA) has been a particular area of interest for parents, educators and psychologists alike (Mandler & Sarason, 1952; Tobias, 1985; Hodapp et al., 2011). Manifesting as self-perceived levels of threat or pressure during evaluative scenarios, TA can trigger cognitive, physiological, and behavioural responses (Fairclough et al., 2006). The level or intensity in which an individual experiences TA can negatively affect academic performance (Hembree, 1988; Roos et al., 2021). It is therefore crucial to ensure the validity of TA measuring systems (Zeidner & Matthews, 2003). Data drawn from effective TA measuring systems can aid researchers in (a) accurately identifying the extent to which TA impacts assessment outcomes, and (b) developing strategies to help test anxious students succeed. These dual goals are especially important when the stakes of a test are high. In Japan, the stakes of an entrance examination are significant — an individual's future success is linked to the name of the university attended and university

acceptance is predicated upon the results of a yearly national and/or school-specific "high-stakes" test (Saito, 2006).

In the following narrative review, historical models that have examined the effects of anxiety on performance will be investigated, and key validated measures that are commonly used in TA research studies will be discussed. Until recently, the majority of these TA measures have been self-reports (Daly et al., 2011). However, there are limitations to findings that draw conclusions exclusively using subjective measures (Coughlin, 1990; Flessati & Jamieson, 1991; Putwain & Daly, 2014). Consequently, there has been a call for integrating self-reports with more objective parameters, such as heart rate response (Ganster et al., 2018). To examine this issue further, the following will be reviewed: (a) the role of high-stakes testing in Japanese society, (b) the relationship between anxiety, performance and flow and (c) the background of TA

research. The main aim of this narrative review is to assess the value of integrating self-reported measures of Japanese college entrance examination TA with heart rate response. When considering physiological responses to stress (e.g., blood pressure, cortisol, etc.), heart rate was chosen because it is widely considered to be (a) the least obtrusive in data collection and (b) the least expensive to obtain for research purposes (Ganster et al., 2018).

High Stakes Testing in Japan

In Japan, the notion of who graduated from what university is a "national obsession" (Ono, 2007, p. 4). Although there are roughly 600 universities in Japan, 49% of CEOs listed in the Tokyo Stock Exchange graduated from the top 5 universities and 63% graduated from the top 10 (Ono, 2007). For context, Capelli and Hamori (2004) found that only 10% of CEOs in American Fortune 100 companies graduated from the 'Ivy League' (e.g., Harvard). In contrast to American universities where entrance is based on a variety of factors (SAT score, GPA, extracurricular activities, etc.), in Japan, the selection process is almost exclusively predicated upon a once-a-year school-specific college entrance exam (Saito, 2006). As a consequence, Japanese parents are confronted with the notion of 'a pathway to success', in which high-stakes testing, with long-reaching consequences, begins long before university. This pathway often starts by entering the premier middle and high school in their city, or even in some cases, a region (Saito, 2006; Ono, 2007). Premier high schools in Japan attain this status by publishing yearly rates of student acceptance to top tier universities. Acceptance into these premier middle and high schools is also determined by the results of a once-a-year school-specific entrance examination (Saito, 2006; Ono, 2007). "Success or failure on an entrance examination can influence a student's entire future, since the prospect of finding a good job depends on the school attended" (Johnson & Johnson, 1996, p. 2).

Even if a child has gained acceptance into a premier school, teachers do not have sufficient time in the year to cover the vast amount of content contained within a college entrance exam (Saito, 2006). For this reason, Japanese parents often spend a considerable amount of money on *juku* or cram schools. Cram schools are private study centres whose only function is to prepare students for college entrance examinations (Hawkins & Tanaka, 1992). Saito (2006) outlines a typical week where Japanese students will go straight from their 'regular school' to their cram school. They may eat a quick dinner at the center and stay there for private lessons and intensive study until late in the evening. As a result, students are often fatigued the following day and many will sleep through their regular school lessons. Teachers at regular schools allow this because they

understand that students must spend a considerable amount of time "cramming" information in the hopes of retaining it long enough to pass the exam.

It appears that Japanese university examination committees have placed a priority on knowledge retention. Prioritising the input and retention functions may be limited in scope, however, when considering the debilitating effects TA has on processing and output (Tobias, 1985). There will be a percentage of students who have retained knowledge at a high enough level to pass an exam, but end up failing due to their crippling levels of TA (Zeidner & Matthews, 2003). In Japan, this impediment will unfortunately have a direct and negative impact on future success. Some students choose a career path that does not require a college degree while others may become Ronin students.

While some Japanese high school students target one university, others may apply to multiple universities, take multiple entrance examinations, and then make their selection based on the test results. If a student (a) fails their preferred college's entrance examination, (b) fails their back-up schools, or (c) prefers not to attend their back-up school, they do have an opportunity to re-take their preferred college's examination the following year (Saito, 2006; Ono, 2007). However, during this timeframe they are considered Ronin — a negative connotative term commonly used in feudal Japan to describe a hired mercenary (Yamamoto, 2001). Unlike a 'true' Samurai, Ronin functioned outside society; and as a result, would lose the respect and connection with their local and national communities (Yamamoto, 2001). To 're-enter society', modern Ronin students may spend 1 - 2 years in specialty cram schools (at a considerable expense), preparing to retake their first-choice college entrance examination (Saito, 2006; Ono, 2007). Each time a Ronin student re-takes a college entrance examination the pressure will continue to mount — this accompanying anxiety may negatively affect performance outcomes. Perhaps, the Japanese high-stakes system is designed to reward students with the ability to perform under pressure, rather than those who truly understand the material. Understanding the relationship between anxiety, performance and flow may explain why some individuals reach their peak potential during pressure, while others crumble.

The relationship between anxiety, performance and flow

The basic tenets about the relationship between anxiety and performance can be traced back to 1908 when Yerkes and Dodson conducted a series of stimulus tests on mice. Their initial findings showed that moderate levels of stimulus correlated with peak task performance. Moreover, a bell-shaped curve was evident, in which very low, as well as very high, shock intensity were

associated with lower task performance. The relationship between stimulus levels and performance would later be known as the "inverted-U hypothesis" (Hebb, 1955, p. 250) or the Yerkes-Dodson 'Law' (Teigen, 1994, p. 528).

In 1955, Hebb introduced the concept of arousal, and highlighted a correlation between arousal and performance. Around the same time, Schlosberg (1954) and Duffy (1957) identified a curvilinear relationship between arousal (which they labelled activation) and performance (Teigen, 1994). This relationship was used to examine the efficiency and/or quality of a particular performance. Similar models by Hardy (1999) support the curvilinear relationship and the Yerkes-Dodson Law. While the relationship between arousal/activation/stimulation and peak performance continued to be a source of interest for psychologists throughout the 20th century (Deffenbacher et al., 1977; Martens et al., 1990), researchers also endeavoured to further understand performance failures.

A performance catastrophe (an extreme version of a performance failure) occurs when an individual's performance degrades to a total breakdown of physical and/or cognitive functioning (Hardy & Parfitt, 1991). Hardy (1999) proposed two theories aimed at explaining this phenomenon. The "process efficiency theory" states that cognitive anxiety may cause performers to divert resources and energy to "allay their concerns and fears" (Hardy, 1999, p. 227). So while performance may be maintained, there is an added psychological strain that requires increased effort from the performer. Over time, the stress of this increased effort may cause fatigue, which in turn may negatively affect performance. Hardy's second theory, named the "conscious processing hypothesis" (p. 227), suggests that when performers experience heightened levels of anxiety, a regression occurs to an earlier stage of skill development — this regression may cause more controlled movement and less flow. In contrast to a performance catastrophe, an individual can avoid debilitating cognitive and physical reactions by remaining "in flow" (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014, p. 90).

Flow occurs when task-essential cognitive and physical functioning becomes automatic (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Individuals enter this state by intensely focusing on the task at hand — when entering this state, a person loses awareness of their self-consciousness. Losing self-consciousness awareness allows performers to enter a "flow experience", whereby they become free of potential debilitating anxiety that may accompany evaluative scenarios (Csikszentmihalyi & Csikszentmihalyi, 1992; Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). While in a flow state, a performer's perception of time can be distorted (Nakamura & Csikszentmihalyi, 2014). Interest into how

individuals perform while in a flow state has spurred research over a wide range of fields, including e-sports (professional video game competitions).

In a recent publication, Schmidt et al. (2020) examined the effect of cortisol, flow and anxiety on performance during an e-sports tournament. Cortisol levels (measured via saliva) were collected at three points - just prior to game start, immediately following a game, and 30 minutes after a game. In addition to cortisol measures, the participants completed a survey called the "Flow Short Scale" (p. 1) following the game. The main function of the Flow Short Scale was to organise a player's responses into two categories: flow experience or anxiety. Referencing the cortisol results, physiological arousal was shown to increase significantly from baseline to postgame in all players. Similarly, self-reported flow experience represented a similar pattern across all competitors. When evaluating the cortisol results between the game winners and the losers, however, three arousal groups appeared: highest, median and lowest. The players who won most of their games (7 wins, 3 losses) had (comparatively) low to moderate physiological arousal. The middle group (4 wins, 3 losses) was classified as highly aroused. The players who had the lowest arousal performed the worst (1 win, 5 losses). Surprisingly, self-reported anxiety results did not correlate with arousal; notably, winners showed higher levels of anxiety than losers. Schmidt et al. (2020) concluded that optimal performance occurs when levels of anxiety exceed arousal.

Schmidt et al.'s (2020) results at least partially align with the Yerkes-Dodson Law/ inverted-U hypothesis in that a certain level of anxiety improves performance. Identifying precisely when (and how far) anxiety levels exceed arousal may help researchers pinpoint the time at which anxiety begins to adversely affect performance. This line of research may help a variety of individuals who are either looking to (a) reach peak performance, or (b) avoid performance catastrophes by staying in an optimal flow/competitive state. Research into the relationship between anxiety, arousal and performance is particularly relevant to formal testing situations, where TA can be debilitating for those taking a test.

Background of Test Anxiety Research

Test Anxiety (TA) is a unique construct of anxiety due to its multidimensional classification (Spielberger & Gonzalez, 1980; Fairclough, 2006; Daly et al. 2011). Defined as both a form of state anxiety and as a situation-specific personality trait, "trait test anxiety and evaluative situations may be seen as interacting to provoke states of anxiety" (Zeidner & Matthews, 2003, p. 2). This definition aligns with Fairclough et al.'s (2006) viewpoint, who indicate that reactions to TA can be

affected by situational factors as well as by trait dispositions. In particular, a person may have existing TA propensities (trait) which are augmented by levels of anxiety that arise during stress-inducing evaluative scenarios (state), or a person may not have existing TA traits and are only impacted by specific evaluative scenarios.

Interest in the degree to which anxiety affects academic performance can be traced to the research of Mandler and Sarason (1952). Using their Test Anxiety Questionnaire (TAQ) as a data collection tool, Mandler and Sarason found that test anxious students (as identified by the TAQ) performed significantly worse on academic assessments than their non-anxious counterparts. Mandler and Sarason posited that during assessments, two psychological drives emerge: task directed drives and anxiety drives. Task-directed drives stimulate task completion. In contrast, anxiety drives can trigger a variety of detrimental responses, which can include self-deprecating thoughts and urges to leave the test environment (Mandler & Sarason, 1952). For test anxious students, cognitive resources are spent on task irrelevant thoughts, notably ruminations, which were later found to be the main factor that explained the performance gap that existed between test anxious and task-directed students (Wine, 1971; Tobias, 1985; Zeidner, 2007). Task and anxiety drives were later classified by Alpert and Haber (1960) as facilitating and debilitating anxieties, respectively.

Mandler and Sarason (1952) designed the Test Anxiety Questionnaire (TAQ) to test their theory that task and anxiety drives (facilitating and debilitating anxieties) were separate entities and do not occur simultaneously. Alpert and Haber (1960) countered this position by claiming that people could experience various levels of facilitating and debilitating anxieties separately or simultaneously. Liebert and Morris (1967) further expanded the dimension of Alpert and Haber's (1960) debilitating TA theory by suggesting that task-irrelevant thinking (which Liebert and Morris (1967) called 'cognitive worry') was not the only component of debilitating test anxiety. Test anxious students were also said to experience autonomic reactions (i.e., accelerated heart rate, perspiration, shaking, etc.) — Liebert and Morris (1967) categorized all physiological reactions as 'autonomic-emotional responses' (which they labelled emotionality). From 1967, worry (i.e., task irrelevant ruminations) and emotionality (i.e., physiological responses) became the standard terminology used to define the two components of TA (Tobias, 1985; Hembree, 1988).

While there is still debate surrounding which component has a more negative impact on performance (e.g., Fairclough, 2006), Wine (1971) concluded that task irrelevant ruminations are more debilitating to the task drive than those related to "autonomic arousal" (p. 92).

This conclusion aligns with leading language learning anxiety researchers, who argue that worry reactions impact the diversion of cognitive resources more so than physiological responses (Tobias, 1985; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994, Woodrow, 2006). The components of worry and emotionality (Liebert & Morris, 1967) are the fundamental principles that comprise the "interference model of test anxiety" (Hembree, 1988, p. 48). Although Spielberger et al.'s (1980) Test Anxiety Inventory (TAI) continues to be one of the most popular self-report measures in the field (Roos et al., 2021), depending on the study, researchers may employ a variety of TA, state, and trait questionnaires (Zeidner & Matthews, 2003). Large-scale systematic reviews (Hembree, 1988; von der Embse et al., 2018) present significant evidence that TA has a debilitating effect on performance. The question remains, however, of how best to measure both worry and emotionality in any given testing situation, or whether such simultaneous measurement is needed at all.

Is there a need to integrate self-reported measures with heart rate response?

Effectively tracking the effects of TA can be complicated due to the interacting nature of the body's cognitive and physiological triggers (Fairclough, 2006; Ganster et al., 2018). The two components of TA, worry and emotionality, can separately impact performance. When they interact however, a performance catastrophe can occur. Performance catastrophes often involve a "vicious spiral" when debilitating internal ruminations cause physiological responses and vice versa (Fairclough, 2006, p. 45). Both internal ruminations and physiological responses can trigger the body's coping mechanisms (Ganster et al., 2018), and consequently, may result in the diversion of cognitive resources away from task-related functioning. If a researcher only collects self-reported TA measures (e.g., Spielberger et al.'s TAI), they may have difficulty arguing which component acted first. To better understand the elements of a vicious spiral, a researcher will need to determine (a) which component triggered what response, (b) at what time, and (c) to what degree. While some of these unknowns may be clarified with self-reported data, a combination of self-reported and physiological measures may be a more effective methodology (Zeidner & Matthews, 2003; Ganster et al., 2018).

There are a number of key validated measures that have been published in TA literature and which are commonly used in academic settings (e.g., Mandler & Seymour Sarason, 1952; Liebert & Morris, 1967; Spielberger, 1980; Hodapp, 1991; Cassady & Johnson, 2002, Hodapp et al., 2011). However, until recently, the majority of this body of work has focused primarily on

self-report measures. While measuring TA with questionnaires does have advantages (e.g., strong psychometric properties, cost, simplicity, etc.), there are limitations to conclusions drawn from findings that rely solely on self-reports (Zeidner & Matthews, 2003; Ganster et al., 2018). One of these limitations can be applied to the claim that TA produces a higher stress response in females.

One major criticism of self-reports revolves around the topic of "recall bias" (Coughlin, 1990, p. 87). Recall bias can be influenced by a number of factors including "time, personal characteristics, significance of events, social desirability, interviewing technique, and the design of questionnaires" (Coughlin, 1990, pp. 87-89). In regards to personal characteristics (i.e., age, nationality, gender etc.), in a comprehensive review of 562 TA studies from 1950 - 1986, Hembree (1988) noted that females consistently reported higher levels of TA than males. Moreover, after "level" (i.e., aptitude and/or experience), "sex" was listed as the second main cause of debilitating TA (Hembree, 1988, p. 60). Since 1988, these findings have been consistently corroborated (e.g., Putwain & Daly, 2014; Aydin, 2019). Although researchers agree that female respondents consistently report higher levels of TA (Hembree, 1988; Putwain & Daly, 2014; Aydin, 2019), some question the possibility of 'gender report bias' (Flessati & Jamieson, 1991; Lowe, 2014). Do females actually experience higher levels of TA than males, or are males underreporting their self-perceived anxiety levels?

Stoyanova and Hope (2012) suggest that males may be purposely underreporting their TA levels as a show of masculinity. By masking their fears, males avoid being labeled vulnerable or weak. This is in contrast to women, who may be more comfortable relaying their true fears. Studies have claimed that females experience higher levels of threat during math and science assessments (Araki, 1992; Satake & Amato, 1995; Devine et al., 2012). However, researchers may be discounting the possibility that females are more self-critical than males (Flessati & Jamieson, 1991; Harris et al., 2019). Without having a physiological measure, researchers cannot be certain that females physiologically experience TA differently than males, or whether they simply report it differently. Combined with the fact that TA is associated with both state and trait forms of anxiety (Zeidner & Matthews, 2003; Fairclough, 2006) there is a case to be made that a combination of self-reports and objective parameters may be a more effective way to measure TA.

As discussed previously, Japanese college entrance examinations have significant and long-term consequences. Students who fail these exams face the prospect of altering their career path, repeating a year of study, as well as re-taking the exam (Saito 2006; Ono, 2007). As a result, college entrance exams can be a highly anxiety-provoking situation, and in a worst-case

scenario, induce a performance catastrophe. During a performance catastrophe, physiological responses trigger worry ruminations, which in turn trigger further physiological responses. These anxiety responses can build in momentum, and all the while, continue to divert cognitive resources away from task relevant functioning (Fairclough et al., 2006). Consequently, assessment outcomes may not effectively project a student's true abilities (Zeidner & Matthews, 2003; Olani, 2009).

If a researcher only collects self-reported measures, they may have difficulty identifying causal mechanisms (i.e., factors leading to a performance catastrophe) — hence there is a need for longitudinal designs, which include the measuring of physiological stress responses in real time. By integrating self-reports with heart rate measures, researchers may be able to identify and categorise with more accuracy the strength of stress responses at different points in time. For example, a Japanese high school student could begin tracking their self-perceived levels of TA during regular school lessons, cram school lessons and mock assessments. In conjunction with self-reports, heart rate could be monitored with wearable fitness trackers (e.g., Fitbit™). Before taking the test, a student could have a clear data set of both heart rate and self-reported measures. At the very least, a student could be made aware that worry and emotionality may affect different people in different ways. Ideally, a student could be coached (e.g., breathing, and/or positive psychology techniques) to avoid performance catastrophes and stay in an ideal flow/performance state.

Conclusion

Test anxious students in Japan may be at a serious and possibly unrecognised disadvantage. Hembree (1988) warned that most testing systems fail to accurately assess the IQs of test anxious students. As a correlate, projections for future academic success may be compromised (Olani, 2009). This is a serious issue in Japan because when a prospective student's value is misinterpreted or undervalued, their career prospects will be lowered and their future earnings will be negatively impacted (Ono, 2007). Examining the weaknesses in current TA measuring systems may lead to stronger research practices. I posit that integrating self-report measures with heart rate response may prove to be vital in assessing TA more comprehensively. With an accurate TA assessment, students can be offered specific strategies to overcome their physiological and/or worry responses. Armed with these strategies, a student may feel more confident that their true academic abilities will be fairly assessed.

References

- Alpert, R., & Haber, R. N. (1960). Anxiety in academic achievement situations. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 61(2), 207–215. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0045464>
- Araki, N. (1992). Test anxiety in elementary school and junior high school students in Japan. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping*, 5(3), 205–215. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10615809208249522>
- Aydin, U. (2019). Test anxiety: Gender differences in elementary school students. *European Journal of Educational Research*, 8(1), 21–30. <https://doi.org/10.12973/eu-jer.8.1.21>
- Cappelli, P., & Hamori, M. (2004). *The path to the top: Changes in the attributes and careers of corporate executives, 1980-2001* (No. w10507). National Bureau of Economic Research. Retrieved from http://mthink.com/legacy/www.peopleproject.com/content/pdf/ppp1_wp_cappelli.pdf
- Cassady, J. C., & Johnson, R. E. (2002). Cognitive test anxiety and academic performance. *Contemporary Educational Psychology*, 27(2), 270–295. <https://doi.org/10.1006/ceps.2001.1094>
- Coughlin, S. S. (1990). Recall bias in epidemiologic studies. *Journal of Clinical Epidemiology*, 43(1), 87–91. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0895-4356\(90\)90060-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/0895-4356(90)90060-3)
- Csikszentmihalyi, M., & Csikszentmihalyi, I. S. (Eds.). (1992). *Optimal experience: Psychological studies of flow in consciousness*. Cambridge University Press.
- Daly, A. L., Chamberlain, S., & Spalding, V. (2011). Test anxiety, heart rate and performance in A-level French speaking mock exams: an exploratory study. *Educational Research (Windsor)*, 53(3), 321–330. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00131881.2011.598660>
- Deffenbacher, J. L. (1977). Relationship of worry and emotionality to performance on the Miller Analogies Test. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 69(2), 191–195. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0663.69.2.191>
- Devine, A., Fawcett, K., Szucs, D., & Dowker, A. (2012). Gender differences in mathematics anxiety and the relation to mathematics performance while controlling for test anxiety. *Behavioral and Brain Functions*, 8, 33. <https://doi.org/10.1186/1744-9081-8-33>
- Duffy, E. (1957). The psychological significance of the concept of "arousal" or "activation." *Psychological Review*, 64(5), 265–275. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0048837>
- Flessati, S. L., & Jamieson, J. (1991). Gender differences in mathematics anxiety: An artifact of response bias? *Anxiety Research*, 3(4), 303–312. <https://doi.org/10.1080/08917779108248759>
- Fairclough, S., Tattersall, A., & Houston, K. (2006). Anxiety and performance in the British driving test. *Transportation Research. Part F, Traffic Psychology and Behaviour*, 9(1), 43–52. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.trf.2005.08.004>
- Ganster, D. C. C., Crain, T. L. L., & Brossoit, R. M. M. (2018). Physiological measurement in the organizational sciences: A review and recommendations for future use. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology and Organizational Behavior*, 5, 267–293. <https://doi.org/10.1146/annurev-orgpsych-032117-104613>

- Hardy, L., & Parfitt, G. (1991). A catastrophe model of anxiety and performance. *The British Journal of Psychology*, 82(2), 163–178. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8295.1991.tb02391.x>
- Hardy, L. (1999). Stress, anxiety and performance. *Journal of Science and Medicine in Sport*, 2(3), 227–233. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1440-2440\(99\)80175-3](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1440-2440(99)80175-3)
- Harris, R. B., Grunspan, D. Z., Pelch, M. A., Fernandes, G., Ramirez, G., & Freeman, S. (2019). Can test anxiety interventions alleviate a gender gap in an undergraduate STEM course? *CBE - Life Sciences Education*, 18(3), 1–9. <https://doi.org/10.1187/cbe.18-05-0083>
- Hawkins, J. N., & Tanaka, Y. (1992). Japanese education: A context for test anxiety. *Anxiety, Stress, and Coping*, 5(3), 195–203. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10615809208249521>
- Hebb, D. O. (1955). Drives and the C. N. S. (conceptual nervous system). *Psychological Review*, 62(4), 243–254. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0041823>
- Hembree, R. (1988). Correlates, causes, effects, and treatment of test anxiety. *Review of Educational Research*, 58(1), 47–77. <https://doi.org/10.3102/00346543058001047>
- Hodapp, V. (1991). Das Prüfungsängstlichkeitsinventar TAI-G: Eine erweiterte und modifizierte Version mit vier Komponenten [The Test Anxiety Inventory TAI-G: An expanded and modified version with four components]. *Zeitschrift für Pädagogische Psychologie / German Journal of Educational Psychology*, 5(2), 121–130. Retrieved from: <https://psycnet.apa.org/record/1991-78734-001>
- Hodapp, V., Rohrmann, S., & Ringeisen, T. (2011). *PAF: Prüfungsangstfragebogen*. Hogrefe.
- Johnson, M. L., & Johnson, J. R. (1996). *Daily life in Japanese high schools*. Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, Indiana University.
- Liebert, R. M., & Morris, L. W. (1967). Cognitive and emotional components of test anxiety: A distinction and some initial data. *Psychological Reports*, 20(3, PT. 1), 975–978. <https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1967.20.3.975>
- Lowe, P. A. (2014). The test anxiety measure for adolescents (TAMA): Examination of the reliability and validity of the scores of a new multidimensional measure of test anxiety for middle and high school students. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment*, 32(5), 404–416. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0734282913520595>
- MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The subtle effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning*, 44(2), 283–305. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1994.tb01103.x>
- Mandler, G., & Sarason, S. B. (1952). A study of anxiety and learning. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 47(2), 166–173. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0062855>
- Martens, R., Vealey, R. S., & Burton, D. (1990). *Competitive anxiety in sport*. Human kinetics Books.
- Nakamura, J., & Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2014). The concept of flow. In *Flow and the foundations of positive psychology* (pp. 239–263). Springer, Dordrecht.

- Olani, A. (2009). Predicting first year university students' academic success. *Electronic journal of research in educational psychology*, 7(3), 1053-1072. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/279712110_Predicting_First_Year_University_Students'_Academic_Success
- Ono, H. (2007). Does examination hell pay off? A cost-benefit analysis of "ronin" and college education in Japan. *Economics of Education Review*, 26(3), 271-284. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/222578758_Does_Examination_Hell_Pay_Off_A_Cost_Benefit_Analysis_of_'Ronin'_and_College_Education_in_Japan
- Ozaki, M. (2015). *A juku childhood: Children's experiences in juku attendance and its relation to their well-being in Japan* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Bath).
- Putwain, D., & Daly, A. L. (2014). Test anxiety prevalence and gender differences in a sample of English secondary school students. *Educational Studies*, 40(5), 554-570. <https://doi.org/10.1080/03055698.2014.953914>
- Roos, A.-L., Goetz, T., Voracek, M., Krannich, M., Bieg, M., Jarrell, A., & Pekrun, R. (2021). Test Anxiety and physiological arousal: A systematic review and meta-analysis. *Educational Psychology Review*, 33(2), 579-618. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10648-020-09543z>
- Saito, Y. (2006). Consequences of high-stakes testing on the family and schools in Japan. *KEDI Journal of Educational Policy*, 3(1), 101-112. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1013969823/>
- Sarason, S., & Mandler, G. (1952). Some correlates of test anxiety. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 47. Retrieved from <http://search.proquest.com/docview/1290433308/>
- Satake, E., & Amato, P. P. (1995). Mathematics anxiety and achievement among Japanese elementary school students. *Educational and Psychological Measurement*, 55(6), 1000-1007. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0013164495055006009>
- Schlosberg, H. (1954). Three dimensions of emotion. *Psychological Review*, 61(2), 81-88. <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0054570>
- Schmidt, S. C. E., Gnam, J.P., Kopf, M., Rathgeber, T., & Woll, A. (2020). The influence of cortisol, flow, and anxiety on performance in e-sports: A Field Study. *BioMed Research International*, 2020, 6. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2020/9651245>
- Spielberger, C. D., & Gonzalez, H. P. (1980). *Preliminary professional manual for the test anxiety inventory: (" test attitude inventory")*: Tai. consulting psychologists press.
- Spielberger, C. D., Gonzalez, H. P., Taylor, C. J., Anton, W. D., Algaze, B., & Ross, G. K. (1980). *Test anxiety inventory*. Palo Alto: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- Stoyanova, M., & Hope, D. A. (2012). Gender, gender roles, and anxiety: Perceived confirmability of self report, behavioral avoidance, and physiological reactivity. *Journal of Anxiety Disorders*, 26(1), 206-214. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.janxdis.2011.11.006>
- Teigen, K. H. (1994). Yerkes-Dodson: A law for all seasons. *Theory & Psychology*, 4(4), 525-547. <https://doi.org/10.1177/09593543940444004>

Tobias, S. (1985). Test Anxiety: Interference, defective skills, and cognitive capacity. *Educational Psychologist*, 20(3), 135–142.
https://doi.org/10.1207/s15326985ep2003_3

von der Embse, N., Jester, D., Roy, D., & Post, J. (2018). Test anxiety effects, predictors, and correlates: A 30-year meta-analytic review. *Journal of Affective Disorders*, 227, 483–493.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jad.2017.11.048>

Wine, J. (1971). Test anxiety and direction of attention. *Psychological Bulletin*, 76(2), 92–104.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/h0031332>

Woodrow, L. (2006). Anxiety and speaking English as a second language. *RELC Journal*, 37(3), 308–328. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688206071315>

Yamamoto, T. (2001). *Bushido: The way of the samurai*. Square One Publishers, Inc.

Yerkes, R. M., & Dodson, J. D. (1908). The relation of strength of stimulus to rapidity of habit-formation. *Journal of comparative neurology and psychology*, 18(5), 459-482.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/cne.920180503>

Zeidner, M. & Matthews, G. (2003). Test Anxiety. In *Encyclopedia of Psychological Assessment* (pp. 965-969). Sage Publications Ltd.

Zeidner, M. (2007). Test anxiety in educational contexts: Concepts, findings, and future directions. In *Emotion in education* (pp. 165-184). Academic Press.

A study of Japanese University Students' Self-Esteem and a Reflective Activity in the English Class

Takanori Omura
Soka University

Nowadays, a growing number of institutions and educators in English language teaching (ELT) have been highlighting a psychological aspect. Particularly, many studies and researchers frequently deal with the field of self-esteem and various methods such as reflective practice that could affect peoples' self-esteem. The purpose of the present study was to investigate whether there is a correlation between two types of university students' self-esteem, global self-esteem (GSE) and foreign language self-esteem (FLSE), and a correlation between those types of self-esteem and their attitude towards a reflective activity. The online surveys were administered to 103 university students at the start and end of a semester. The results showed that there was a positive correlation between GSE and FLSE, but not between GSE and their attitude towards the reflective activity. The findings of the present study are expected to be more beneficial in many different educational settings with further future research.

今日、心理的な側面に注目している英語教育（ELT）の教育機関や教育者の数が増えている。特に、自己肯定感や反省的実践のような様々な方法が多くの研究や研究者に頻繁に取り扱われている。本研究の目的は、大学生の二種類の自己肯定感、グローバルな自己肯定感（以下、GSE と略す）と外国語の自己肯定感（以下、FLSE と略す）の間の相関、また、それらの自己肯定感と学生の反省的活動に対する態度の間の相関を調査することである。本研究では、103人の大学生に対して、学期の初めと終わりにオンライン質問紙法が用いられた。結果として、GSE と FLSE の間には正の相関が示されたが、GSE と反省的活動に対する態度の間には相関は示されなかった。将来のさらなる研究によって多くの教育場面で、本研究の発見がより有益になることが期待される。

Fostering self-esteem has always been an essential theme in many domains such as psychology and education, and a great deal of researchers have dedicated their time to develop their domain in relation to self-esteem as Zeigler-Hill (2013) suggested that self-esteem has been believed to work as an important factor in the life of human beings. The definition of self-esteem has not been universally agreed but the term self-esteem began to appear in the field of psychology at the end of the 19th century. William James has been said to be a leading psychologist who influenced many other psychologists developing the notion of self-esteem. James (1890) suggests that "there is a certain average tone of self-feeling which each one of us carries about with him" (p. 306). It is further expected that self-esteem related areas are developed from many different perspectives for the better quality of humans' life even in this new era. In fact, numerous studies have suggested that self-esteem is connected to important life outcomes such as happiness, a sense of satisfaction in life, and academic outcome (M. Rosenberg, Schooler, Schoenbach, & F. Rosenberg, 1995; Zeigler-Hill, 2013). Additionally, methods of enhancing self-esteem have been studied in several aspects of language learning, including, computer assisted language learning (CALL) (Tayebnik & Puteh, 2012), interactive whiteboard use (Schmid, 2007), and cooperative learning (Megahed &

Mohammad, 2014; D. W. Johnson, R. T. Johnson, & Taylor, 1993). The types of self-esteem targeted by the present study were global self-esteem (GSE) and foreign language self-esteem (FLSE). Among many ways of distinguishing self-esteem, Rosenberg et al. (1995) defined global self-esteem as the individual's positive and negative attitude toward the self as a totality. Meanwhile, foreign language self-esteem is the term used by Hassan (1992; 2001) in his studies. According to him, foreign language self-esteem is considered as a type of domain-specific self-esteem, and it is the individual's feeling about himself or herself in a foreign language learning situation.

Reflective Practice

Reflective practice has often been studied in various fields such as education and medical care, and it is heavily relevant to the tool for the reflective activity used in the present study. Among many key researchers in the area of reflection, Donald Schön is one of the most well-known researchers, who helped the term "reflective practice" draw attention from many people. In his book, the concept of reflection is classified into two types that are reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action. According to Schön (1983), reflection-in-action is the

process that enables people to think how they can improve the tasks or the situations on which they are working during the activity. Reflection-in-action generally occurs when people confront something unfamiliar or unexpected to them. Meanwhile, reflection-on-action is the process that allows people to reflect on the tasks or the phenomenon after they have occurred. With reflection-on-action, people try to contemplate the past activity that they got involved in, their particular action, why the process of their thought proceeded in a particular way, and how the situation could have been improved. In this paper, reflection-on-action is the type that is focused on more because the tool, which is the Daily reflection sheet, used in the class enables the participants to reflect on the classes they experienced.

The Relationship Between Self-Esteem and Self-Reflection

It is widely accepted that self-reflection is one of the key factors to boost self-esteem. In a study conducted by Johnson and Stapel (2011), the effect of self-reflection on global self-esteem and performance was examined. The author concluded that while reflecting on successful others is effective to enhance only global self-esteem, reflecting on one-self is more effective and appropriate not only to boost global self-esteem performance but also to gain higher performance. However, in their research, only one type of self-esteem was focused on. The present study can make a further contribution by highlighting two types of self-esteem, which could broaden our analytical perspective against the state of self-esteem. A study by Langer (2009) focused on the effect of reflective writing on the participant's self-esteem. In the article dealing with a case study, the author investigated one participant who was studying on a workforce certification program at Columbia University, and tracked the trajectory of that participant's self-esteem for more than a year. The author found that reflective writing which the participant had been required throughout the program significantly helped him increase his self-esteem according to the narratives. Although any instruments were not used in this study to measure the level of self-esteem, this case study reveals the potentiality of the reflective practice for cultivating self-esteem. However, it seems that little attention has been paid to the relationship between self-esteem and reflective writing. Since the reflective activity employed in the present study is also a written form of reflection, the findings of the present study could be beneficial for the development of this research area.

Purpose of the Research

The purpose of the present study was to investigate whether there is a correlation between two types of university students' self-esteem, global self-esteem (GSE) and foreign language self-esteem (FLSE), and a correlation between those two types of self-esteem and their attitude towards the reflective activity. The online surveys were administered at the start and end of a semester, and the participants' level of GSE and FLSE, and their attitude towards the reflective activity were measured. In order to conduct a reflective activity, an online daily reflection sheet was implemented, and all students in the class were asked to fill out this sheet after every class. In addition, they were notified that the Daily reflection sheet would be included in the course grade.

Research Questions

1. Do the students' global self-esteem (GSE) and foreign language self-esteem (FLSE) correlate?
2. Do those two types of self-esteem and their attitude towards the reflective activity correlate?
3. Which parts of the reflective activity especially helped the attitude to become more positive?

Method

This section of the paper covers the methodology used in the present study, and the subsections discussed here are participant profiles and background, Instruments and Materials, procedure, and data analysis.

Participant Profiles and Background

The participants were the current Japanese undergraduate students in three different faculties at a private university in Tokyo. It is required for the students to take the Basic English course. While 55 students in total participated in the survey at the beginning of the semester, 48 students participated in the survey at the end of the semester. Additionally, students in the present study were taught online from the first semester of 2020 until the end of the second semester of 2021 due to the pandemic of COVID-19.

Instruments and Materials

This subsection covers the description of the instruments and materials. Whereas the online surveys were employed as an instrument, the Online Daily reflection sheet was the material used in the actual class.

Surveys

The surveys in the present study were administered in English with Japanese translation. They included a demographic information of gender, Rosenberg self-esteem scale (RSE) (Rosenberg, 1965) measuring global self-esteem, the foreign language self-esteem scale (Hassan, 2001), and a question regarding the Daily reflection sheet, and the data was garnered in September 2020 and in January 2021 (See Appendices). A question regarding the Daily reflection sheet was included only in the survey at the end of the semester in order to elicit students' opinions on whether the sheet helped them become positive.

Online Daily reflection sheet

The Online Daily reflection sheet was implemented throughout the academic year. The items consisted the Daily reflection sheet were: a) *How did you feel about your homework?*, b) *What was your goal for today?*, c) *What did you learn in this class?*, d) *Any feedback/questions/ comments to the class or the teacher, and e) Compliment yourself. Choose one from 1~3 and complete the sentence.* The students were required to fill out all the items every after the class. In addition, the students were notified that this assignment would be included in the course grade.

Procedure

The first online survey was administered to the students in the beginning of the second semester of 2020 to measure the level of both types of self-esteem. The second online survey was then administered to the students at the end of the same semester of 2021 to measure the level of both types of self-esteem and the attitude towards the reflective activity. During the semester, the students were asked to fill out the Daily reflection sheet after each class, which was considered as the tool for a reflective practice in the present study. Therefore, the students were able to have a chance to do a reflective practice by filling out the Daily reflection sheet after every class.

Data Analysis

Since the 5-point Likert scale was employed in the surveys, the range of the means for all items and overall mean lay between 1 and 5. The SPSS software was used to analyze the data. The minimum, the maximum, the mean, and the standard deviation for each dependent variable (GSE, FLSE, and the attitude towards the reflective activity) in the both surveys were calculated. In addition, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient was used in order to measure the correlation between the variables in each survey and between the variables in both surveys. Regarding the contents of the Daily reflection sheet, the proportion of the participants'

responses was calculated to analyze which item had been the most effective for the participants.

Results

This section of the paper covers the results obtained from the collected data and the analysis. The results are described based on the two statistical methods, which is the Descriptive Statistics and the Pearson Correlation Coefficient.

The Descriptive Statistics

The first survey

The range of scores, which is the difference between the minimum and the maximum in GSE was larger than the one in FLSE. The mean of GSE ($M = 3.10$) was slightly higher than the mean of FLSE ($M = 2.96$) while the standard deviation of GSE ($SD = .75$) was also higher than the one in the FLSE ($SD = .40$), which indicates that the data in GSE are more spread out than the data in FLSE. Therefore, the level of FLSE among the participants is not as different as the level of their GSE (See Table 1).

The second survey

A question regarding the attitude towards the reflective activity was included in the second survey as another independent variable to approach the purpose of the present study. Interestingly, the mean of both GSE and FLSE were slightly higher than the group in the first survey, and GSE outweighed FLSE as the first survey. The standard deviation shows the similar tendency as the first survey. The mean of attitude towards the reflective activity ($M = 3.46$) was around the mid-point of 3 (*uncertain*) and 4 (*agree*), which indicates that relatively more participants felt the reflective practice helped them improve their positivity (See Table 2).

The correlation

The first survey

The Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the linear relationship between GSE and FLSE in the first survey. There was a positive correlation between the two variables, $r(53) = .35$, $p = .009$ (See Table 3). A scatterplot summarizes the results (See Figure 1). Overall, there was a moderately strong, positive correlation between GSE and FLSE. Increases in GSE were correlated with increases in FLSE.

The second survey

Same as the first survey, the Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the linear relationship between GSE, FLSE and the attitude towards the reflective activity in the second survey. There was a positive correlation between GSE and FLSE, $r(46) = .327, p = .023$, and FLSE and the attitude, $r(46) = .514, p = .000$. However, there was no or a negligible correlation between GSE and the attitude, $r(46) = .171, p = .244$ (See Table 4). A scatterplot summarizes the results (See Figure 2) Overall, there was a moderately strong, positive correlation between GSE and FLSE, a strong, positive correlation between FLSE and the attitude.

The correlation between GSE and FLSE (all participants)

The Pearson correlation coefficient was also computed to assess the linear relationship between GSE and FLSE amongst all participants. There was a positive correlation between GSE and FLSE, $r(101) = .340, p = .000$, which showed a highly similar result as the one

in the first survey and the one in the second survey respectively (See Table 5). A scatterplot summarizes the results (See Figure 3) Overall, there was a moderately strong, positive correlation between GSE and FLSE amongst all participants, too.

The results of the question regarding the contents of the Daily reflection sheet

While a greater number of participants showed a positive attitude towards the reflective activity, 20 of them provided their response about the items that effectively helped them become positive. The number of statements and the proportion is shown in the graph below (See Figure 4). More than half or half of those who responded have selected the item regarding ideas and opinions to the learning contents, and the item to compliment oneself as an effective item to make them positive.

Table 1

Results of Descriptive Statistics in the first Survey

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
GSE	55	1.00	4.80	3.10	.75
FLSE	55	1.88	3.92	2.96	.40

Note. global self-esteem (GSE); foreign language self-esteem (FLSE)

Table 2

Results of Descriptive Statistics in the second Survey

Variables	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
GSE	48	1.30	4.60	3.19	.76
FLSE	48	2.20	4.08	3.00	.41
Attitude	48	1	5	3.46	1.05

Note. global self-esteem (GSE); foreign language self-esteem (FLSE); attitude towards the reflective activity (Attitude).

Table 3

Results of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient in the first Survey

	GSE	FLSE
GSE	1	.350**
FLSE	.350**	1

Note. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 4

Results of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient in the second Survey

	GSE	FLSE	Attitude
GSE	1	.327*	.171
FLSE	.327*	1	.514*
Attitude	.171	.514*	1

Note. *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 5

Results of the Pearson Correlation Coefficient for GSE and FLSE in General

	GSE	FLSE
GSE	1	.340**
FLSE	.340**	1

Note. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

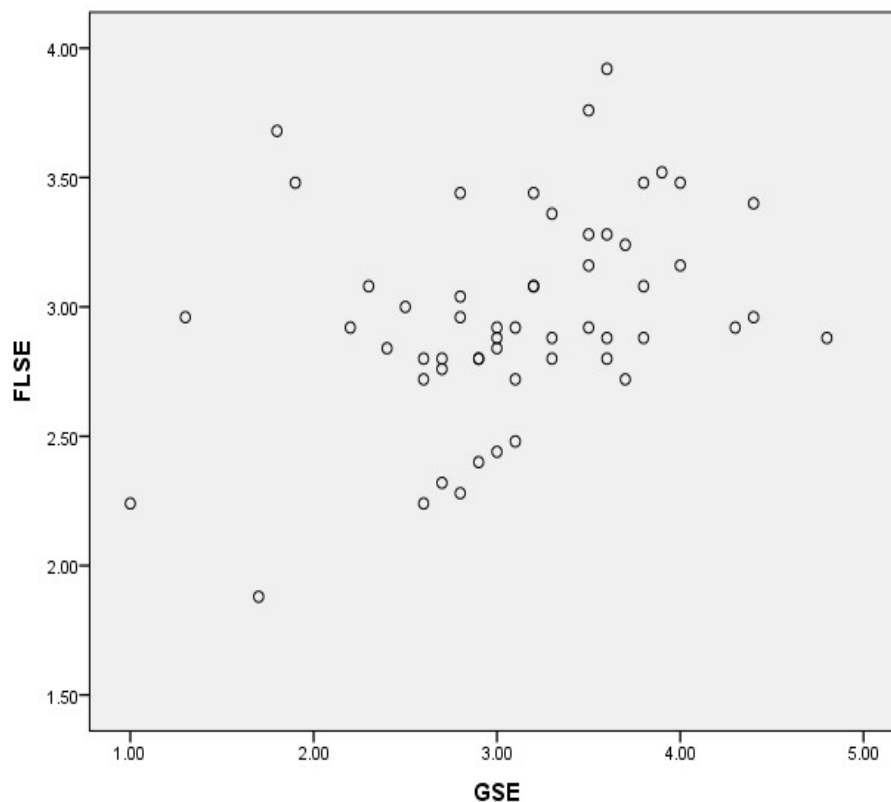


Figure 1: Scatterplot depicting the correlation between GSE and FLSE in the first survey

Note. The first survey was conducted in September 2020; Pearson's $r = .35$.

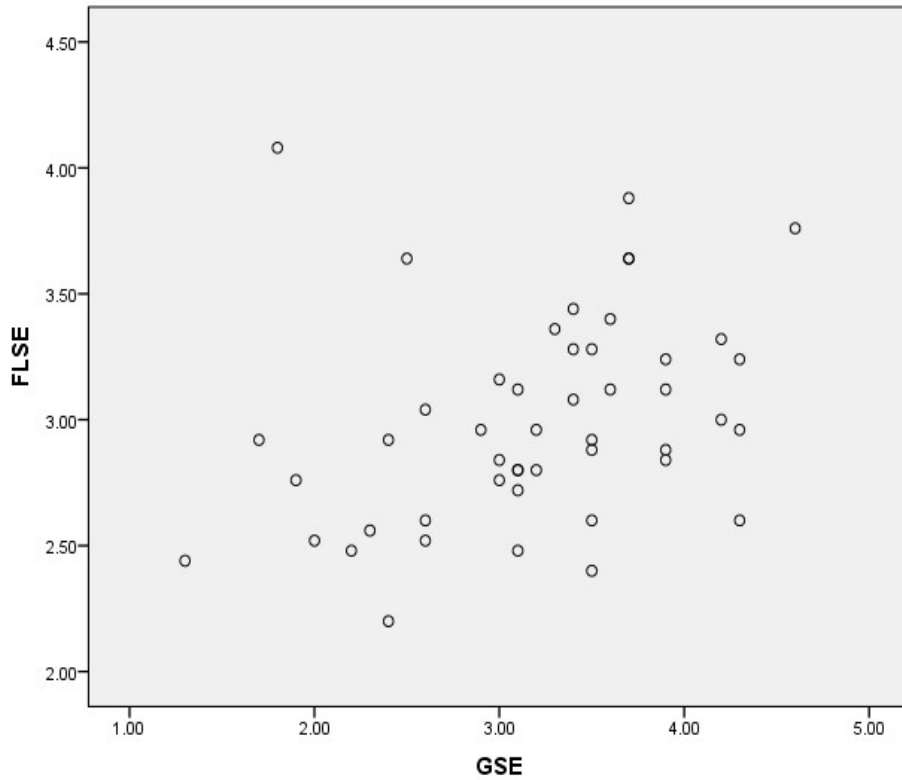


Figure 2: Scatterplot depicting the correlation between GSE and FLSE in the second survey

Note. The second survey was conducted in January 2021; Pearson's $r = .327$.

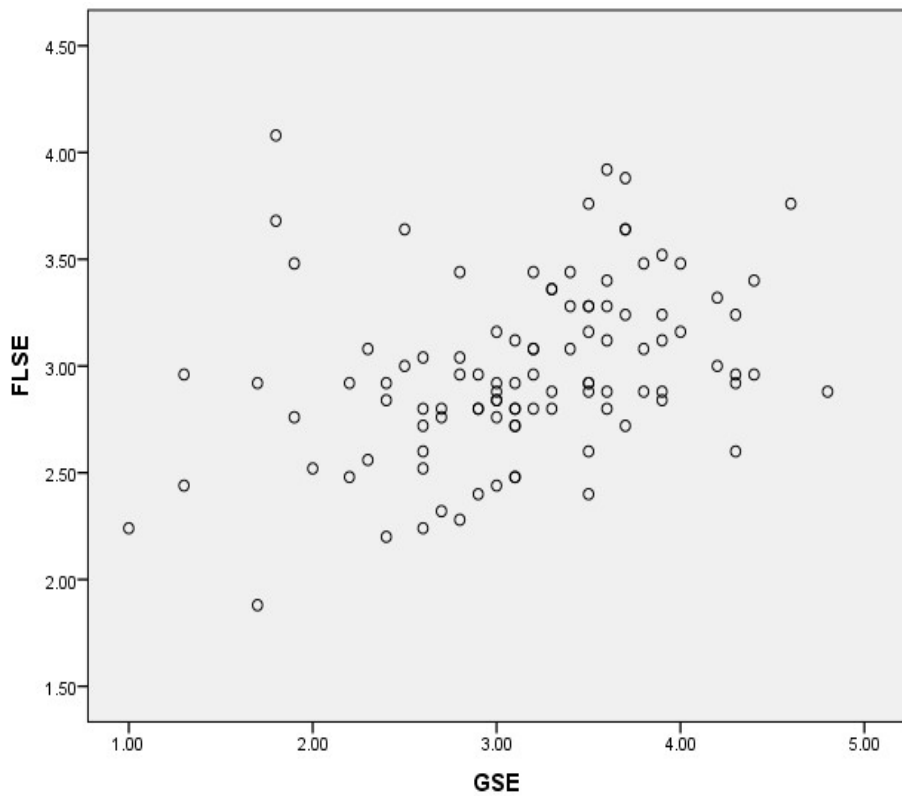


Figure 3: Scatterplot depicting the correlation between GSE and FLSE in general

Note. All participants ($N=103$) are included in the graph; Pearson's $r = .327$.

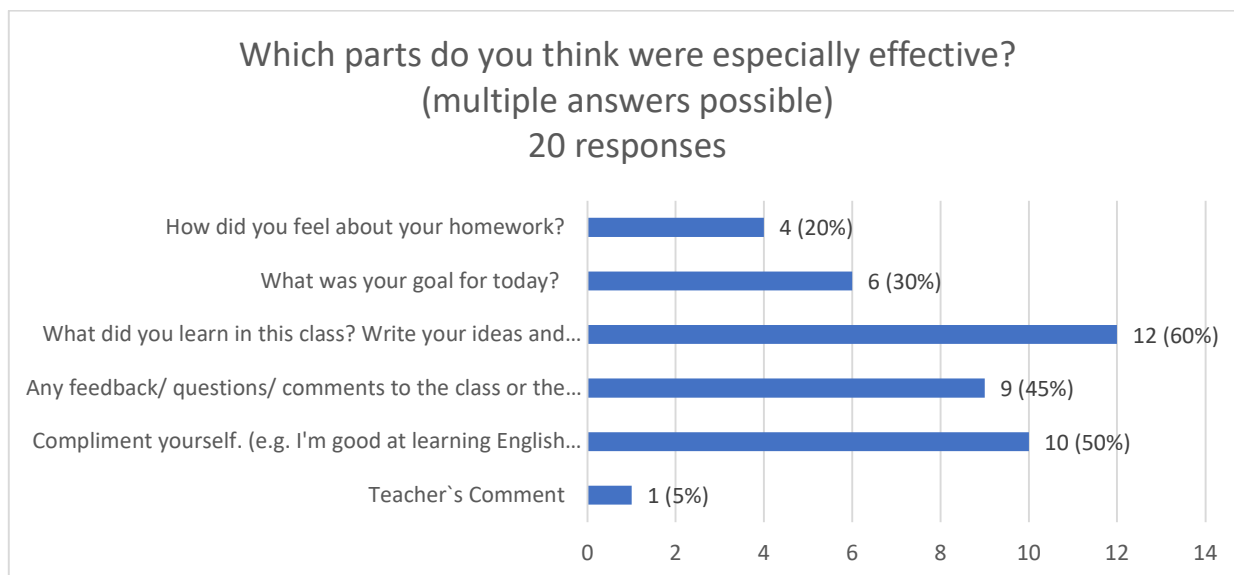


Figure 4: The results of the question 'Which parts do you think were especially effective? (multiple answers possible)'

Discussion

The first aim of the present study was to investigate the correlation between the students' GSE and FLSE. The results of the correlation between GSE and FLSE in all participants has shown that there is a positive correlation between them. It is notable that the correlation between them in the first survey $r(53) = .35$, $p = .009$ and the one in the second survey $r(46) = .327$, $p = .023$ were not so different from each other. This result indicates that the relationship between the participants' GSE and FLSE in this context remained almost the same. Thus, the correlation between them might not be substantially different in general at the start and end of a semester. More attention should be paid to this area as various results from many different perspectives could widen the possibility of more efficient self-esteem development for students in higher education. The finding led by the first research question can elicit the cue to answer the second research question, which is, whether the two types of self-esteem and the students' attitude towards the reflective activity correlate. As shown in the result of the second survey, there was a positive correlation between FLSE and the attitude towards the reflective activity while there was no or a negligible correlation between GSE and the attitude. Therefore, those who are high in FLSE tend to possess the positive attitude towards the reflective activity or low FLSE students tend to show the negative attitude towards it. Johnson and Stapel (2011) found that the effect of self-reflection is associated with the increase of GSE. Although their finding showed the effectiveness of self-reflection on GSE enhancement, it seems that the attitude towards the reflective practice of high GSE students is not necessarily positive according to this finding of the present study. In other words, they

might not really appreciate the reflective practice or might possess less positivity on it despite its effectiveness though this is not the case for those who are high in FLSE. Additionally, Langer (2009) suggested that reflective writing could boost the individual's self-esteem in general in the research. The author tracked one participant and analyzed the narratives that are apparently in relation to the improvement of self-esteem. This suggestion could significantly support the fact that a large number of participants showed a positive attitude towards the reflective activity with respect to its written form of self-reflection. The third aim of the present study was to identify which parts of the reflective activity especially helped the students' attitude to become more positive. As shown in the result of the question regarding the contents of the Daily reflection sheet, the item regarding ideas and opinions to the learning contents and item to compliment oneself were the effective items to make students positive. Therefore, expressing their ideas and opinions to what they learn and complimenting themselves seem to create internal benefit for the students to some extent in a reflective activity. It is however noted that this argument could even be strengthened by increasing the number of participants and the longer period of research.

Conclusion

The university students' GSE and FLSE, and FLSE and their attitude towards a reflective activity correlate each other in the context of the present study. However, GSE and their attitude do not correlate. Furthermore, expressing their own ideas and opinions to the learning contents and complimenting themselves in the Daily reflection sheet are effective to help them become more

positive. These findings suggest that both types of self-esteem should be included as a significant factor in the future research, specifically the research that is relevant to language teaching. The fact that there is a positive correlation between two types of self-esteem indicates that enhancing either type of self-esteem can lead to the enhancement of the other type, which is so beneficial to not only students but also to the educators. In addition, the students' attitude towards a reflective activity should be observed more carefully because the degree of their positivity towards the activity is the cue to know the level of FLSE. Moreover, when the educators implement a reflective activity in the class, providing the students with the opportunities to express their ideas and opinions and to praise themselves is highly essential. Although some insightful findings have contributed to several research areas, especially to English language teaching context, this approach provides only a partial answer. Since the present study was carried out only during one semester, a longitudinal study might be able to provide a further valuable result with a larger number of participants and data that are more accurate. Finally, these findings could be applied quite reliably in other educational contexts where the learners' internal aspects and pedagogical methods are the prime focuses.

References

- Hassan, B. A. (1992). Foreign language self-esteem and the oral communicative ability of university students. *Mansoura Faculty of Education Journal*, 19(3), 1-19.
- Hassan, B. A. (2001). *The relationship of writing apprehension and self-esteem to the writing quality and quantity of EFL university students*. Mansoura University, College of Education, Pamietta, Egypt.
- James, W. (1890). *The Principles of Psychology*. New York: Henry Holt and Company.
- Johnson, C. S., & Stapel, D. A. (2011). Reflection Versus Self-Reflection: Sources of Self-Esteem Boost Determine Behavioral Outcomes. *Social Psychology*, 42(2), 144–151.
- Johnson, D. W., Johnson, R. T., & Taylor, B. (1993). Impact of cooperative and individualistic learning on high-ability students' achievement, self-esteem, and social acceptance. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 133(6), 839–844.
- Langer, A. M. (2009). Thoughtpiece: Measuring self-esteem through reflective writing: essential factors in workforce development for inner-city adults. *Reflective Practice*, 10(1), 45–48.
- Megahed, M., & Mohammad, F. (2014). Effect of cooperative learning on undergraduate nursing students' self-esteem: A quasi-experimental study. *Journal of Nursing Education and Practice*, 4(11), 1–7.
- Rosenberg, M. (1965). *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Rosenberg, M., Schooler, C., Schoenbach, C., & Rosenberg, F. (1995). Global Self-Esteem and Specific Self-Esteem: Different Concepts, Different Outcomes. *American Sociological Review*, 60(1), 141–156.
- Schmid, E. C. (2007). Enhancing performance knowledge and self-esteem in classroom language learning: The potential of the ACTIVote component of interactive whiteboard technology. *System*, 35(2), 119–133.
- Schön, D. (1983). *The reflective practitioner: How professionals think in action*. New York: NY Basic Books.
- Tayebnik, M., & Puteh, M. (2012). The significance of self-esteem in Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) environment. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 66, 499–506.
- Zeigler-Hill, V. (2013). The importance of self-esteem. In V. Zeigler-Hill (Ed.), *Current issues in social psychology: Self-esteem* (pp. 1-20). New York: Psychology Press.

Appendix

Online Survey

SECTION 1: Demographic Information

What is your gender?

Mark only one.

- Female
- Male
- Prefer not to say
- Other:

SECTION 2: Global Self-Esteem & Foreign Language Self-Esteem

Instruction:

Below is a list of statements regarding the general feelings of yourself. Please indicate how strongly you agree or disagree with each statement.

Global self-esteem

1. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
2. At times I think I am no good at all.
3. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I certainly feel useless at times.
7. I feel that I'm a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
10. I take a positive attitude toward myself.

Foreign Language self-esteem

1. My ability to learn English is high.
2. I express myself freely in English.
3. I have a problem with some grammatical rules when writing in English.
4. I participate effectively in English discussions.
5. I can speak English very well.
6. My understanding of what others say in English is limited.
7. I speak English with a heavy foreign accent.
8. I have some English reading habits.
9. I can write very well in English.

10. I feel good about myself when speaking in English.
11. I feel happy when I am with my English classmates.
12. I can read very well in English.
13. I don't feel at ease when I talk to my English instructors.
14. I find difficulty talking in English in front of my classmates.
15. My classmates are better English learners than me.
16. My English instructors have high expectations of me.
17. My English classmates do not like me.
18. I can understand English very well.
19. I am always attentive to my English instructors.
20. I attend English class sessions on time.
21. I volunteer myself for any English classroom activities.
22. I miss many English class sessions.
23. I avoid any discussions in English.
24. I read for pleasure in English.
25. I reluctantly participate in English classroom activities.

Note: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (1965) was used for the items in Global self-esteem, and the items in Foreign Language Self-Esteem were adapted from Hassan's scale (2001).

SECTION 3: Regarding "Daily reflection sheet"

1. Do you think "Daily reflection sheet" made you positive about yourself?
2. Question for those who chose "Strongly agree" or "Agree". Which parts do you think were especially effective? (multiple answers possible) How did you feel about your homework?
 - What was your goal for today?
 - What did you learn in this class? Write your ideas and opinions.
 - Any feedback/ questions/ comments to the class or the teacher.
 - Compliment yourself. (e.g. I'm good at learning English because...)
 - Others

Note: Section 3 was added only to the second survey

Revitalizing Student Motivation through Gratitude Intervention

Merissa Braza Ocampo
Fukushima Gakuin College

This study aimed to elevate Japanese university students' motivation for studying English through a gratitude-centered intervention. This is part of broader work on positive psychology (PP) in language education, which involves developing themed narrative mini books. The study took place over two semesters in the 2019 academic year during a climate of global uncertainty caused by the COVID-19 pandemic. During the duration of the project, I observed 300 students attending weekly Basic English classes. A lecture format was used to introduce gratitude-centered concepts. Afterward, students participated in projects such as building gratitude boxes and bins, keeping gratitude journals, and creating storybooks. Students voluntarily answered the bilingual Gratitude Questionnaire-Six Item Form (GQ-6) at the end of every 15-week semester. Students' motivation improved throughout the project, and I also noted an increase in gratitude, regular attendance, attentiveness, and 'attention to the small things.'

本研究は、2019年から2020年にかけてのCOVID-19のパンデミックによって引き起こされた世界的な不確実性の中で英語を勉強する学生のモチベーションを高めるために、感謝の気持ちを中心とした介入が実施されました。感謝の介入は、言語教育におけるポジティブ心理学（PP）に関する幅広い研究の一部であり、テーマに沿った物語の絵本の開発が含まれます。講義形式は、現在の研究で感謝を中心とした概念を紹介するために使用されました。その後、学生たちは感謝の箱やジャーの作成、感謝の日記の保管、絵本の作成などのプロジェクトに参加しました。2学期のプロジェクトの一環として、学生は15週間の学期ごとに、バイリンガルの感謝の質問票-6項目フォーム（GQ-6）に自発的に回答しました。プロジェクト全体を通して、やる気、出席、注意力、感謝の気持ち、小さなことへの注意が向上しました。

According to the World Health Organization (WHO), in recent years people aged 10-19, many of whom are in education and training, have carried around 16% of the global burden of disease and injury (WHO, 2020). Revitalizing such students' motivation involves not only the challenge of improving their intellectual capacity, but also maintaining and enhancing their subjective well-being (Nishimura & Suzuki, 2016). This became an important focus for schools globally due to the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. In fact, fear, worry, and stress to perceived or real threats are normal responses not only for students but also for educators when they are faced with the unknown (Ocampo, 2021). In recent years, there has been increasing acknowledgment of the important role mental health plays in achieving global development goals, as illustrated by the inclusion of mental health in the Sustainable Development Goals. Based on the latest report of WHO, the COVID-19 pandemic triggered a 25% increase in prevalence of anxiety and depression worldwide. This is a wake-up call to all countries to step up mental health services and that support is necessary (WHO, 2022). As we enter the third academic year following the onset of the COVID-

19 epidemic, it is impossible to ignore the toll the epidemic has taken on schooling and mental health (Melchior, 2021). Thus, suicide, which normally occurs throughout the lifespan, became the fourth leading cause of death among 15-29-year-olds globally in 2019 (WHO, 2019).

Acting in response to the mental health-related problems, many educators, psychologists, and health workers in a variety of sectors are promoting mental health intervention in schools, public facilities, and through the media. A range of strategies and programs have been shown to be effective. These include increasing virtual linkages for social support and mental health care delivery via video calls, telephones, social media, and including evidence-based therapies for factors associated with suicide (Gunnell et al. 2020), and ensuring responsible media reporting (Reger et al. 2020). However, although this is an important area of health activity, research about the impact of COVID-19 crisis on children and adolescents in terms of suicide in Japan is almost unknown (Isumi et al. 2020). Given that the Japanese youth crisis is under investigated, the current research is an essential step towards greater

understanding of how to help students improve their well-being through PP intervention.

Increasing students' grateful feelings can develop intrinsic motivation, which, in turn, is a driving force for powerful positive behaviors, and emotions. Also, gratitude may ignite in youth a motivation and initiate an 'upward spiral' towards greater emotional and social well-being (Froh et al. 2010). Moreover, gratitude promotes psychologically related self-improvement and results in increased happiness, satisfaction, and well-being. An intrinsically motivated student is fueled with feelings of awe, autonomy, kindness, and satisfaction. Thus, enhancing motivation to strengthen the feeling of gratitude is of great potential value because it intensifies willpower, improves physical, psychological health, and social connectedness.

Previous work has shown that the deliberate practice of gratitude leads people to be happier and decreases instances of depression (Wong & Brown, 2017). The connection between gratitude and intrinsic motivation could be rooted in individual psychological frameworks such as how someone views the world, others, their own strengths, and what and how someone celebrates. While gratitude cannot be forced on anyone, structured intervention in the classroom can be beneficial because teachers can act swiftly to close gaps in progress or attainment, see the impact of their practice, and share it with other students, and parents (Hawthorne, 2021). This classroom intervention may impact strongly on students' positive emotions, connectedness, concentration, resilience (Biber, 2020), reducing stress and anxiety, and improve relatedness (Jans-Beken et al. 2020). In this connection, Khorrami (2021) specified that through gratitude an individual may also gain intrinsic motivation, accomplishments can come quickly, satisfaction is undeniable, and healing occurs much sooner. Moreover, there is an endless space for constructive joy, which is the ability to create one's own joy from within, through the lens of gratitude.

Goals and Hypothesis

The purpose of this study is to determine the effectiveness of a gratitude-focused PP intervention based on the hypothesis that the improvement of grateful feeling helps develop intrinsic motivation to study English. In the context of the COVID-19 pandemic, I aimed to investigate participants' overall gratitude perception by having them complete tasks such as writing gratitude reflections and completing a Gratitude Questionnaire-Six Item Form (GQ-6). It was intended that creating original stories would also increase their motivation to write the storybook in English. By strengthening participants' positive and grateful mindsets, I hoped to reinvigorate their motivation to

learn, and at the same time improve their overall wellbeing.

Materials and Methods

Participants

The study was conducted among a cohort of 300 Japanese first year college students in Tohoku, Japan in 2019 - 2020. Students from the Department of Psychology, Department of Nursery and Early Education, and Department of Nutrition were enrolled in a beginner English communication class which is a required subject. All participants were Japanese, female (70%) and male (30%). Participants' ages ranged from 19 years old (88%) to 20 years old (12%). The detailed PP intervention was included in the syllabus which meant that all participants had the chance to learn about the project in English. However, tasks such as answering the GQ-6, doing the gratitude journaling, and writing the mini storybook were voluntary. Anonymity was ensured by not having participants not write their names and student numbers on the questionnaires. Students thought of the things they were grateful for during the pandemic crisis. The study gave them autonomy in terms of how to submit the various written appreciation tasks including a gratitude tree, gratitude jar or bin, gratitude box, and gratitude journal. For the storybook writing, students had the autonomy to choose their own group members and PP themed topics. All the submitted written tasks, were checked, especially for basic grammar structure. They were not graded, however. Instead, I used positive comments, emoticons, and stickers, aiming to uplift participants' motivation to write more and avoid disappointment and anxiety.

Measures

Gratitude Questionnaire-Six Item Form (GQ-6)

At the end of every 15-week semester, I measured participants' gratitude levels using the printed English and Japanese GQ-6, administered to measure grateful disposition. The GQ-6 has shown good internal consistency in work with undergraduate students and, based on one-year test-retest reliability, is a stable measure of the gratitude disposition (McCullough et al. 2002). Question included in the GQ-6, such as, "I have so much in life to be thankful for," were scored with seven-point Likert-type responses (1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= slightly disagree, 4= neutral, 5= slightly agree, 6= agree, 7= strongly agree).

Gratitude Journal

Participants received a 3-week gratitude journal in which to write about the things taking place in their lives for which they were grateful. Written appreciation of these things could be submitted in any form; gratitude tree, gratitude jar or bin, gratitude box, and written three-day gratitude journal. They were also encouraged to create their own personalized gratitude journal design.

Development of Themed Narrative

Storybooks

Participants developed and created their own themed narrative paper storybooks. They received an autonomy to choose which group they wanted to join and which PP intervention topics: gratitude, kindness, and compassion. Each group received a book-bounded like blank paper where they wrote and drew their original stories. I showed them an example of the previous storybook I wrote to give them an idea on how to finish the task.

The Class Setting Gratitude Intervention

Each of the total of thirty class sessions began with a ten to fifteen-minute gratitude intervention. Participants and I engaged in a semi-structured conversation during which we shared ideas and feelings. This study was limited in that no pretest or preliminary examination was conducted. However, a follow-up questionnaire and conversation during class during the 15th session revealed that 85% of participants became aware of being grateful for what they have while taking part in the study, 10% said it required some effort. 5% did not respond at all. My role during each session was to use the Family environment Mode Approach (FEMA) by providing a family-like classroom environment (Ocampo, 2019) and a positive model of gratitude for the participants. For example, I informed them that I was grateful they came to the class despite the bad weather, for the flowers I saw on the way to the university. I also shared the deeper reasons for my gratitude. In order to build their gratitude, I asked them often to look around and think about what they were grateful for that day. I encouraged participants to be grateful not only in a class setting but cultivate gratitude wherever they go.

Results and Discussion

Participants answered the GQ-6 (McCullough et al. 2002) on their own volition. As shown in Table 1, the

Mean and Standard Deviations (SD) indicate that despite the pandemic crisis they strongly agreed that they had much in life to be grateful for and were grateful for a wide variety of people around them. It also shows that as they grow older, participants find themselves more able to appreciate the people, events and situations that have been part of their life history. At the same time, they denied not seeing much to be grateful for.

The three-week grateful journaling was an encouraged task. Participants wrote their journal freely in English as a part of the class activities. I did not require the students to fill up the journal each day. This was to avoid anxiety, burnout and stress (ABS) (Ocampo, 2021).

I gave the participants autonomy and encouragement to complete the task and gathered a total of 585 written responses. Ninety-seven percent of the participants submitted their journals. The remaining three percent did not write anything at all. The percentage of the gathered written responses were divided based on the five key domains: family, friends, school, living environment and self of Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale (MSLSS) (Huebner, 2001) that measures holistic assessment of the wellbeing of young people.

As shown in Table 2, the results based on 240 comments from the participants, revealed that they were taking care of themselves a great deal. They did so in the following ways: Spent time by themselves in solitude, slept a lot, went to a spa, visited shrines, listen to music, and played video games alone or with friends online. One participant reported that petting his cat relaxes him. Moreover, 220 comments from the participants revealed that they were thankful for spending time with friends, doing things such as eating out, going home together, chatting, and talking over the phone, or playing computer games in person. Some participants considered playing video games with friends both under self-care and friendship domains.

Fifty-six comments collected from the participants showed their appreciation of their family member(s). This related to things such as eating out together, playing with siblings, and appreciation of their mother's cooking. Thirty-seven comments revealed that they felt relaxed after finishing their homework and school-related tasks, studying together with their classmates, and that they highly appreciated their teacher's kindness in the classroom.

Finally, there were thirty-two comments expressing participants' appreciation for having a home and family to live with, a place to sleep, a karaoke in which he/she could sing alone, a gym where he/she could do muscle training, and for the existence of a beautiful sunset that one could see on the way home

Table 1: Mean and SD of Participants' Grateful Feelings

Participants' grateful feelings	Mean	SD
1. I have so much in life to be thankful for.	5.57	1.55
2. If I had to list everything that I felt grateful for, it would be a very long list.	5.18	1.47
3. When I look at the world, I don't see much to be grateful for.	2.59	1.64
4. I am grateful to a wide variety of people.	5.32	1.50
5. As I get older, I find myself more able to appreciate the people, events, and situations that have been part of my life history.	5.16	1.70
6. Long amounts of time can go by before I feel grateful to something or someone.	4.04	1.63

Table 2: Gratitude Journaling

(Five specific life domains based on Multidimensional students' life satisfaction scale (MSLSS))

Five specific life domains	Number of comments	Percentage
Family life	56	9.57
Friendship	220	37.60
School	37	6.32
Living environment	32	5.47
Self-care	240	41.02

Results supported the idea that connectedness/relatedness with friends is strongly appreciated. I asked several participants in an informal conversation why they reported appreciating the presence of their friends in school more than that of their families. They replied, "We are happy to have face-to-face classes" and "It's nice to eat and drink something together at Starbucks." After being confined in their houses and communicating mainly via computer and the internet, for them, human-to-human communication with their friends was highly valued. Beyond this, I did not probe why family-related aspects were less mentioned in their journals, but this is something that invites more detailed future examination.

In Figure 1, it can be seen that students were intrinsically motivated by sharing their ability and confidence and by writing what they were grateful for in

different ways, such as gratitude trees, gratitude jars, Japanese paper folding style, and through illustrations.

A comparison of the total of written gratitude notes during the first week (50%), second week (60%), and third week (97%) shows that motivation to finish tasks gradually increased.

There were only three personalized gratitude journals submitted, as shown in Figure 2.

Figure 3, shows that there were two bilingual storybooks carefully checked by a Japanese volunteer and myself, and one English storybook which I wrote. These storybooks were printed and distributed for no cost among students. Copies were also placed in the university library and available for reference. It is my aim to share this set of three positive psychology-themed

storybooks in schools and at public readings to promote citizens' happiness and wellbeing



Figure 1. Gratitude journal task submitted in different forms



Figure 2. Personalized Gratitude Journal



Figure 3. Three storybooks were created (two bilingual (Japanese and English), and one English).

Conclusion and Recommendation

In this study, PP intervention with a focus on gratitude while completing gratitude journals and positive psychology-themed storybooks motivated students to study English harder. Success in education, and in life in general, increases feeling of fulfillment, satisfaction, and happiness, which can be linked to various, desirable ongoing benefits such as wellbeing. As Pekrun et al. (2002) pointed out two decades ago, learning and achievement are integrated with the emotions that humans experience on a day-to-day basis, and this is still relevant today. Because of the importance of emotions in human life, they can significantly affect students' cognitive processes, academic performance, as well as their physical and psychological health and wellbeing. Thus, the efforts to revitalize learners' motivation through positive intervention, such as those carried out in this study are important. In the current project, they yielded positive results, and during the ongoing situation of uncertainty due to COVID-19, their application can highly recommended. Further, gratitude-focused writing may be expected to yield additional and long-term benefits (Fekete et al. 2022).

In positive psychology-themed storybook writing, it was found that positive, active exercises such as gratitude journaling, performing small acts of kindness and compassion helped participants appreciate what they have at the present time. Moreover, results of the intervention support the following conclusions: Gratitude intervention in the classroom was very effective in motivating students to accept various challenges in language learning, and students who did not participate during the first five meetings began to

participate throughout the rest of the semester. Throughout the project, motivation, attendance, attentiveness, gratitude, and "being aware of the small things" increased. For example, I was informed that one of the students "might go out of the classroom at any time" because of a psychological problem. However, as it turned out, that student stayed in the classroom and was surprisingly active in the class. This was likely because of the integration of FEMA (Ocampo, 2019) that created a family-like environment.

Given that participants had only beginner-level English skills, their active participation in current study alone was very positive. As an instructor, I also consider the PP intervention work through gratitude journaling and writing bilingual mini storybooks to have been a significant achievement for these students. When students finished the journaling task, they had developed not only positive behavior, but also improved their ability to interact and be kind with their group members when they wrote their mini storybooks. In addition, allowing beginner-level students to use both their L1 and L2 languages in the future could be another way to address the multicultural shortcomings of the current PP intervention in future work. Public readings of the PP themed storybooks reported in this paper will also be an important step in this work as it develops, increasing understanding of how these books can enhance people's wellbeing.

The findings of this study represent only a small part of a much broader vision which can be used to guide learners to maintain a healthy lifestyle and wellbeing. Supporting educators' professional development by teaching them how to carry out such interventions more efficiently is an important future

measure with the potential to contribute significantly to the fulfillment, satisfaction, and well-being of all.

References

- Biber, D. (2020). Teaching Gratitude for Social and Emotional Learning. *Strategies*, 33(2), 32-34. <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1080/08924562.2020.1706984>
- Fekete, E. M., & Deichert, N. T. (2022). A Brief Gratitude Writing Intervention Decreased Stress and Negative Affect During the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 1-22.
- Froh, J. J., Bono, G., & Emmons, R. (2010). Being grateful is beyond good manners: Gratitude and motivation to contribute to society among early adolescents. *Motivation and Emotion*, 34(2), 144-157.
- Gunnell, D., Appleby, L., Arensman, E., Hawton, K., John, A., Kapur, N., Khan, M., O'Connor, R. C., Pirkis, J., & COVID-19 Suicide Prevention Research Collaboration (2020). Suicide risk and prevention during the COVID-19 pandemic. *The Lancet Psychiatry*, 7(6), 468-471. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366\(20\)30171-1](https://doi.org/10.1016/S2215-0366(20)30171-1)
- Hawthorne, H. (2021). Effective interventions in education: Types and examples. High speed training. Hub. From High-Speed Training. <https://www.highspeedtraining.co.uk/hub/effective-interventions-in-education/>
- Huebner, E.S. (2001). *Manual for the Multidimensional Students' Life Satisfaction Scale*. University of South Carolina, Department of Psychology. Columbia, SC.
- Isumi, A., Doi, S., Yamaoka, Y., Takahashi, K., & Fujiwara, T. (2020). Do suicide rates in children and adolescents change during school closure in Japan? The acute effect of the first wave of COVID-19 pandemic on child and adolescent mental health. *Child abuse & neglect*, 110(Pt 2), 104680. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chiabu.2020.104680>
- Jans-Beken, L., Jacobs, N., Janssens, M., Peeters, S., Reijnders, J., Lechner, L., & Lataster, J. (2020). Gratitude and health: An updated review. *The Journal of Positive Psychology*, 15(6), 743-782.
- Khorrani, N. (2021). Motivation and gratitude: How they can go hand in hand. A perspective of gratitude to help build your intrinsic motivation. *Psychology Today*. Retrieved August 2021. <https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/comfort-gratitude/202105/motivation-and-gratitude-how-they-can-go-hand-in-hand>
- McCullough, M. E., Emmons, R. A., & Tsang, J. (2002). The Grateful Disposition: A conceptual and Empirical Topography. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82, 112-127.
- Melchior M. (2021). Social inequalities in children's mental health: isn't it time for action? *European child & adolescent psychiatry*, 30(9), 1317-1318. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00787-021-01855-x>
- Nishimura, T. & Suzuki, T. (2016). Basic psychological need satisfaction and frustration in Japan: controlling for the big five personality traits. *Japanese Psychological Research*, 58(4), 320-331.
- Ocampo, M. (2019) *Family Environment Mode Approach (FEMA): Procedures for Nurturing Affective Learning*. The Asian Conference on Language Learning (ACLL) "Independence & Interdependence". Tokyo, Japan. <https://papers.iafor.org/submission45249/>

- Ocampo, M.B. (2021). Self-disclosure through self-compassion: A window on the mind of teachers. In P. Clements, R. Derrah, & P. Ferguson (Eds.), *Communities of teachers & learners*, Postconference Journal. JALT. <https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTPCP2020-06>
- Pekrun, R., Goetz, T., Titz, W., & Perry, R. P. (2002). Academic emotions in students' self-regulated learning and achievement: A program of qualitative and quantitative research. *Educational Psychologist*, 37(2), 91-105. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15326985EP3702_4
- Reger, M. A., Stanley, I. H., & Joiner, T. E. (2020). Suicide mortality and coronavirus disease 2019—a perfect storm? *JAMA psychiatry*, 77(11), 1093-1094.
- Wong, J., & Brown, J. (2017). How gratitude changes you and your brain. *Greater Good Magazine*.
- World Health Organization (WHO), 2019. *Adolescent Mental Health: Time for Action*. Knowledge Summary: Women's Children's and Adolescents' Health. Retrieved: August 30, 2021. <http://www.who.int/pmnch/knowledge/publications/summaries/en/>
- World Health Organization (WHO), 2020. *Mental Health*. Retrieved: August 30, 2021. <https://www.who.int/teams/mental-health-and-substance-use/covid-19>
- World Health Organization (WHO), 2021. *Suicide*. Retrieved: February 23, 2021. <https://www.who.int/news-room/fact-sheets/detail/suicide>
- World Health Organization (WHO), 2022. *COVID-19 pandemic triggers 25% increase in prevalence of anxiety and depression worldwide*. Retrieved: March 9, 2021. <https://www.who.int/news/item/02-03-2022-covid-19-pandemic-triggers-25-increase-in-prevalence-of-anxiety-and-depression-worldwide>

Validating Survey Instruments for Measuring L3 Learning Attitudes

Shzh-chen Nancy Lee

Osaka University

There is increasingly more research in third language (L3) learning and teaching due to multilingualism. The present study aimed to validate a survey instrument developed by the researcher (Lee, 2007) to measure learners' attitudes for learning L3. The survey was developed to measure six latent constructs of L3 learning attitudes using 47 items: images associated with native speakers; learning of the target language in university; importance of learning the target language long-term; learning of the target language outside university; difficulty with learning the target language; and style of learning the target language in university. The present study conducted Rasch analyses on survey responses collected from 373 first-year Japanese university students. Results of the present study found that the survey was successful to some extent after deletion of unfitted items and participants. However, four of the measures might be multidimensional so the survey needs to be reexamined. This study suggests that survey instruments need to be validated using Rasch models to ensure that it measures the target latent constructs that it supposed to measure.

多言語主義が進む中、第三言語（L3）習得と教育に関する研究がますます増えている。本研究は筆者（Lee, 2007）が開発した L3 学習態度のアンケートの検証を目的とする。アンケートは 47 の質問項目で構成され、L3 学習に対して以下の 6 つの潜在的構成要素を測定した：ネイティブスピーカーのイメージ、大学での学習、長期学習の重要性、大学外での学習、学習の難しさや大学での学習スタイル。本研究では、日本の大学 1 年生 373 名から収集したアンケート回答に対してラッシュ分析を行い、質問項目及び参加者の回答を検討することにより、以上の L3 学習態度のアンケートの妥当性を検証した。結果として、いくつかの相応しくない質問項目および回答を削除したため、先行研究で開発された L3 学習態度のアンケートはある程度成功した。しかし、4 つの潜在要素の一次元性があると言えないため、更に検証することが必要。本研究から潜在的構造要素を測定するため、ラッシュ分析によりアンケート調査の検証が必要と言える。

Research up to date has widely examined learners' attitudes toward second language (L2) learning. Many studies have reported that Japanese learners have positive attitudes toward English (Kobayashi, 2000; Yashima, 2002; 2009). In the case of Japanese university students, English is often their L2, and third language (L3) would be another foreign language besides English. Despite learners' attitudes toward L2 learning have been widely researched, relatively little is known about their attitudes for learning L3 (Boo, Dörnyei, & Ryan, 2015). In a previous study by the researcher (Lee, 2007), a survey consisting of 47 five-point Likert scale items was developed to measure learners' attitudes for learning L3. It examined students' attitudes toward the following six elements when learning L3: images associated with native speakers; learning of the target language in university; importance of learning the target language long-term; learning of the target language outside university; difficulty with learning the target language; and style of learning the target language in university. Results were collected from 373 first-year Japanese university students. It was found that students have most positive attitudes toward

the images associated with native speakers and importance of learning the target language long-term but least positive attitudes toward learning the target language outside university. Almost fifteen years have passed since the researcher conducted her first L3 learner beliefs study but the line of L3 research has not progressed far. More attention and time are needed to contribute to L3 learning research (Humphries & Yashima, 2021). The present study therefore aimed to validate the survey instrument developed in the previous mentioned study (Lee, 2007) with Rasch analyses. It aimed to examine the suitability of the six latent constructs developed for the L3 attitudes survey by examining their unidimensionality through identifying unfitted survey items and participants. This study hopes to further understand L3 learner attitudes in Japan to contribute towards the research of L3 learning and teaching.

Literature review

Language learning attitudes

Research on language attitudes is important for language education because attitudes are closely related to the learning and teaching of languages (Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). It provides information for researchers, teachers and curriculum developers to better understand how learners view the learning of their target languages so that modifications and improvements can be made to language learning and teaching practices. However, attitudinal research is complex because its latent constructs can have different definitions, interpretations, and dimensions (Matsuda, 2000). An attitude is a position or manner of oneself, indicating a mood or a condition and it can be a state of mind or a feeling towards some matters (Morris, 1969). An attitude can be a favorable or unfavorable evaluation of an object (Dörnyei, 2003).

Language learning attitudes

Learners' attitudes toward L3 learning can be defined as their evaluative responses toward L3 learning. Unlike English which has wide global communication implications, languages other than English are usually related to the communication of more specific communities and have more specific and personalized purposes (Dörnyei & Al-Hoorie, 2017). Therefore, it can be expected that learners also have specific attitudes toward L3 learning.

Japanese learners' attitudes toward L3 learning

In Japan, the term L3 refers to the second foreign language studied after English chronologically. While L3 learning is not a requirement by the Japanese Ministry of Education, many universities require their students to attain a certain number of credits in a second foreign language subject for graduation (Kobayashi, 2013). Therefore, it can be considered that third language (L3) learning is prevalent at the university level in Japan. However, while many students are required to study L3 at the university, as high as 98% of Japanese students only study L3 for the first time after they enter the university (Oyama & Yamamoto, 2020). Japanese learners' attitudes toward L3 learning are influenced by university policies implicitly reinforcing the idea that English is more important than other foreign languages (Oyama & Yamamoto, 2020).

Motivation for current study

Despite many Japanese students are learning a third language at the university level, their attitudes toward L3 learning remain almost unknown. Because there was no survey instrument for L3 learner beliefs, the

researcher developed her own survey instrument approximately 15 years ago during her first postgraduate degree (Lee, 2007). It was found in that study that Japanese learners have most positive attitudes toward images associated with native speakers of the L3 and the importance of learning L3 long-term. On the other hand, they have least positive attitudes toward learning the L3 outside university. However, whether or not the survey in the previous study really measured what it supposed to measure remains unknown. Due to call for more research attention for L3, it was decided to validate the L3 survey developed.

The instrument was validated back then but there were problems with its validation. Therefore, cautions are needed when referring to results of the previous study (Lee, 2007). First problem was that the reliability of survey responses was checked by conducting short follow-up interviews with some of the participants. Participants were invited for a voluntary follow-up interview after survey completion where they were asked to verbally respond to five items from the same survey instrument. Interview responses were compared with their original survey responses to examine their consistency. When survey and interview responses were consistent, that survey data was considered reliable. However, due to time-constraint, only a small number of participants engaged in the follow-up interview. In addition, participants who volunteered for the follow-up interview probably already gave reliable survey responses because they were the more dedicated students. Therefore, although follow-up interviews can be a reliable tool for validating survey participants' responses, it is not practical when working with a large population sample.

Second, reliability of the survey data was also checked by locating possible dummy responses. The data was manually checked by the researcher to identify participants who gave "same-number" on the 5-point Likert scale and those dummies were deleted. However, manual identification/deletion of dummy responses is not only time consuming, but also unreliable as there are different types of "same-number" responses, for example, 34343434 and 1234512345. Therefore, while it is important to examine raw data, further validation of the survey instrument and data are necessary.

Rationale for Rasch analysis

Rasch analysis is a validation technique unknown to the researcher during her first degree. Since then, it has become a prerequisite before the actual survey results can be analyzed because Rasch analysis validates the reliability of the survey items, examines the quality of raw survey data, and the dimensionality of the target latent constructs. Rasch analysis is important because

it provides validation evidence and a framework where the data can be compared across studies (Bond & Fox, 2007). The current study therefore aims to utilize Rasch analysis for validating the survey instrument and responses from the previous study (Lee, 2007).

Method

Rasch analysis was conducted to validate survey items and responses from the previous study conducted by the researcher (Lee, 2007). The researcher decided not to collect data because she was unable to collect new data from a similar size population. Therefore, the present study aimed to validate survey items used data collected for the researcher's master thesis to develop a new survey instrument for future studies.

Research population

Survey responses were collected from 373 (287 male and 86 female) first-year students from a public university in Western Japan during the fall academic semester. All participants were native speakers of Japanese ranging from 18 to 21 years of age. They were considered to have relatively high level of academic abilities and achievements. All participants had to enroll in a mandatory L3 subject. Among 373 participants, most enrolled subject was Chinese (50.7%), followed by German (26.8%), French (9.9%), and Italian (7.2%). Participants studying other L3 languages consisted of 5.4% of the research population.

Survey instrument

The survey instrument in the previous study Lee (2007) was developed based on Horwitz's (1987) Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory. The Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) was adapted because it is one of the first studies to conduct systematic research into the nature of language learning beliefs. Survey instruments from four other studies were also adapted because they focused on language learning beliefs of Japanese university student (Benson, 1991; Kobayashi, 2000, 2002; Matsuda, 2000). The developed survey consists of 47 five-point Likert scale items: 1 = *Strongly agree*, 2 = *Agree*, 3 = *Neutral*, 4 = *Disagree*, 5 = *Strongly disagree*. The survey instrument was developed in English and then translated into Japanese by a native speaker of Japanese. The translated Japanese items were backed translated into English by a bilingual speaker of English and Japanese and the new English version was then compared with the original English survey to examine the validity of the translation. The survey was administered to the participants during mandatory

English classes on paper. Participants were given fifteen minutes at the end of the class to complete the survey.

In the previous study (Lee, 2007), six factors were extracted from Principal component analysis. Eigenvalue of 1 and over was used for the factor extraction benchmark (Field, 2005). Items with loadings below 0.38 were deleted. Two items were further deleted as an attempt to increase the Cronbach Alpha value. A total of 37 items were left (See Appendix) to measure the six latent constructs and these constructs were given names by referring to construct names used in the above mentioned studies (Benson, 1991; Horwitz, 1987; Kobayashi, 2000, 2002; Matsuda, 2000):

- 1) Images associated with native speakers
- 2) Learning of the target language in university
- 3) Importance of learning target language long-term
- 4) Learning of the target language outside university
- 5) Difficulty with learning the target language
- 6) Style of learning the target language in university

Principles of Rasch analyses

The raw survey data collected was imported into WINSTEPS version 3.64.2 (Linacre & Wright, 2007). A total of six Rasch models were constructed, one for each of the six latent constructs respectively. In each Rasch model, raw data was transformed into logits to examine item difficulty estimates, person ability estimates, and their relationships. The person ability estimate was calculated based on each person's correct responses to the items and item difficulty was calculated from the total number of responses by the respondents (Bond & Fox, 2007). The Rasch model measures the relationship between item difficulty and person ability. A higher ability person has a greater probability of correctly responding to an item than a lower ability person, and more difficult items are answered correctly by fewer people compared to easier items (Rasch, 1960). Two types of fit statistics, mean square (MNSQ) and standardized (ZSTD) were calculated in this study. Fisher (2007) suggested that fit statistics smaller than 0.33 and larger than 3.00 are poor, those between 0.34 to 2.90 are fair, values between 0.50 to 2.00 are good, those between 0.71 to 1.40 are very good, and statistics between 0.77 to 1.30 are excellent. Linacre suggested that infit MNSQ and outfit MNSQ statistics between 0.50 and 1.50 are indicators of acceptable fit to the Rasch model (Fisher, 2007). Fisher also suggested the following reliability estimates: < .67 are poor, .67 to .80

are fair, .81 to .90 are good, .91 to .94 are very good, and > .94 are excellent. Lastly, principal component analysis was conducted for each model to evaluate its dimensionality (Bond & Fox, 2007). A measure is considered acceptably unidimensional when more than 50.00% of the variance is explained by the model and the unexplained variance is less than 10.00%, or the eigenvalue of the unexplained variance is < 3.00 (Linacre, 2007).

Results

Rasch analysis was conducted for each of the six latent constructs to examine their fit to the Rasch model, construct dimensionality and reliability to produce interval measures. This section presents the details of Rasch analysis for the Images Associated with Native Speakers measure.

Category structure functioning

The eight items measuring Images Associated with Native Speakers were analyzed using data from 373 participants. Category functioning of the five-point Likert scale is presented in Table 1. First, each category met the minimum benchmark of 10 observations per category. Category 1 (Strongly agree) had 227 observations (8.00%) which was the smallest number. Second, the Outfit MNSQ statistics for all five categories were below 2.00. Third, the separation between adjacent categories was greater than the minimum requirement of 0.59 logits (Linacre, 2002b). Based on the results of category structure functioning, it can be concluded that the five-point Likert-scale performed satisfactorily for measuring Images Associated with Native Speakers.

Table 1: *Category Structure Functioning for Images Associated with Native Speakers*

Category	Count	(%)	Infit MNSQ	Outfit MNSQ	Structure Measure	Category Measure
1 Strongly agree	227	8	1.11	1.34	None	(-2.84)
2 Agree	499	17	1.00	1.03	-1.50	-1.25
3 Neutral	860	29	.89	1.02	-.67	-.07
4 Disagree	885	30	.85	.87	.42	1.23
5 Strongly disagree	512	17	1.06	1.09	1.75	(3.02)

Rasch item measure

All items except item 8, *It is important to have a good pronunciation of this language*, met the Outfit MNSQ of 0.50 to 1.50 logit criterion (Linacre, 2002a). Item 8 probably did not fit into the model because it did not explicitly focus on the native speakers of the target language but focused on the aesthetics of sound. Since most participants in the study have only started learning L3 after they entered the university, they probably still could not distinguish good pronunciation from what is considered as bad pronunciation of the target language. In order to check the effects of deleting item 8, the Rasch person measures with and without item 8 were exported into SPSS and a bivariate correlation analysis was run. Pearson correlation of .99 ($p < .01$) indicated that deleting item 8 did not affect the person measures

of the model. Therefore, item 8 was deleted from the Images Associated with Native Speakers measure and Table 2 shows the Rasch item statistics of the new measure after item 8 deletion. Meanwhile, the Outfit MNSQ of item 18, *In order to understand foreigners, I want to learn more of this language*, exceeded Linacre's upper benchmark of 1.50 logit (Linacre, 2002a). However, item 18 can also be considered acceptable using Fisher's (2007) criterion because it has a logit value between 0.50 to 2.00. Therefore, item 18 was not deleted from the model at this stage of the analysis.

Table 2: Rasch Item Statistics for Images Associated with Native Speakers

Item	Measure	SE	Infit MNSQ	Infit ZSTD	Outfit MNSQ	Outfit ZSTD	Pt-measure Correlation
18	.23	.07	1.49	6.0	1.64	7.5	.57
27	.16	.07	.59	-6.7	.59	-6.7	.82
25	.15	.07	1.40	5.0	1.44	5.4	.61
28	.02	.07	.86	-2.0	.91	-1.2	.71
26	-.06	.07	.62	-6.1	.62	-6.1	.82
29	-.22	.07	1.11	1.5	1.11	1.5	.72
30	-.28	.07	.90	-1.3	.88	-1.6	.75

Rasch person measure

Pearson measure was calculated and eight participants were unable to be measured by the model because they reached maximum MNSN and ZSTD values. An examination of these eight participants found that all of them provided the same response, 5, for all items. Therefore, these participants were deleted from the sample and the model was recalculated. Person measure of the new model was considered to be satisfactory as only one participant reached the maximum MNSQ and ZSTD values. The abbreviated Wright map (Figure 1) presents the participants on the left side of the graph where participants with more positive images of native speakers are located toward the top and participants with less positive images are toward the bottom. On the right-hand side of the graph, the items are displayed according to their difficulty; more difficult to endorse items are located toward the

top and easier to endorse items are located toward the bottom. Figure 1 shows that items were fairly well balanced in their difficulty to be endorsed and the respondents were well distributed around the item mean. The most difficult to endorse item was item 18, *In order to understand foreigners, I want to learn more of this language*. Item 18 can be considered to be most difficult for these participants to endorse because language learning does not directly correlate with the desire to understand foreigners. This supports the previous Rasch item measure because item 18 struggled to fit into the *Images Associated with Native Speakers* model. On the other, the easiest to endorse item was item 30, *If I have the opportunity, I would like to talk to the native speakers of this language*. This response is reasonable, as the item directs participants' attention to focus on the image of native speakers.

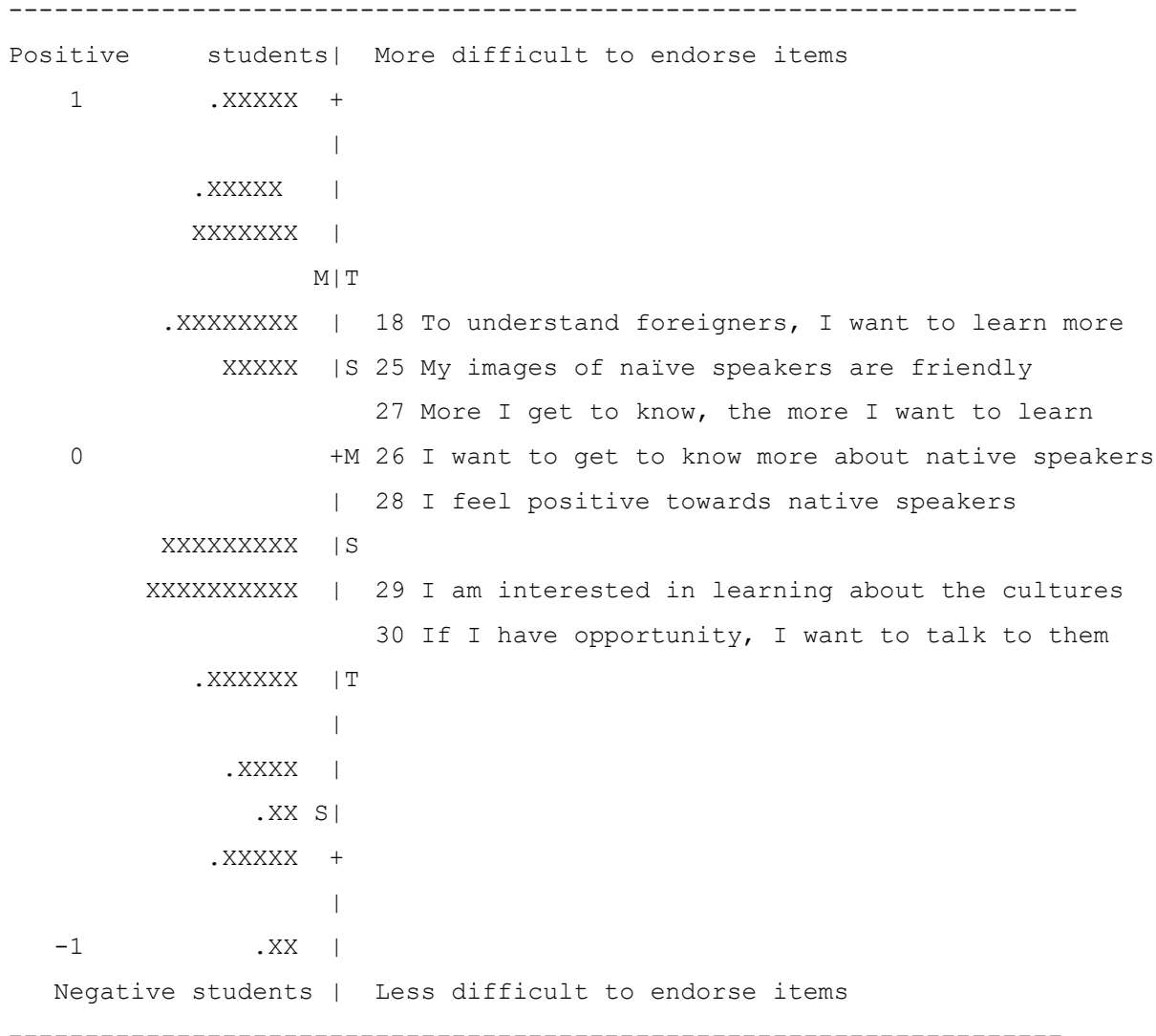


Figure 1. Wright map for images associated with native speakers. M = Mean; S = 1 SD; T = 2SDs. Each X = 2 participants.

Note. This map has been abbreviated.

Rasch PCA of item residuals

The Rasch PCA of item residuals analysis was conducted to investigate the dimensionality of the Images Associated with Native Speakers measure. The Rasch model explained 50.50% of the variance (eigenvalue = 7.1), which just exceeded the 50.00% criterion suggested by Linacre (2007). In addition, 22.50% of the variance (eigenvalue = 3.20) was explained by the items, and 16.3% of the unexplained variance (eigenvalue = 2.30) was accounted for by the first residual contrast. While this figure exceeded the 10.00% criterion by Linacre (2007), it nevertheless met the eigenvalue criterion of < 3.00. Therefore, results of the Rasch PCA of item residuals analysis indicate that the Images Associated with Native Speakers measure might be unidimensional.

Table 3 shows the loadings of the remaining seven items from the Images Associated with Native Speakers measure. Items with the highest positive loadings were item 25, *My images of the native speakers are friendly*, and item 28, *I feel positive towards the native speakers of this language*. The loadings in Table 3 suggest that there might be two dimensions in this measure as items 29, *I am interested in learning about the cultures of its native speakers*, item 30, *If I have the opportunity, I would like to talk to the native speakers of this language*, item 26, *I want to get to know more about the native speakers of this language*, and item, 27, *The more I get to know about them, the more I want to learn about them*, have similar negative loadings. Item 18 has almost zero loading, which further suggests that it is probably not suitable for measuring the Images Associated with Native Speakers.

The Rasch item separation statistic of the Images Associated with Native Speakers model was 2.36 and the person separation statistic was 2.05. Therefore, they are both within the acceptable range of values greater than 2.00 (Fisher, 2007). Finally, item reliability and person reliability estimates are around .80, which fit into the good reliability range of between .81 to .90 (Fisher, 2007). Rasch model analysis was also conducted for the other five latent constructs. Full details of these five Rasch model are abbreviated below. Learning the Target Language in University construct had high item separation index of 8.46 (reliability of .99). However, it had a low person separation index of 1.55 (reliability of .70) as well as a number of participants exceeded maximum MNSN and ZSTD values. These participants were deleted and the model was

recalculated. However, while most of the items in the Learning the Target Language in University model had high loadings, they also loaded into two groups. This suggests that Learning of the Target language in University construct might have two sub-dimensions. This multidimensional issue also occurred with Importance of Learning the Target Language Long-term construct and Style of Learning the Target Language in University construct. Among the six constructs, Learning of the Target Language Outside University construct appeared to be unidimensional. Finally, Difficulty with Learning the Target Language construct produced comparatively very low item and person separation statistics so further analyses were not conducted.

Table 3: Rasch PCA of Item Residuals for Images Associated with Native Speakers

No	Item	Loading	Measure	Infit MNSQ	Outfit MNSQ
25	My images of the native speakers are friendly.	.86	.15	1.40	1.44
28	I feel positive towards the native speakers of this language.	.79	.02	.86	.91
29	I am interested in learning about the cultures of its native speakers.	-.56	-.22	1.11	1.11
30	If I have the opportunity, I would like to talk to the native speakers of this language.	-.49	-.28	.90	.88
26	I want to get to know more about the native speakers of this language.	-.47	-.06	.62	.62
27	The more I get to know about them, the more I want to learn about them.	-.43	.16	.59	.59
18	In order to understand foreigners, I want to learn more of this language.	-.04	.23	1.49	1.64

Discussion

Overall, the original survey instrument developed in the previous study (Lee, 2007) for measuring learners' L3 attitudes achieved some satisfactory outcomes. The Rasch analyses showed that the five-point Likert scale is appropriate and the survey instrument is relatively reliable as five out of the six Rasch models had acceptable person reliability and item separation statistics. However, there was a potential problem that the constructs did not exactly measure what they supposed to measure because the Rasch models had multidimensional issues. Despite several unfitting items and participants were deleted, it still did not

improve unidimensionality of the target latent constructs. For items developed to measure Images Associated with Native Speakers, they possibly have potentially measured two different aspects of native speaker images because the model had two sub-dimensions. Item 25 and item 28 are related to participants' impressions of the L3 speakers whereas items 26, 27, 29, and 30 are related to actions that the participants want to engage in because they have images of the L3 speakers.

Out of the six latent constructs, only Learning of the Target Language Outside University construct appeared to be unidimensional. Previous study (Lee,

2007) found participants had the least positive attitudes toward learning the target language outside university. Since this construct is unidimensional, results of present study validated the previous study results that Japanese university students indeed have least positive attitudes toward learning L3 outside the university. On the other hand, since Images Associated with Native Speakers and Importance of learning the Target Language Long-term constructs had potential multidimensional issues, results of the previous study need to be interpreted with caution. Therefore, Japanese university students might not have positive attitudes toward L3 native speakers and the importance of long-term L3 learning. Difficulty with Learning the Target Language construct Rasch analysis might have produced very low item and person separation statistics because only three items were included for this construct. More items need to be included for the Difficulty with Learning the Target Language construct Rasch model to be conducted.

Conclusion

L3 learning research has been comparatively overlooked compared to L2 research. To contribute to the line of L3 research, the researcher validated a previously developed survey instrument for measuring L3 learning attitudes using Rasch analyses. Results of the present study found that the survey was successful to some extent after deletion of unfitted items and participants. However, four of the measures have potential multidimensional issues so the survey needs to be reexamined to ensure that it measures the latent constructs that it supposes to measure.

Two implications can be suggested from the present study. First, Likert-scale survey instruments need to be validated using Rasch models to ensure the reliability of the data collected. All future language learning and teaching researchers need to validate their survey instruments with Rasch analyses. In addition, the survey results cannot be compared with results of other studies without conducting Rasch analyses. Second, preliminary analysis of raw data needs to be conducted before the survey results can be analyzed and interpreted. Without preliminary analyses, teachers and researchers need to be aware that they need to comprehend those research results with caution.

Acknowledgement

I want to thank the teachers and students who helped with this survey fifteen years ago as they made the present study possible.

References

- Benson, M. J. (1991). Attitudes and motivations towards English: A survey of Japanese freshmen. *RELC Journal*, 22(1), 34-48.
- Bond, T., & Fox, C. (2007). *Applying the Rasch model: Fundamental measurement in the human sciences*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Boo, Z., Dörnyei, Z., & Ryan, S. (2015). L2 motivation research 2005-2014: Understanding a publication surge and changing landscape. *System*, 55, 145-157.
- Dörnyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and applications. *Language Learning*, 53(S1), 3-32.
- Dörnyei, Z & Al-Hoorie, A. H. (2017). The motivational foundation of learning languages other than global English: Theoretical issues and research directions. *The Modern Language Journal*, 101(3), 455-468.
- Field, A. (2005). *Discovering statistics using SPSS*. London, England: SAGE Publications.
- Fisher, W. P. Jr. (2007). Rating scale instrument quality criteria. *Rasch Measurement Transactions*, 21(1), 1095. Retrieved from <https://www.rasch.org/rmt/rmt21m.htm>
- Horwitz, E. K. (1987). Surveying students' beliefs about language learning, In A. Wenden, & J. Rubin, (Eds.) *Learner strategies in language learning* (pp. 119-129). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall International.
- Humphries, S., & Yashima, T. (2021). "I forgot the language:" Japanese students' actual multilingual selves and translanguaging challenges as English majors in Taiwan. In W.

- Tsou & W. Baker (Eds.), *English-Medium Instruction Translanguaging Practices in Asia* (pp. 143-161). Singapore: Springer.
- Kobayashi, Y. (2000). *Japanese social influences on academic high school students' attitudes toward long-term English learning*, doctoral dissertation, University of Toronto.
- Kobayashi, Y. (2002). The role of gender in foreign language learning attitudes: Japanese female students' attitudes towards English learning. *Gender and Education*, 14(2), 191-197.
- Kobayashi, Y. (2013). Europe versus Asia: foreign language education other than English in Japan's higher education. *Higher Education*, 66(3), 269-281.
- Lee, N. S. C. (2007). First-year Japanese university students' attitudes toward L2 and L3 learning. In K. Bradford-Watts (Ed.) *JALT 2006 Conference Proceedings*. Tokyo, Japan. JALT.
- Linacre, J. M. (2002a). What do infit and outfit, mean-square and standardized mean? *Rasch Measurement Transactions*, 16(2), 878. Retrieved from <http://www.rasch.org/rmt/rmt162f.htm>
- Linacre, J. M. (2002b). Optimizing rating scale category effectiveness. *Journal of Applied Measurement*, 3(1), 85-106. Retrieved from <http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.424.2811&rep=rep1&type=pdf>
- Linacre, J. M. (2007). *A user's guide to WINSTEPS: Rasch-model computer program*. Chicago, IL: MESA.
- Linacre, J. M., & Wright, B. D. (2007). *WINSTEPS: Multiple-choice, rating scale, and partial credit Rasch analysis* [Computer software]. Chicago, IL: MESA.
- Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. In Z. Dörnyei (Ed.) *Attitudes, orientations and motivations in language learning* (pp. 167-210). Oxford, England: Blackwell.
- Matsuda, A. (2000). *Japanese attitudes toward English: A case study of high school students*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Purdue University, West Lafayette, Indiana.
- Morris, W. (1969). *The American heritage dictionary of the English language*. New York, NY: American Heritage Publishing Co. Inc.
- Oyama, M., & Yamamoto, S. (2020). Pluralistic approaches for Japanese university students preparing to study abroad. *European Journal of Language Policy*, 12(1), 29-53.
- Rasch, G. (1960). *Probabilistic models for some intelligence and attainment tests*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago.
- Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *The Modern Language Journal*, 86(1), 54-66.
- Yashima, T. (2009). International posture and the ideal L2 ideal in the Japanese EFL context. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.) *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 144-163). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Appendix

Six latent Constructs and Items

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly agree
5	4	3	2	1

Construct 1: Images associated with native speakers

Item	Description
8	It is important to have a good pronunciation of this language.
18	In order to understand foreigners, I want to learn more of this language.
25	My images of the native speakers are friendly.
26	I want to get to know more about the native speakers of this language.
27	The more I get to know about them, the more I want to learn about them.
28	I feel positive towards the native speakers of this language.
29	I am interested in learning about the cultures of its native speakers.
30	If I have the opportunity, I would like to talk to the native speakers of this language.

Construct 2: Learning of the target language in university

Item	Description
21	In order to become good at this language, the lecture is important.
31	I like this language lecture at the university.
36	This language lecture at the university is interesting.
40	The content of this lecture is highly practical.
41	I am highly interested with the content of this lecture.
44	I am satisfied with the content of this language class.
45	I want the content of this language lecture to be changed.
46	I want the way this language lecture is conducted to be changed.

Construct 3: Importance of learning the target language long-term

Item	Description
6	It is important to speak this language.
7	In order to learn this language, learning it outside the classroom is important.
12	This language is important for future studies.
13	This language is important for traveling and others
15	I want to become able to speak this language.
19	The language I am studying right now would help me in getting a good job in the future.
42	The content of this language lecture should focus on things that would benefit our future career opportunities.

Construct 4: Learning of the target language outside university

Item	Description
2	I want to become able to speak this language someday.
3	I like learning this language.
17	I want to continue learning this language even after I get all the required credits.
47	Other than studying in the classroom, I even study it at home.
48	Besides studying for the lecture, I do things on my own which are related to the learning of this language.
49	Besides the textbook, I am using other things that aid my learning of this language.

Construct 5: Difficulty with learning the target language

Item	Description
1	The language I am studying right now is difficult.
14	It is easier to learn this language than other foreign languages.
16	The grammar of the language I am doing right now is not difficult.

Construct 6: Style of learning the target language in university

Item	Description
4	I think it is best to learn this language in its native-speaking country.
32	I think a native teacher is more suitable for this language lecture at the university.
35	In this lecture at the university, having a happy atmosphere is the most important thing.
38	Students should have the right to choose topics in which they are interested in for this language lecture.
43	Students should have the right in choosing the teacher for this language class at the university.

Chat-Style Writing in Teaching Conversation

Lala Takeda

Showa Women's University

This study analyzed video-recorded interactions of 14 Japanese-English pairings for foreign language learners to qualitatively determine similarities and differences in how they managed pragmatically competent conversations in English before and after incorporating chat-style writing into instruction. The study focused on utterances that answer questions and on using other-initiated repetition (allo-repetition) for backchannels and to confirm interlocutors' comprehension. The analysis showed that conversations recorded after learners adopted chat-style writing showed development in the amount and content of answers to questions and slightly fewer allo-repetitions by listeners. However, the interlocutors reverted to Japanese when they could not use English well in some interactions. Based on these findings, the similarities and differences between speaking and writing exercises are considered, suggesting potential contributions for chat-style writing to conversational instruction.

日本語概要 本論文では、14組の日本人大学生英語学習者のビデオ録画された相互行為を分析し、チャット形式作文（文脈に応じた会話を促進する目的で考案された、リレー形式の書き込みを使用した教授法）を指導に組み込む前後で、英語での語用論の面で円滑な会話を管理する方法における類似点と相違点を定性的に分析する。本研究では、質問に答える発話、あいづちとして他者反復を使う方法、対話者の理解の確認に焦点をあてた。分析の結果、チャット形式作文の採用後に録画された会話では、質問への回答量と内容に発展が見られ、聞き手による他者反復の数がわずかに減少したことが示された。しかし、英語が上手く使えないために、参加者が日本語に戻したやり取りが散見された。以上の発見に基づいてスピーキング演習とライティング演習の類似点と相違点を考察し、チャット形式作文が会話指導にどの程度貢献できるかを念頭に置きつつ、この実用的な方法を精査する。

To encourage autonomous and spontaneous conversations in university-level L2 interactions, Takeda (2021) introduced chat-style writing, an original teaching method using relay-style writing (Tanabe, Noguchi, Osuka, & Okada, 2019), similar to exchanging written messages and social networking service chats. She clarified differences in achieving coherence and mutual understanding through allo-repetition between dyadic L2 speaking and writing interactions. Takeda defined allo-repetition as “the repetition of a word or syntactic structure by a speaker other than the current speaker” (2021, p. 42). This type of repetition is used in response to an utterance made by the current speaker. For example, in the following conversation, “hip-hop”

Previous Studies

Writing and Conversation

In previous studies, L1 peer interaction improved EFL writing (Iijima, Hayasaka, Nakamura, & Mitani, 2017; McDonough, Crawford, & De Vleeschauwer, 2016), and Weissberg (2006) discussed the importance of

is an example of allo-repetition: A: “My favorite music is hip-hop.” B: “I don’t like hip-hop. I like to listen to K-pop.” Takeda illustrated an effective paradigm to apply to teaching conversations, focusing on how to add or enrich.

For this study, I referred to what Taguchi (2009, p. 1) called pragmatic competence, the ability to use language appropriately in a social context. I defined “pragmatically managed competent (conversations)” as maintaining appropriate, smooth, consistent interaction by expanding content to indicate details and giving effective comments or reactions to encourage their interlocutors to develop the topic.

speaking practice for language learners in writing classes. These studies successfully introduced speaking practice during writing sessions to help improve students’ writing abilities; however, the authors did not investigate how to improve learners’ speaking ability by having them write conversational clauses.

Namaziandost, Saray, and Esfahani (2018) highlighted the benefits of introducing writing practices, such as short essays, picture descriptions, and text summaries, to improve EFL learners' speaking skills. These practices can become more interactive with collaborative writing strategies to help learners respond appropriately to others' utterances. For example, Tanabe et al. (2019) investigated relay-style writing among four native Japanese speakers and learners of Japanese as a second language, who worked together to build a coherent story by each writing one paragraph within an allotted time. Although no researcher has applied this method with Japanese EFL learners, the finding was encouraging for collaborative writing in language classes.

Pragmatics in Spoken Interactions

Researchers in interlanguage pragmatics discussed how EFL learners behave verbally and nonverbally in L2 interactions (Kecskes & Assimakopoulos, 2017; Rose & Kasper, 2001), conversation analysis-based L2 interaction (Campbell-Larsen, 2019; Greer & Nanbu, 2021), and pragmalinguistics (Inagaki, 2019; Kawashima, 2021 for the speech act; Matsuoka, 2018; Osuka, 2019 in the study-abroad context). Distinguishing conversational behavior in L2 versus L1 interactions is important for helping L2 speakers have coherent, pragmatic interactions.

Allo-Repetition

Clark (1996) suggested that interlocutors should demonstrate understanding of utterances and strengthen understanding by repeating utterance parts. Brennan and Clark (1996) described allo-repetition as contributing to the coherence of each utterance and to interlocutors' constructing mutual understanding. Allo-repetition enables non-native speakers to communicate their positive interest in conversations despite unequal language skills (Takeda, 2021; Tanimura & Yoshida, 2017; Yoshida, 2018).

Research Questions

Prior studies proposed allo-repetition to establish mutual understanding and positive involvement and suggested chat-style writing as a highly effective method of training longer, more coherent utterances. Accordingly, the research question for this study was regarding the similarities and differences between

before and after I incorporated chat-style writing into instruction. I examined this question in the contexts of managing pragmatically competent conversations in English and how much chat-style writing affected students' conversations.

Data and Methodology

The study conversation excerpts consist of three-minute video-recorded conversations in an English class. The participants spoke of their hobbies and favorite food in the first session (before adopting chat-style writing) and activities during the previous winter vacation in the second session (after adopting chat-style writing). Based on my judgments regarding the students' ease and comfort with developing these topics, I selected these topics, accepting some nervousness. In groups of four, two students recorded the conversation between the other group members. The students wrote in a chat-style for 5–10 minutes in an English class. I provided no platform or electronic tools for this exercise, but I did give students sheets of paper and ask them to use their writing materials; I allowed students to use dictionaries and consult with each other in Japanese but only minimally.

Participants wrote about activities for the upcoming summer vacation and midterm examinations. The same students participated for a year, working on chat-style writing every week in the final part of class from the middle of the spring semester to the late fall semester. Students' interest in chat-style writing depended on the topic, showing high engagement in writing about vacation plans or favorite things, as reflected in the length of writing and their positive attitudes toward the task. During this task, I provided no specific instructions. Instead, I advised students to continue their exchanges as much as possible during the allotted time with consistency between the written messages.

Participants

The participants in this study were 14 pairs of acquainted male and female engineering university students at advanced beginner or early intermediate level in one of my English classes in Japan. I asked the students to cooperate with my project of testing a method to improve their skills at smooth conversations with a native English speaker. For this study, I focused on responses to questions and allo-repetition to

acknowledge content or background knowledge regarding the current topic, confirming each interlocutor's comprehension, and letting each speaker continue to talk (Horiguchi, 1997; Otsuka, 2015).

Analysis

Conversations recorded after students adopted chat-style writing showed development in the volume and content of answers to questions, and listeners made slightly fewer allo-repetitions. I present two data sets from interactions before the students adopted chat-style writing to clarify the brevity of their utterances and their ongoing use of allo-repetition.

Interactions Before Adopting Chat-Style Writing

Example 1: Salmon

- 1 A: What is your favorite food?
- 2 B: My favorite food is wataame, ah, [cotton candy].
- 3 A: [Wataame].
- 4 B: Cotton candy.
- 5 A: Cotton [candy].
- 6 B: [Yes]. I, if I went to festival, I would buy it.
- 7 A: Un, oh.
- 8 B: How about you? How about you?
- 9 A: Um, I like sushi.
- 10 B: Sushi.
- 11 A: Sushi.
- 12 B: Sushi tabetai. Sushi, what sushi, what kind of sushi do you like?
- 13 A: I like, um, salmon.
- 14 B: Salmon.
- 15 A: Un, salmon.
- 16 B: Salmon is Maguro in Japanese. Are, magu, no, no, no Maguro.

The two interlocutors talked about their favorite food. B's favorite was wataame (cotton candy), which he conveyed using two allo-repetitions: repeating "wataame" and repeating its English translation, "cotton candy." In these allo-repetitions, B is

paraphrasing a Japanese word in English to attempt to speak in an English way.

A's favorite food was salmon sushi, and the lines conveying this included two allo-repetitions, of sushi and salmon, both short utterances. These repetitions monitored each interlocutor's understanding and each one's search for the following utterance and a subsequent related question. A second example illustrates functions other than monitoring understanding.

Example 2: Famous Game (Phrase-level Repetition)

- 1 C: Hey, what's up?
- 2 D: Eh, I, I am sleepy.
- 3 C: Oh sleepy. I, I'm sleepy too. What are you hobby?
- 4 D: Eh, I like to travel and to take a picture, pictures. How about you? N? how about you?
- 5 C: I, my hobby is playing videogames and watching animations.
- 6 D: What's your fa, famous game?
- 7 C: Famous game? Favorite game.
- 8 D: Favorite game.
- 9 C: Favorite game. My favorite game is Da, Dark Souls. Dark Souls.
- 10 D: What's the haad of it?
- 11 C: Eh, PlayStation, PlayStation 4.
- 12 D: Ah, I don't have it.

The two students in this interaction conversed about their hobbies; they developed their small talk by asking about their feelings regarding taking an English class after having lunch, and they shared that they felt sleepy. Then, they spoke of one of the topics I assigned, their hobbies. After answering (line 4), D asked C about his hobbies and subsequently tried to develop the topic of video games by asking which games C liked. D should have said, "What's your favorite game?" However, he mistakenly said, "famous" instead of "favorite" (line 6). Noticing the mistake, C doubted that choice via rising intonation and suggested a more suitable candidate (line 7). Listening to these two similar phrases with different adjectives, D realized his mistake and accepted C's "favorite game" suggestion (line 8). Reaching consensus on a topic, C repeated his

suggested word and stated his favorite game (Dark Souls for PlayStation 4; lines 9–11). This interaction continued, using two words for each utterance (lines 6–9). Utterances contained phrase-level allo-repetitions to trigger, acknowledge, and accept correction.

An Example of Chat-Style Writing

The example below shows chat-style writing for the topic of plans for a summer vacation.

Example 3: Disney Sea

- 1 B: What are you going to do this summer?
- 2 E: I think I want to go to Disney Sea.
- 3 B: Wow, what do you ride attraction (*attraction*)?
- 4 E: I want to ride raising (*raising*) spirit(s).
- 5 B: It is turning around 360o, isn't it?
- 6 E: Yes, it is. What do you want to ride there?
- 7 B: I want to ride "Jenie's Masic lump (*Genie's Magic Lamp*) theater" and "turtle talk".
- 8 E: Oh, It's (*it's*) great I have never ride (*ridden*) both. What are you going to do this summer?
- 9 B: I want to go to festival and eat cotten (*cotton*) candy.
- 10 E: It's nice. Who do you go there with?
- 11 B: Please don't ask about it.
- 12 E: Oh, sorry. You go to lonely.

This interaction included four allo-repetitions: lines 1 and 8, 3 and 4, 6 and 7, and 9 and 10. Among these, repetition of "What are you going to do this summer?" (line 8) maintained consistency with my allotted topic. In contrast, the other three allo-repetitions were extracted from a prior word or phrase; speakers used them to indicate relatedness to previous utterances and provide additional information to maintain consistency with each subtopic under the main theme of summer vacation plans.

Additionally, in this interaction through chat-style writing, the information exchanges included more words for each utterance than in the previous two examples. Moreover, participants commented on their partner's utterances, such as "Wow" (line 3), "It is turning around 360°, isn't it?" (line 5), "Oh. It's great I

have never ride both" (line 8), and "It's nice" (line 10) to develop their conversations. Student B used more words and related content in chat-style writing than in the conversation about favorite foods before the students adopted chat-style writing. This suggests that incorporating chat-style writing into conversation instruction was useful for developing utterance content, not only answering the question.

Interaction After Adopting Chat-Style Writing

A major development after the students adopted chat-style writing is that some added comments to the answer or reaction to the previous utterance and demonstrated improved pragmatically managed competence. See Example 4 for details.

Example 4: Saitama Stadium

- 1 A: What were your best things last year?
- 2 F: I met many persons. And I could become many friends. How about you?
- 3 A: My best things is Saitama Stadium. And I watched soccer game. Enemy is Argentina. It was so good game. What did you do with your friend?
- 4 F: I watched baseball game three times.
- 5 A: What baseball team do you like?
- 6 F: I like Chiba Lotte Marines. Do you know? And I like soccer. My favorite team is Yokohama F Marinos. Do you know?
- 7 A: Yeah. My favorite team is Kashima Antlers.
- 8 F: Good team.
- 9 A: ACL is good game.

This interaction presents more answers to questions and development in the content of those answers. For example, line 2 consists of the main answer to the question in line 1 ("What were your best things last year?"); the paraphrase of F's "best thing" is that he could meet many friends (but literally, he could become friends with many people he met). Line 3, uttered by A, who earlier answered with just one word (e.g., "sushi" or "salmon"), consisted of more than one sentence to answer the question in F (line 2, "How about you?"). In this line, A added the following three elements to his original answer ("My best thing is Saitama Stadium"): (1) what he did at Saitama Stadium, (2) the opponent in the game, and (3) his impression of

the game. His comments followed the additional question regarding F's best thing about meeting his friends. After F explained what he did with his friends (lines 4 and 5), he stated his favorite baseball team with two additional pieces of information (his favorite sport and soccer team). He monitored A's background knowledge about the baseball and soccer team using "Do you know?" During the information exchange with more words and sentences than in the first two examples, both A and F used four allo-repetitions to maintain consistency with the topic ("baseball," lines 4 and 5; "team," lines 5 and 6, "my favorite team," lines 6 and 7, and "team," lines 7 and 8), not to monitor their partner's understanding or trigger and acknowledge correction of utterances. Following is another example of an interaction with fewer allo-repetitions after adopting chat-style writing:

Example 5: Hiroshima

- 1 G: So, I think you are from Hiroshima, but your brother is in Hiroshima. Isn't it?
- 2 H: Yeah, yeah. Japan game. My brother is champion of my prefecture, Prefecture's champion.
- 3 G: And he went to Japan games?
- 4 H: Yes.
- 5 G: Oh, interesting. And you went to Hiroshima?
- 6 H: Yes.
- 7 G: Do you have any? Where did you go in other sightseeing spot?
- 8 H: Yes, yes. I went to Gembaku Dome. And I went to Itsukushima Jinja.
- 9 G: Itsukushima Shrine.
- 10 H: That's right, shrine and I ate Kaki and XX.
- 11 G: Oyster. I want to know about Itsukushima Shrine. Please tell me about that.
- 12 H: Itsukushima Shrine, a very long road – very big... Torii.

I extracted this example from an interaction between two male friends after they had adopted chat-style writing. Their data differ slightly from the other interactions because G had joined a lunchtime intensive conversation course with a native speaker of English and thus had had many more chances to speak

in English than his conversational partner. This caused him to correct or paraphrase H's utterances to more suitable English expressions, such as "Japan game" (singular form; line 2) to "Japan games" (plural form; line 3), "jinja" (line 8) to "shrine" (line 9), and "kaki" (line 10) to "oyster" (line 11). The suggestion to change "game" to plural included allo-repetition of "Japan," and a paraphrase in lines 8 and 9 included allo-repetition of "Itsukushima," a location of a famous shrine to show a part to be changed or corrected in H's utterance. Otherwise, allo-repetition was present from lines 11 to 12 ("Itsukushima Shrine") to maintain topic consistency and confirm what would be described next. The analysis reveals slightly fewer allo-repetitions in this example, and they did not function to monitor mutual understanding to encourage consecutive allo-repetition during a short interaction.

In contrast, some interlocutors reverted to Japanese when they could not use English expressions very well. Though I cannot share the actual example because one speaker strongly resisted including excerpts of his interaction in any articles, I can describe the interaction as follows: Male student (MS) noticed his grammatical mistake in the verb tense when he used the Japanese phrase "acc, chigau" (literally "oh, it's different," but the phrase means "excuse me"). However, he could not find a suitable word in English or an acceptable way to choose the correct form of the past tense. In another example of reverting to Japanese, he used "nanchara" (something something) and "wakannai" (I don't know) in attempting to describe outdoor activities to his conversational partner who asked the meaning of "outdoors." This conversation failed to develop with no concrete explanation of the word in the middle of the conversation or any questions to let MS use a noun supplement to clarify the details.

Discussion and Conclusion

In my findings above, students gave more answers to questions after they adopted chat-style writing. They improved pragmatically managed competence by adding comments to develop their utterances to explain them. They also used fewer allo-repetitions and inserted related or supplementary information to expand the contents. In contrast, some students reverted to Japanese when they could not find suitable expressions in English; however, even then, the

students tried to develop their utterances rather than saying just one word.

Based on these results, I conclude that chat-style writing can contribute to conversational instruction by encouraging students to interact with partners using as much English as possible. By adapting written interactions to conversation, the students I studied attempted to use more coherent words, phrases, and sentences in response to their partners' utterances, even if their expressions were grammatically and contextually incorrect.

This study encourages students' interactions in English, including their efforts to make their conversations as coherent as possible. However, it is difficult to evaluate the effectiveness of incorporating chat-style writing into English conversation instruction because of our university's curriculum. The students took two classes per week for a year, a reading and writing class taught by a Japanese instructor and a speaking and listening class taught by a native English speaker. The effect of chat-style writing was clear in students' elaborating longer and more coherent utterances. There was likely a positive effect of oral English classes as well, given that students had more opportunities to speak English and more interactions in English during this class than during the reading and writing class. Future researchers should collect more data with different types of participants and different proficiency levels and include control groups that are only taking a reading and writing course with no chat-style writing.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by a Grant-in-Aid for Scientific Research from the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (No. 18K00886). The author would like to thank the anonymous reviewers for their insightful comments and suggestions.

References

Brennan, S. E., & Clark, H. H. (1996). Conceptual pacts and lexical choice in conversation. *Journal of Experimental Psychology: Learning, Memory, and Cognition*, 22(6), 1482-1493.

Campbell-Larsen, J. (2019). From needs analysis to emergent pragmatic competence: A longitudinal micro-analytic study of learner talk in Japanese EFL university classes. In L. Takeda, & M. Okugiri (Eds.), *A pragmatic approach to English language teaching and production* (pp. 169-197). Tokyo, Japan: Kazama Shobo.

Clark, H. H. (1996). *Using language*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Cambridge University Press.

Du Bois, J., Schuetze-Coburn, S., Cumming, S., & Paolino, D. (1993). Outline of discourse transcription. In J. Edwards & M. Lampert (Eds.), *Talking data: Transcription and coding methods for discourse research* (pp. 45-89). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Greer, T., & Nanbu, Z. (2021). General and explicit test prompts: Some consequences for topic management in paired EFL discussion tests. In C. Lee (Ed.), *Second language pragmatics and English language education in East Asia* (pp. 194-234). Oxford, England: Routledge.

Horiguchi, S. (1997). *Nihongo kyooiku to kaiwa bunseki [Japanese education and conversation analysis]*. Tokyo, Japan: Kuroshio.

Iijima, Y., Hayasaka, Y., Nakamura, R., & Mitani, H. (2017). Text chat-based collaborative writing task for individual students' L2 English summary writing skill development: A design-based study. Poster presented at JACET 56th International Convention, Tokyo, Japan.

Inagaki, A. (2019). Pragmatic development and grammar in a study abroad context: The case of Japanese learners of English. *JALT PanSIG Journal* 2018, 105-114. Retrieved from https://pansig.org/publications/2018/PanSIG_2018_Journal.pdf

- Kawashima, C. (2021, May). Practice tasks for speech acts in textbooks. Paper presented at JALT PanSIG 2021, Online.
- Kecskes, I., & Assimakopoulos, S. (Eds.). (2017). *Current issues in intercultural pragmatics* (Vol. 274). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Kushida, S., Sadanobu, T., & Den, Y. (Eds.). (2005). *Shirizuru bun to hatsuwa dai ikkan katsudoo to shite no bun to hatsuwa* [Sentence and utterance, Volume 1: Sentence and utterance as activity]. Tokyo: Hitsuji.
- Matsuoka, Y. (2018, May). Suggestion strategies to avoid pragmatic failure. Paper presented at JALT PanSIG 2018, Tokyo.
- McDonough, K., Crawford, W. J., & De Vleeschauwer, J. (2016). Thai EFL learners' interaction during collaborative writing tasks and its relationship to text quality. In M. Sato, & S. Ballinger (Eds.), *Peer interaction and second language learning: Pedagogical potential and research agenda* (pp. 185-208). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Namaziandost, E., Saray, A. A., & Esfahani, F. R. (2018). The effect of writing practice on improving speaking skill among pre-intermediate EFL learners. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 8(12), 1690-1697.
- Osuka, N. (2019). Effects of speech act on learners' pragmatic development in a study abroad context. In L. Takeda, & M. Okugiri (Eds.), *A pragmatic approach to English language teaching and production* (pp. 9-32). Tokyo, Japan: Kazama Shobo.
- Otsuka, Y. (2015). *Nichi-eigo no shotaimen san'nin kaiwa ni okeru aiduchi* [Backchannels in three-person conversation in Japanese and English first encounter conversations]. In S. Tsuda, Y. Murata, M. Otani, Y. Iwata, Y. Shigemitsu, & Y. Otsuka (Eds.), *Nichi-eigo danwa sutairu no taishoo kenkyuu—Eigo komyunikeeshon he no ouyoo* [Comparative study of Japanese and English discourse styles—Application to English education of communication] (pp. 169-191). Tokyo, Japan: Hitsuji.
- Rose, K., & Kasper, G. (Eds.). (2001). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Cambridge University Press.
- Taguchi, N. (2009). Pragmatic competence in Japanese as a second language: An introduction. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *Pragmatic competence*, 1-18. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Takeda, L. (2021). Elicitation of mutual understanding and achievement of coherence: Allo-repetition in Japanese EFL speaking and chat-style writing interactions. In C. Lee (Ed.), *Second language pragmatics and English language education in East Asia* (pp. 41-58). Oxfordshire, England: Routledge.
- Tanabe, K., Noguchi, K., Osuka, S., & Okada, A. (2019). *Gaikokujin ryuugakusei to nihonjin ni yoru rireeshiki sakubun kyoodoo sakusei katsudoo ni okeru soogokooi to gakushuu kooka* [The educational effects of relay writing activities]. *Proceedings of the 21st Conference of the Pragmatics Society of Japan*, 217-220. Retrieved from http://pragmatics.gr.jp/content/files/proceedings/Proceedings_14_2019.pdf
- Tanimura, M., & Yoshida, E. (2017). *Kadaitassei danwa ni okeru nihonjin eigo gakushuusha no kibanka keisei to jesuchaa no dooki* [Imitation of gestures and grounding between pairs of Japanese English learners in task-based dialogues]. *Proceedings of the 19th Conference of the Pragmatics Society of Japan*, 271-274.

Retrieved from

http://pragmatics.gr.jp/content/files/proceedings/Proceedings_12_2017.pdf

Weissberg, R. (2006). Connecting speaking and writing in second language writing instruction. Ann Arbor, Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.

Yoshida, E. (2018). Gakushuusha to bogowasha no kyoodoo kooi (joint action): Kadaitassei bamen ni okeru kyootuu kibanka [Joint action in pairs comprised of a native English speaker and a non-native English speaker: Achieving common ground in a task-based situation]. Proceedings of the 20th Conference of the Pragmatics Society of Japan, 295-298. Retrieved from http://pragmatics.gr.jp/content/files/proceedings/Proceedings_13_2018.pdf

Appendix:
Transcription Conventions (Takeda, 2021, p. 54)

Spoken interaction only

[XX: the beginning of overlaps

.: falling intonation

,: continuing intonation

?: rising intonation

Written interaction only

(*word*): correct spelling of an English target word

Both spoken and written interactions

word: a trigger word or phrase that causes an allo-repetition

word: an allo-repetition of a trigger word or phrase

word: a Japanese word and phrase

Sources: Du Bois et al., 1983; Kushida et al., 2005

Tasks for Speech Acts in Textbooks

Chie Kawashima

Tochigi Technical High School

This study shed light on learners' opportunities to practice speech acts they have learned from the textbooks. In this study, five beginner-level international ELT textbooks and seven Japanese high school ELT textbooks were investigated with regard to the way speech acts are treated in practice tasks. The results of the study revealed that particular speech acts are/are not commonly practiced in the textbooks along with how communicatively these speech acts are treated in practice tasks in each type of the textbooks. The comparison of these two types of textbooks disclosed the weakness and potential that these pedagogical materials have in relation to providing learners' opportunities to practice speech acts. At the end, some practical suggestions as to how teachers should supplement information about language use in existing textbooks were made in order to adapt textbooks for pragmatic instruction.

本論においては、初級レベルの英語学習教材ならびに高等学校で使用されている教科書が、学習者に発話行為の練習をする機会をどのような形で与えているのかに関する調査を行った。調査結果によると、大多数の教材には使用頻度の高い発話行為を含むタスクが存在するが、一部分の教材でしか扱われていない特定の発話行為を練習するタスクの存在も判明した。また、それらの発話行為がタスクの中でコミュニカティブに扱われているか否かについてもこの両タイプの教材の間で大きな違いがみられた。それに応じて、語用論的指導を行うに当たり、両タイプの教材における問題点と可能性を指摘し、これらの教材を語用論的指導に適合させるための実用的な提案も付け加えた。

One of the important roles of an ELT textbook is to provide a platform for language learners to practice communicative functions, and the learner's pragmatic competence is unlikely to improve without effective exercises. It has been persuasively argued that learners should be provided with opportunities to practice learned forms in communicative contexts (McGroarty & Taguchi, 2005; Shimizu et al., 2007), but not all teaching materials provide such learning experiences, especially at the beginner level. The word communicative is relating to the ability to be engaged in communication. Canale (1983) summarised the nature of communication in language pedagogy as a form of social interaction with a purpose which takes place in discourse and sociocultural contexts.

The importance of practicing the pragmatic knowledge introduced in ELT textbooks has been emphasised and the lack of tasks to support such practice has been pointed out. Dubin and Olshtain (1986) attempted to include structures, situations, and themes or topics in language instruction. In order to judge different types of semantico-grammatical knowledge and what communicative skills are practiced along with the types of communicative activities, they developed a scale for assessing communicativeness workouts. The levels of

communicativeness in this 'workouts' range from most communicative (Level 1) to least communicative (Level 7) (p.98-99). Based on their workouts, McGroarty and Taguchi (2005) evaluated the communicativeness of tasks involving speech acts in *Oral Communication* textbooks used in Japanese senior high schools as to the range of communicative situations, communicative functions and linguistic forms. They found that most textbook exercise types such as listening to dialogues and cloze exercises were ranked in the two least communicative categories of 'exposure to information' and 'mechanical operations'. In addition, their study revealed that more than 80% of the communicative functions in the textbooks were ideational, and less than 17 percent of manipulative functions were practiced. Shimizu et al. (2007) also examined *Oral Communication* textbooks to determine the ratio of tasks to practice speech acts. Only 15.7 percent of the tasks in these textbooks provided learners with opportunities to practice speech acts.

In addition to the ELT textbooks used in Japanese senior high schools, Uso-Juan (2007) investigated five ELT textbooks for tourism used in universities in Spain to see how requesting was practiced. Her study found the activities for requesting mainly concentrated on

learners' acquisition of linguistic competence mostly without interlocutors' information. More recently, Ali Salimi and Kamali (2019) noted that nearly 80 % of the tasks in the EFL textbooks used in Iranian universities did not cover pragmatic use of language although the majority of learners were aware of the importance of practicing pragmatic knowledge.

Ishihara and Paller (2016), on the other hand, observed the tasks introduced in three textbooks specifically designed for pragmatic instruction focusing on the speech acts relevant to expressing opinions. The task presented in one of these textbooks begins with an awareness raising activity followed by a roleplay. Then, further tasks were provided along with an interactional practice with a list of useful phrases for agreeing/disagreeing. They noticed one of the units in the other textbook involves a controlled fill-in-the-blank exercise for these speech acts with correct answers, but they recognised that the later communicative activities enable learners to be more engaged by recycling the language they learned. Thus, Ishihara (2020) stated that awareness alone does not necessarily guarantee learners' fluent use of pragmatic knowledge highlighting the importance of output and interactive practice.

Unless textbooks are designed specifically to develop learners' pragmatic competence, their improvement of pragmatic ability is unlikely. For the sake of supplementing the defect of ELT textbooks in providing opportunities to practice speech acts, the following research questions were developed:

RQ1. What speech acts are commonly/less commonly practiced in ELT textbooks?

RQ2. How communicatively are these speech acts treated in practice tasks?

RQ3. Are there any differences between international ELT textbooks and Japanese high school textbooks in providing learners with opportunities to practice speech acts?

Methods

Textbook Selection

This study attempted to compare two different types of ELT textbooks with the same proficiency level as to inclusion of learners' opportunities to practice pragmatic knowledge. One is the set of international ELT textbooks for beginner-level adult learners. These textbooks are full of dialogues to practice conversations. The other type of textbooks are those used in Japanese high schools, where different grammar information is provided in each unit. To select the materials for analysis, emails were sent to the Japan office of five major international publishers to enquire about their top-selling international ELT coursebooks for adult learners. Based on their replies, the most widely used materials to develop four language skills identified by each publisher were selected as shown in Appendix A. In addition, seven Japanese high school ELT textbooks for first-year students, which are the equivalent level of the aforementioned international ELT textbooks, were selected. The selection of these seven textbooks was made based on the information about the most popular textbooks provided by the sales representatives from the major Japanese publishers. This selection of the textbooks was previously made by Kawashima (2021) in her study of pragmatic roles of visuals in ELT textbooks.

Data Analysis

The tasks for practicing pragmatic information were classified as different levels of communicativeness according to 'a scale for assessing communicative workouts' developed by Dubin and Olshtain (1986) as shown in Figure 1.

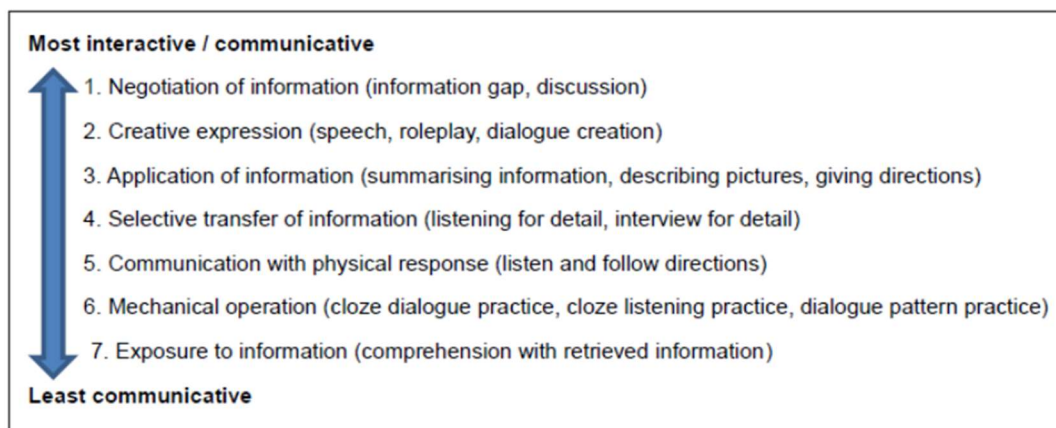


Figure 1: A Scale for Assessing Communicative Workouts, Dubin and Olshtain (1986, p.98-99)

The aim of the classification process in the current study was to examine what pragmatic knowledge learners can reinforce and how communicatively these aspects of pragmatic competence are practiced in each exercise. Textbook evaluations help teachers or program developers to select appropriate textbooks, and to familiarise them to the merits and demerits of the chosen materials (Bahar & Zahman, 2013). The approach selected was influenced by previous approaches taken by other researchers including McGroarty and Taguchi (2005). They successfully employed Dubin and Olshtain's (1986) scale for assessing the communicative potential of workouts to determine whether or not learners were required to perform communicative skills as part of the textbook exercises. In this study, the tasks classified as levels 1-3 were considered as communicative tasks. Impromptu spoken activities or group discussion involving learners' personal experiences were classified as Level 1. The typical tasks classified as Level 2 were roleplaying or paragraph writing. Level 3 represented the activities involving existing information as giving directions or describing pictures. Translating a Japanese sentence into English was also classified as this level. On the other hand, those classified as the remaining levels were determined to be less communicative activities. Listening for details activities or interviews with a list of question provided was classified as Level 4. The tasks classified as Level 5 include physical response where learners listen to directions to follow. Grammar exercises as well as cloze listening were classified as Level 6. When the tasks were only listening to dialogues, passages, or songs in English, they were all classified as Level 7. Most activities included in levels 1-3 require learners' productive skills while Level 4-7 activities focus on receptive skills. The tasks with more than two activities with different levels of communicativeness were classified as the highest level of communicativeness within each task.

In order to determine what commonly presented speech acts were/were not treated communicatively in the tasks in each type of textbooks, a list of common speech acts treated most communicatively was shown numerically in a column of the Tables 1 and 2. As not all the speech acts are necessarily practiced in each textbook, only the speech acts with numbers in the textbook cells were counted as those involved in the tasks. The number of the highest communicativeness of the tasks for each speech act was placed in each cell of the row of the textbooks to calculate the average. The speech act with the lowest average number was determined to be practiced the most communicatively.

Results

Commonly / Less Commonly Practiced Speech Acts

The total number of 34 speech acts across the international ELT textbooks and 24 speech acts across the Japanese high school textbooks were provided with the tasks to practice language use (See Appendix B). The tasks involving giving advice, giving offers, suggesting proposals, requesting, giving orders, and expressing opinions were identified in more than half of both sets of textbooks as shown in Table 1 and 2. Additionally, as many as twelve other speech acts of refusing offers, accepting proposals, refusing proposals, apologizing, responding to apology, thanking, greeting, leave-taking, agreeing, disagreeing, asking directions, and giving directions were commonly practiced in more than three out of five international ELT textbooks, while these speech acts were rarely or not practiced across the Japanese high school ELT textbooks. On the other hand, learners' opportunities to practice asking for advice, accepting advice, making accusations, assessing, celebrating, encouraging, and exclaiming were provided only in a single textbook out of five international ELT textbooks. Across the Japanese high school ELT textbooks, as many as ten speech acts of asking for advice, refusing offers, accepting proposals, giving permission, complimenting, responding to thanking, greeting, leave-taking, assessing, and expressing sympathy were practiced only in a single textbook.

Communicativeness of Tasks Involving Commonly/Less Commonly Practiced Speech Acts

The tasks to practice expressing opinions in both types of textbooks were identified to be most communicative as shown in Table 1 and 2. The tasks for this speech act across international ELT textbooks allowed learners to use language to express their own views or preferences, and ultimately developed into group discussion. Even in Japanese textbooks, personalization took place to practice this speech act. Learners were required to write a paragraph to express their opinion and read aloud in front of the class.

Giving advice, giving offers, suggesting proposals, and requesting were treated differently in these two types of textbooks. These speech acts were practiced mainly through creative expression or application of information in the international ELT textbooks, but only giving orders was not treated so communicatively as these five aforementioned speech acts (See Table 1). This speech act was for the most part practiced through reading dialogues aloud. In contrast, across the Japanese high school ELT textbooks, these five

commonly practiced speech acts were not generally treated communicatively, and the average level of communicativeness was 5.0 or below except for giving advice (See Table 2). Giving advice can be practiced at Level 2 or 3 of communicativeness in four out of these seven textbooks. Some particularities were observed in practicing the speech acts presented only in a single textbook across each type of textbooks. The speech

acts aforementioned in the previous section in the international ELT textbooks were mostly practiced with mechanical operations such as reading aloud practice. Most of those practiced across the Japanese high school textbook, in contrast, are more communicative at Level 3 or 4 unlike the remaining speech acts which were more commonly presented.

Table 1

Levels of Communicativeness of Speech Act Commonly Practiced in International Textbooks

Textbooks	Interchange	Headway	Cutting	Global	Time	Average level
Giving Advice	1	2		2	2	1.8
Giving Offers	2	2	2	4	5	2.8
Suggesting Proposals	1	4			5	3.0
Requesting	2	2	2	4	5	2.8
Giving Orders	6	4	2	6	4	4.4
Expressing Opinions	1	1	1	1		1.0

Table 2

Levels of Communicativeness Speech act Commonly Practiced in Japanese Textbooks

Textbooks	Progress	Treasure	Crown	Vista	Vivid	Select	Quest	Average level
Giving Advice	2	3	6	2		6	2	3.0
Giving Offers		3		6	6	6	4	5.0
Suggesting Proposals				6	6	6	4	5.0
Requesting		6	6	6	6		4	5.6
Giving Orders		3	6	7	6		6	5.6
Expressing Opinions	2		3	2	2		2	2.2

Major Differences between Two Types of Textbooks in Providing Opportunities to Practice Speech Acts

Conspicuous differences between these two types of textbooks were observed with regards to the tasks between commonly and less commonly presented speech acts. The tasks involving giving advice, giving offers, suggesting proposals, and requesting were mostly communicatively designed across the international ELT textbooks whereas these speech acts were typically practiced through mechanical operations or grammar exercises across the Japanese high school ELT textbooks. On the other hand, communicativeness of the tasks for less commonly practiced speech acts was opposite. These speech acts were typically practiced less communicatively across the international ELT textbooks while the Japanese high school ELT textbooks tend to provide less commonly practiced speech acts with communicatively designed tasks.

Some speech acts which were commonly practiced with communicatively designed tasks across the international ELT textbooks were completely absent in the Japanese high school ELT textbooks. Although the

speech act of expressing opinions was practiced communicatively in more than half of both types of textbooks, learners' opportunities to practice the corresponding communicative functions such as agreeing and disagreeing are both absent across the Japanese high school ELT textbooks. These speech acts were typically practiced along with expressing opinions through communicative activities as negotiation of information across the international ELT textbooks. Another speech act which is commonly practiced only in the international ELT textbooks was apologizing. The average communicative level of the tasks for this speech act was 3.5, and the tasks for this speech act were present in four out of these five textbooks. This speech act is practiced through roleplaying, listening comprehension, and reading a dialogue aloud. Overall, main difference between these two types of textbooks was not only the communicativeness of the tasks for commonly/less commonly practiced speech acts but also whether or not some specific speech acts were practiced.

Discussion

The current study noted the speech act of expressing opinions, which was communicatively practiced across both types of textbooks, was regarded as one of the most important communicative functions treated in these ELT textbooks. Across the Japanese high school ELT textbooks, the speech act practiced mainly through creative expression was only expressing opinions. The key word of "opinion" frequently appears in the instructional points of any subject of high school English described in Course of Study of MEXT (2009). According to Course of Study, learners are supposed to practice discussion or exchanging their opinions on the information or ideas based on what they have heard, read, and experienced (p.11). Therefore, communicative tasks may be positively provided for practicing expressing opinions.

In addition to expressing opinions, the importance was attached to practicing the speech acts of giving advice, giving offers, suggesting proposals, requesting and giving orders across both types of textbooks. These speech acts were typically used to practice grammar knowledge across the Japanese high school ELT textbooks while they were mainly practiced in dialogues with contexts across the international ELT textbooks. This is comparable to the finding of the study conducted by McGroarty and Taguchi (2005) that manipulative functions as using language to affect the world were solely provided with mechanical or structured exercises in the EFL textbooks for Japanese secondary schools.

Giving advice, giving offers, suggesting proposals and requesting involve a wide range of linguistic forms to convey the speakers' intention including the use of softened and indirect forms or modifications in authentic conversations (Leech 2014; Martinez-Flor, 2005; Trosborg, 1995). Although these speech acts were practiced communicatively across the international ELT textbooks, polite/indirect use of language was not required, and only equal speaker-hearer power relations were provided. Therefore, learners might rarely be provided with the opportunities to practice different linguistic forms according to the context. Nevertheless, the Japanese high school ESL textbooks may have potentials to practice indirect/polite use of language. Vellenga (2004) suggested that pedagogical linkage between grammar and speech acts could be adapted to supplement existing grammar exercises. Similarly, Oda-Sheehan (2016) confirmed the effect of pragmatic learning integrated with instruction of the usage of auxiliary verbs in her empirical study. Thus, the involvement of these grammar items in speech acts help learners to be aware of polite/indirect language use. Learners may be at least aware of indirect use of language by practicing these grammar items if information about politeness is added.

Across the international ELT textbooks, less commonly practiced speech acts were often included in the tasks to practice other recurring speech acts such as giving advice and requesting. These less commonly practiced speech acts are not main focus of the activities and may be included incidentally in the dialogues to practice. Across the Japanese high school ELT textbooks, in contrast, less commonly practiced speech acts are treated more communicatively compared to the remaining speech acts. These speech acts are not necessarily related to what have been instructed in the main part of the units. For example, the speech act of complimenting was practiced only in *Vista*. The task for this speech act is introduced in a supplementary section at the end of one unit, where learners practice complimenting the hearer's belongings or abilities looking at the pictures. No instruction for practicing the corresponding communicative function of responding to compliments is provided in this task. This speech act is not introduced as linguistic information in the unit, and it could be omitted on teachers' disposals. This sort of tasks makes up 42% of the total number of speech acts practiced in these textbooks. In other words, learners' opportunities to practice many of the speech acts presented in these textbooks are potentially left out. The above differences in treating speech acts in the tasks may indicate these two types of textbooks have different pedagogical purposes.

Apologizing, agreeing, and disagreeing were practiced communicatively in most of international ELT textbooks while the tasks for these speech acts were completely absent across the Japanese high school ELT textbooks. The apologizing expression of "sorry" might be too simple for upper secondary students to practice with tasks unlike aforementioned speech acts of giving advice, giving offers, suggesting proposals, and requesting. Limberg (2015) pointed out underrepresentation of apologizing in German secondary school ELT textbooks as it has been already presented in lower proficiency textbooks. Yamato and Adachi (2015) also observed decrease in communicative functions including apologizing presented in Japanese junior high school textbooks as the students' grades increase. Their interpretation is that the focus is shifted from interaction to reading. However, apologizing is often performed in politeness-sensitive events like giving advice, giving offers, suggesting proposals, and requesting, and internal/external modifiers or the satellite speech events as "a confession or admission of responsibility, an explanation, an offer of repair, and promise of forbearance" is involved (Leech, 2014, p.116).

Agreeing and disagreeing were practiced only in the international ELT textbooks along with expressing opinions. Emphasis may be unavoidably placed on these speech acts to practice discussion. The textbooks specifically designed for pragmatic instruction, which

Ishihara and Paller (2016) examined, introduce a number of conversation strategies for agreeing and disagreeing with several tasks. As mentioned earlier, the keyword of "opinion" frequently appears in Course of Study (MEXT, 2009) with a description that learners are encouraged to practice discussion or exchanging their opinions ideas. Thus, the absence of the tasks to practice agreeing and disagreeing in Japanese high school ELT textbook may distort their pedagogical objectives.

In sum, the number of tasks which involve particular speech acts and what speech acts are/are not communicatively practiced may be the key factor to determine whether importance is attached to interactive language use or linguistic information in the textbooks. At the same time, these two types of the textbooks may have both a potential and weakness.

Conclusion

This study revealed the differences between two types of textbooks in how pragmatic knowledge was practiced, and these differences may be attributed to different organization of the textbooks. The international ELT textbooks are organized to develop learners' everyday conversation skills, whereas the goal of Japanese high school ELT textbooks is to deepen grammar knowledge. Both types of ELT textbooks have weaknesses and potentials as to pragmatic instruction.

In spite of the problems this study pointed out, textbooks can be only credible sources for instruction providing learners with opportunities to practice the target language (Nguyen, 2011; Soleimani & Dabbghi, 2012). In order to adapt the textbooks to pragmatic instruction, the internal characteristics of the materials can be changed using the techniques of "adding, deleting, modifying, simplifying, and reordering" (McDonough et al., 2013, p.70). For example, lack of indirect/polite use of language to instruct speech acts can be supplemented by adding unequal speaker-hearer relationship or higher intensity as contextual information. One of the communicative activities in Interchange is designed to practice giving advice based on a scenario description. Learners are supposed to use solely imperatives for advice-giving. Thus, adding information about the speaker and the hearer may allow learners to choose appropriate linguistic form to perform this speech act. Communicative language use and grammar information are not opposite binary, but on the continuum. Therefore, indirect/polite language use as grammar information could be modified by introducing authentic models of language use or interactive activities provided with relevant communicative contexts. Teachers' efforts to compensate for the defects of textbooks may help learners to develop pragmatic competence.

References

- Ali Salimi, E., & Karami, B. (2019). Pragmatic competence development: Demystifying the impact of task types and EFL students' perception. *Issues in Language Teaching (ILT)*, 8(a), 279-302.
- Bahar, H. B., & Zaman, B. (2013). Significance of text book evaluation for the purpose of effective second language acquisition. *ISOR Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 12(5), 70-77. <http://doi.org/10.9790/0837-1257077>
- Dubin, F., & Olshtain, E. (1986). *Course design: Developing programs and materials for language learning*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Ishihara, N. (2020). Going beyond the icing on the gingerbread: Teaching pragmatics more regularly, systematically, and communicatively. In J. Talandis, J. Roald, D. Fujimoto & N. Ishihara (Eds.), *Pragmatics Undercover: The search for natural talk in EFL textbooks* (pp. 21-28). Tokyo: pragmatics Special Interest Group of the Japan
- Ishihara, N., & Paller, D. L. (2016). Research-informed materials for teaching pragmatics. In B. Tomlinson (Ed.), *SLA research and materials development for language learning* (pp. 87-102). London: Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781315749082-17>
- Kawashima, C. (2021). Pragmatic roles of visuals in ELT textbooks. In P. Clemens, R. Derrah & P. Ferguson (Eds.), *Communities of teachers & learners* (pp. 290-299). Tokyo: JALT. <https://doi.org/10.37546/jaltppc2020-36>
- Leech, G. (2014). *The pragmatics and politeness*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

<https://doi.org/10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195341386.001.0001>

viewpoint of interlanguage pragmatics. *Sophia Linguistica* 55, 143-163.

Limberg, H. (2015). Teaching how to apologize: EFL textbooks and pragmatic input. *Language Teaching Research*, 1-20.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/1362168815590695>

Soleimani, H., & Dabbaghi, A. (2012). Textbook evaluation: A reflection on the New Interchange. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Teaching* 1(2), 23-46.

<https://doi.org/10.5861/ijrsl.2012.v1i2.70>

Martinez-Flor, A. (2005). A theoretical review of the speech act of suggesting: Towards a taxonomy for its use in FLT. *Revista Alicantina de Estudios Ingleses*, 18, 167-187.

<https://doi.org/10.14198/raei.2005.18.08>

Trosborg, A. (1995). *Interlanguage pragmatics; requests, complaints, and apologies*. Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

<https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110885286>

McDonough, J., Shaw, C., & Masuhara, H. (2013). *Materials and methods in ELT: A teacher's guide*. Chichester: Wiley-Blackwell.

Uso-Juan, E. (2007). The presentation and practice of the communicative act of requesting in textbooks: focusing on modifiers. In E. Alcon Soler & M. P. Safont Jorda (Eds.), *Intercultural language use and language learning* (pp. 223-243). Dordrecht: Springer.

https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4020-5639-0_12

McGroarty, M., & Taguchi, N. (2005). Evaluating the communicativeness of EFL textbooks for Japanese secondary schools. In J. Frodesen & C. Holten (Eds.), *The power of context in language teaching and learning* (pp. 211-224). Boston, MA: Thompson Heinle.

Vellenga, H. (2004). Learning pragmatics from ESL & EFL textbooks: How likely? Retrieved February, 14, 2012, from <http://tesl-ej.org/ej30/a3.html>

MEXT. (2009). Course of study for senior high schools foreign language (English). Retrieved from www.mext.go.jp

Yamato, K., & Adachi, T. (2015). Pragmatic analysis of MEXT authorized textbooks. *Bulletin of School of Languages and Communication, Kobe University*, 12, 79-89.

Nguyen, M. T. T. (2011). Learning to communicate in a globalized world: To what extent do school textbooks facilitate the development of intercultural pragmatic competence? *RELC Journal*, 42(1), 17-30.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688210390265>

Oda-Sheehan, S. (2016). Making pragmatics and grammar work hand in hand. In P. Clements, A. Krause & H. Brown (Eds.), *Focus on the learner*. Tokyo: JALT.

Shimizu, T., Fukasawa, E., & Yonekura, S. (2007). Introductions and practices of speech acts in Oral Communication 1 textbooks: From a

Appendix A

Textbooks Used for This Study

International ELT Textbooks

Interchange Intro (Cambridge University Press 2013)
American Headway Starter (Oxford University Press 2010)
Cutting Edge Starter (Pearson Education 2012)
Global Beginner Course Book (MacMillan 2010)
Time Zones 1 (Cengage Learning 2010)

Textbooks Used in Japanese High Schools

Progress in English 21 Book 3 (Edec 2012)
New Treasure English Series Stage 3 (Z-kai 2003)
Crown English Communication I (Sanseido 2013)
Vista English Communication I (Sanseido 2013)
Vivid English Communication I (Daiichi Gakushusha 2013)
Select English Expression I (Sanseido 2013)
Vision Quest English Expression I (Keirinkan 2013)

Appendix B

List of Speech Acts practiced in ELT textbooks

Speech Act categories	Speech Act Types	Practiced in International Textbooks	Practiced in Japanese Textbooks
1. Advice	Asking for advice	✓	✓
	Giving advice	✓	✓
	Accepting advice	✓	
2. Offers	Giving offers	✓	✓
	Accepting offers	✓	✓
	Refusing offers	✓	✓
3. Proposals	Suggesting proposals	✓	✓
	Accepting proposals	✓	✓
	Refusing proposals	✓	✓
4. Permission	Asking for permissions	✓	✓
	Giving permissions		✓
5. Prohibition	Prohibiting		✓
6. Requests	Requesting	✓	✓
	Refusing requesting	✓	
7. Apology	Apologizing	✓	
	Responding to apology	✓	
8. Compliments	Complimenting	✓	✓
	Responding to	✓	
9. Accusation	Giving accusations	✓	
10. Thanks	Thanking	✓	✓
	Responding to thanking	✓	✓
11. Greetings	Greeting	✓	✓
	Leave-taking	✓	✓
12. Orders	Giving orders	✓	✓
13. Opinions	Asking for opinions	✓	✓
	Expressing opinions	✓	✓
	Agreeing	✓	
	Disagreeing	✓	
	Agreeing and disagreeing	✓	
14. Directions	Asking directions	✓	✓
	Giving directions	✓	✓
15. Assessment	Assessing	✓	✓
16. Celebration	Celebrating	✓	
17. Encouragement	Encouraging	✓	
18. Exclamation	Exclaiming	✓	✓
19. Sympathy	Expressing sympathy	✓	✓
20. Responses to good	Responding to good news	✓	

Note: This list was created based on the studies of Arai (2005), Nguyen (2011), Shimizu et al. (2007) and Vellenga (2004). The tick in each cell shows the speech act in the column is practiced.

From “Wild Geese” to Transnationals: Korean Students in Japanese University

Natasha Hashimoto

Tokyo Woman’s Christian University

The current, ongoing case study aims to contribute to the research on the flesh-and-blood learners (Kramersch, 2009) of English, particularly those who are developing their translingual, transnational identities. The participants are two international female university students studying in Japan. They come from South Korea and use English, Japanese, and Korean regularly. Having also lived in English-speaking countries and Japan, starting as children of so-called “wild geese” families whose mothers took them study abroad as children (Lee, 2021), and having a global outlook, the participants are transnational individuals. The study explores the participants’ life trajectories but concentrates on their experiences with learning and using English. I investigate how the students’ and their families’ investment in the language shapes their overall experience with language learning and use. The data for this paper come mainly from interviews and email exchanges with the participants. In data analysis, I used the Bourdieusian theoretical concepts.

本研究の目的は、「学習する生身の個人」（Kramersch, 2009）、特にトランスリンガル、トランスナショナルなアイデンティティを持つ学生についての研究に貢献することである。研究参加者は、日本に留学中の2人の女子大学生。彼女達は韓国出身で、英語、日本語、韓国語を日常的に使っている。また、母国、英語圏と日本で生活し、いわゆる wild geese（雁）の家庭の子どもである（Lee, 2021）ことから、彼女達はグローバルな視野を持ち、トランスナショナルな個人であると言えるでしょう。本研究では、参加者の人生の軌跡を探るが、英語の学習と使用に焦点を当てて。私は、この学生達とその家族の言語への「インベストメント」が、彼女らの言語学習と使用に関する全体的な経験をどのように形成しているかを調査している。本論文のデータは、主にインタビューと参加者とのメール交換から得られたものである。データ分析においては、ブルデューの理論を用いた。

In this study, I explore two female international students’ English learning histories and migration trajectories. The students come from South Korea and have lived and studied in English-speaking countries and Japan. Conducting the study, I have been particularly interested in what happens after young people acquire English overseas and then decide to study abroad in an Expanding Circle (non-English-speaking) country such as Japan. As per the Kachru’s (1992) model of three circles based on the use of English, Japan is a country where English is not an L1 or L2 for most residents but is studied and used as a foreign language.

The first part of this paper focuses on the participants’ early lives, education overseas before arriving in Japan, and their English learning experiences before entering university. The rest of the article focuses on their decisions to come to study in Japan and their plans for their future career. I also discuss how the students’ and their families’ investment in language learning has shaped their overall experience with using English and affected their future plans.

The Need to Research “Flesh-and-Blood” Learners: Theoretical Background

One of the current case study goals is to contribute to the research on international students, who are also English learners, especially those who are developing their multilingual, transnational identities. To that end, I draw on a variety of earlier research. The contribution I try to make is to the research on English language learners’ living experiences because the field of TESOL has once been critiqued as “traditionally [giving] more attention to the process of [language] acquisition than to the flesh-and-blood individuals who are doing the learning” as many researchers tended to separately investigate cognition, learner behavior, and social aspects of SLA (Kramersch, 2009, p. 2). In addition, TESOL has also long suffered from the monolingual bias (May, 2013; Meier & Conteh, 2014), and it is necessary to (continue to) give voice to translinguals, which is another aim of the current study. The current study is also one small contribution to the body of literature that focuses on studying abroad and/or multilingualism (e.g., Doerr, 2019; Iida & Herder, 2019; Savicki et al., 2015) and Koreans living overseas (e.g., Lee, 2021; Park, 2020).

To understand the background and compare the reasons the two research participants have studied abroad in English-speaking countries and Japan, I turn to the literature on South Korean families that take or send their children to study overseas. I rely on Pierre Bourdieu's theoretical tools to interpret the data collected mainly through individual interviews and email exchanges with two research participants. One of the tools is habitus or one's internal dispositions largely but not exclusively developed early in life. Bourdieu described it as one's "feel for the game" (Bourdieu, 1998, p. 25) that influences a person's perceptions of the world and their behavior (Bourdieu, 2000, pp. 86-87).

Equally important is the concept of capital that is converted from one type to another (Bourdieu, 1984, 1986). For instance, one can use their economic capital (financial resources) to obtain education (e.g., pay for studying abroad, invest in a university degree). Bourdieu (1984, 1986) has categorized capital into four types: economic, cultural, social, and symbolic. Economic capital refers to money a person possesses and material goods readily convertible to money. Cultural capital is an individual's assets such as educational degrees, knowing how to behave in certain social circles, or playing musical instruments, and it typically takes a long time to obtain. Social capital refers to memberships and social connections one has access to. Symbolic capital can take the form of any of the other three types and means prestige and honor based on a person's attributes and possessions. In addition to capital, people's investment indicates how they position themselves toward an L2 and its community and how committed they are to learning and using that particular language. The participants' investment in the target languages (Norton 2013; Norton 1995) is evident from their trajectories, their families' efforts, and the students' future plans.

"Wild Geese" Families

Since the trend started, research has been conducted on the so-called "wild geese families" (*kirogi* or *gireogi* in Korean). Typically, they are middle-class South Korean families in which one parent takes the children to an English-speaking country for a few years for them to acquire the language. The other parent, typically the father, stays in Korea and financially supports the family. English-speaking countries have been attractive destinations for *kirogi* families that engage in globalized family strategies to enhance their children's education. Since the 1990s and South Korea's admission to the OECD in 1996, English has been seen as essential for professional career development and good corporate employment (Koo & Lee, 2006; Lee, 2021). It has been reported that in Montreal, Canada, for instance, 17 percent of Koreans are from such "wild goose" families (Yoon, 2020).

Overall, studying abroad is important for many middle-class Korean families. Earning an academic degree overseas is a significant accomplishment, even if the degree is not in English. Through studying overseas, Korean youth can avoid the fierce academic competition in their home countries. In addition, academic credentials earned abroad, and newly acquired language skills can allow them to reenter the Korean labor market, resulting in any foreign college degree being seen as worth more than most Korean university degrees (Park, 2020).

To send or take their children to study abroad, Korean families have to carefully calculate the cost and benefit of such endeavors. Studying abroad requires financial resources, knowledge of the educational institutions and programs overseas, and decisions about allocating resources among the children. All these issues are relevant to the two participants in my study. My interest in conducting the current study, in other words my research inquiry, was to find out what the particular participants in this research, who come from an Expanding Circle country (i.e., South Korea), see as valuable in studying overseas in English-speaking countries and Japan, learning two foreign languages, and obtaining a university degree from another Expanding Circle country like Japan.

Participants and Method

This is an ongoing case study of two main participants, Korean international students enrolled at a small private university in Japan. The main data collection methods were individual, semi-structured interviews and email exchanges with the two students, and this is what I draw on for the present paper. In addition, as part of the whole ongoing study, I analyze (1) the students' written responses to prompts related to this research, (2) their short essays in English written for an academic writing class, and (3) interview data from two former teachers who taught the participants in their 1st and 2nd-year courses. Although I interviewed the participants' former teachers, both Americans, and used essays for data triangulation purposes, this paper focuses on the data collected from interviews with the two main participants. However, what I learned from the teachers' interviews has inevitably affected what I consequently discussed with the two learners. To analyze the data, I mainly relied on Bourdieu's (1984, 1986, 1998, 2000) concepts of capital and how the participants and their families use or build their capital to achieve their goals.

The participants gave consent for the collected data to be used in the study, presented at conferences, and shared in academic publications. Instead of the participants' real names, pseudonyms are used in this paper. Before I started analyzing data, I shared their interview transcripts with each participant and invited

them to delete, add, and adapt their own interview transcript in other ways.

I interviewed the two students for the first time when they were in their 2nd year in the AY 2019/2020. Both participants chose to have interviews in English, but both the participants and I used the Japanese language occasionally when we talked. Still, about 90 percent of the interviews were in English. At the time of writing this paper, the participants were finishing their 3rd year in university. Both students, Hana and Aera, are trilingual. They speak English, Korean, and Japanese. Hana also speaks some Chinese and is currently studying it. She has experience with early study abroad—she lived in Canada for two years when she was 7 years old and attended elementary school there. At the time, she lived with her mother and older brother. On the other hand, Aera lived in New Zealand at 4 years old, for one year. She was accompanied by her mother, grandmother, uncle, and older sister. Following that, she lived in Singapore for 1.5 years with her mother, uncle, and sister. In her school life in Singapore, she used English and some Chinese, which she is not fluent in anymore.

Studying (in) English Overseas

Hana and Aera come from the so-called “wild geese” (*kirogi*) families (Lee, 2021) briefly described above. Unlike in many Japanese students’ cases, these Korean students did not move overseas because of their parents’ employment. Hana’s and Aera’s fathers stayed behind in Korea as the mothers took the children overseas. As mentioned earlier, the parents have been invested in their children’s education (Lee, 2021; Norton, 2013), trying to help their children acquire linguistic capital and secure future jobs. For them, fluency in English has been of utmost importance in what they see, as reported by the participants, a valuable currency in the globalized labor market.

The following quote from Hana illustrates how cultural and social capital function (Bourdieu, 1986) in her family’s case and how these types of capital led to Hana’s early study abroad. An equally important factor is financial resources (economic capital) as well and the family’s willingness to invest in the child’s education (Norton Peirce, 1995). The quote further shows the sacrifice the family had to make to have their children live in Canada for two years:

My mom’s university friend, also married to a Korean man, was living in Canada for about 30 years after graduation. [...] My family went to Canada to meet her family, and we spent just a month just there, as a vacation. That experience was really good! [...] After that vacation, my mom and dad decided that [my brother and I] should experience different

cultures at an early age, but my dad had to stay and work in Korea.

The family had not originally decided to send the children abroad, but the parents quickly recognized the opportunity and refocused on a new goal (Bourdieu, 1998). Their original plan was to have the children live in Canada for one year, but Hana’s English did not improve to the extent the family had hoped, which is why they extended their stay for another year. At the time of their arrival in Canada, Hana was 7 years old and her brother 11. As the siblings and their mother moved to Canada, the father continued working in Korea to support the family, and the family assets allowed for an extended stay abroad. The children attended a local school in English.

The only reason that Aera and her sister lived in New Zealand and Singapore as children was to be exposed to foreign cultures and learn English, which the extended family recognized an important step for their children’s lives (Bourdieu, 1998, 2000). A quote from Aera’s interview shows how the family drew on every type of capital, all the resources available to them, to allow Hana and her sister to acquire English overseas:

My uncle was studying in New Zealand, and my grandmother was living in New Zealand back then, so we had no choice, so we had to go [there]. And Singapore... Singapore is one of the biggest port cities, and they usually use English for communication, so that was the reason to go. I went to an international kindergarten in Singapore. I studied Chinese in Singapore, too, for one year.

In both countries, Aera’s extended family lived together, which included her grandmother and her uncle. Having such support was beneficial for Aera, her sister, and her mother, and the quote indicates that the family was invested in this group effort (Norton, 2013). Hana’s mother, on the other hand, had to face significant challenges living in Canada. Hana appreciated her mother’s efforts and seemed to fully understand the sacrifice the mother, who spoke very little English, made:

She just could say her name and her age. I didn’t know that at that point because I was too young, and I also couldn’t speak any English, so... [...] I know how hard she tried to survive in a country [where she could not speak the] language at all and taking care of two children.

It is important to note that it was not a pure coincidence and a fun family vacation was not the only reason Hana lived for two years in Canada. Her father “also studied abroad in Japan when he was a university student. He knew about the effectiveness, the advantage of living in a different country and learning different languages, so they decided for us to study and live abroad.” Likewise,

Aera's father "wanted my sister and me to learn more languages. At that time, when I was four years old, there was a studying abroad boom in Korea, so I think like this kind of affected us to go to New Zealand and Singapore to study." Both fathers possessed enough of culture capital--they knew about the benefits of (early) study abroad and foreign language acquisition--which, combined with the family's economic capital, having the "feel for the game" (Bourdieu, 1998) and being invested in their children's education, increased their children's cultural capital in turn.

Family habitus (Archer et al., 2012), their shared family values and goals, contributed to the above result as well. Although Hana's mother experienced difficulty living in Canada for the sake of her children's education, she and the whole family believed it was worth the challenge in the long term. Aera's extended family combined efforts in a desire to see the new generation, the youngest family members, succeed.

Studying (in) English in Japan

Neither Hana nor Area wanted to enroll in Korean universities. Given their past experiences studying in the Inner (Australia, Canada), Outer (Singapore), and Expanding Circle (Korea) countries, it would not be a surprise if they had chosen to study in English-speaking countries again. However, instead of enrolling at a university in English-speaking countries, the two decided to come to Japan.

Hana's family had already sent their older daughter to study at an Australian university, where she graduated and worked briefly. Hana had wanted to return to Canada and go to a Canadian university because she "love[s] English and Canada." However, the prohibitive cost of studying and the distance between her home country and Canada meant that the family agreed to have Hana study in Japan. Although the family's economic capital might not have been sufficient at the time to allow studying in Canada, the father's cultural capital and habitus played a role in the decision to study overseas, this time in Japan, again:

My dad graduated from a graduate school in Tokyo, and he lived in Tokyo for seven years. He knows a lot about Japan and knows how beneficial it is to live and study abroad in Japan, so he recommended I go to Tokyo. So I decided to study Japanese and enter a university in Japan.

Hana was also invested enough to engage in learning Japanese, which she had taken up in high school in Korea, preparing to come to Japan. She saw coming to Japan as another opportunity to learn something new and become "more international."

In Aera's case, just like her family's social capital helped her to live overseas as a child, it was helpful now again to live in Japan because her aunt lives in Tokyo.

Aera also never seriously considered enrolling in a Korean university because she had attended an international school in Korea, where classes were taught in English. Her family's economic capital was sufficient to support Aera's education in an international school. Due to her enrollment in such a school, she was not adequately prepared to take the Korean SAT and apply to a Korean university. Most students from her high school attend universities in English-speaking countries. She explained that she was "supposed to go to Canada" and "was preparing for the SAT and the TOEFL." However, "My mother was so worried that Canada is too far and getting a visa is so difficult, and in other foreign countries, too. And my aunt, which means my father's younger sister, is also living in Tokyo. So my mother and father decided to let me study in Japan."

Aera explained why she did not want to study in Korea:

I think it's a stereotype, but I think Korean university is like a step to a workplace, a step to [build a good career], just for getting a job. I think all Koreans use English as a score, like to get a job, not for their personal [growth]. TOEIC or TOEFL scores are important to get a better job.

This quote indicates that Aera is well-aware of how the system works and knows why she does not wish to be a part of it. Hana expressed a similar sentiment.

She also explained how choosing this particular university, which did not have a program completely taught in English, still was beneficial for her:

I know this university is not really international. When I first decided to study abroad in Japan, I knew Japan is a country that is not really international ((laughs)), compared to other Asian countries, so I tried to attend a university that has an English department. [...] I try to attend courses in English as much as possible. Except for compulsory courses that I have to take in Japanese, I try to attend every course in English with [foreign] teachers.

These quotes show that Aera and Hana also know what steps to take to circumvent the competition and benefit from the newly created opportunities even when these are not their first choice (Bourdieu, 1998, 2000).

Both participants also shared that they believe that their increased linguistic capital, i.e., the knowledge of English and Japanese, would be an advantage in the future when they seek employment in international companies. They both desired to use English in their future jobs.

Neither participant was eager to work for Korean companies. Aera initially did not want to be confined to either Japan or Korea, but the pandemic has forced her to start rethinking her plans. At the time of writing this paper, both students were still considering only international companies as their future workplaces and saw Japan as a stepping stone (i.e., as an investment).

Importance of Linguistic Capital

A great deal of effort, time, and financial resources have been invested into maintaining Hana's English language ability throughout her education in Korea. These efforts and lessons have built her cultural capital, which, combined with her father's knowledge of "the game," helped her enter university in Japan. Hana described how she managed to maintain or even improve her English fluency while living in Korea. Unlike Aera, she did not attend an international school in English, so she relied on online tutoring services and "spoke English about 30-60 minutes a day, three times a week with a teacher from America, not to forget English." She continued doing this for four years, which meant that the parents had to financially support this endeavor.

Hana shared how invested she felt about the English language, "I was always nervous about forgetting English because there were fewer opportunities to practice English after coming back from Canada. My brother studied in English, graduated from an international high school, and entered university in England. I always envied his path. [...] The only goal I've had was to just not forget what I know."

Her family had to carefully allocate resources to educate both their children overseas, calculating that this investment would pay off. Like in Aera's case, both siblings have studied abroad even in university. The family is wholly invested in their children's education and supports their aspirations.

Aera is equally invested in English as Hana. She shared that she speaks in English with her sister "because she's also very good at English. She actually studied in Sidney for about four years. She was in college for four years, graduated, and she actually worked as an HR in some company in Sydney."

For both Aera and Hana, speaking multiple languages, not only Korean and English, is very important. It allows them to communicate and build relationships with a variety of people in various countries. Aera's description of her older sister indicates how important speaking multiple languages is to her, "After she came back to Korea from Australia, she started to learn Japanese. So she studied Japanese for two years, and this year, she got enrolled at [a university] in Japan. So I'm really proud of her." Aera, who also uses Japanese daily even

though not as much as Korean and English, is eager to find "a job related to languages where I can show my language abilities and share my ideas and create something." Aera is also interested in revisiting Chinese, the language she once spoke as a child. Linguistic ability allows her to plan "to go around and work in different countries, learning different cultures, meeting different kinds of people. I want to work in international companies because international companies can give more opportunities to working in other countries." Hana has a similar desire to enroll in graduate school in an English-speaking country and subsequently work using her languages in an international environment. Both participants expressed a desire to build global careers and not belong to only one country. Hana has undertaken Chinese as well, to increase her chances of living overseas, as her brother does (he is fluent in Chinese).

Conclusion and Next Steps

Preliminary findings show that English continues to be a valuable currency at least for these two Korean middle-class families that provide opportunities for their children to study abroad. In the case of two participants in the current study, "children" understand the families' sacrifices and respond positively to family efforts, indicating a shared family habitus (Archer et al. 2012). Earning a university degree from a(ny) foreign country seems to be an asset in these two cases, and Aera and Hana and their families expect their education in Japan to be a good investment for their future. Their education in three or four different countries and families' involvement have resulted in the participants developing a translingual, transnational identity. Both students seem to have developed a global outlook as they desire to build careers in international settings.

I intend to continue this research and follow the two participants until they graduate. I have interviewed two of their native-English-speaking teachers and plan to interview two Japanese teachers, also for triangulation purposes. Another aspect worth investigating is the role gender and race play in the students' education overseas and career plans. In addition, whether and to what extent similar results can be found in other *kirogi* families whose children study abroad outside dominant English-speaking countries is an area of interest that warrants further investigation.

References

- Archer, L., DeWitt, J. & Osborne, J., Dillon, J., Willis, B., & Wong, B. (2012). Science aspirations, capital, and family habitus: How families shape

- children's engagement and identification with science. *American Educational Research Journal*, 49(5), 881-908.
<https://doi.org/10.3102/0002831211433290>
- Bourdieu, P. (1984). *Distinction: A social critique of the judgment of taste*. Routledge.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education* (pp. 241–258). Greenwood.
- Bourdieu, P. (1998). *Practical reason: On the theory of action*. Stanford University Press.
- Bourdieu, P. (2000). *Pascalian meditations*. Polity Press.
- Conteh, J., & Meier, G. (2014). *The multilingual turn in languages education: Opportunities and challenges*. Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783092246>
- Doerr, N. M. (2019). *Transforming study abroad*. Berghahn.
- Kachru, B. (1992). *The other tongue: English across cultures*. University of Illinois Press.
- Kramsch, C. (2009). *The multilingual subject*. Oxford University Press.
- Iida, T., & Herder, S. (2019). Second language development before, during, and after study abroad: A longitudinal study at a Japanese women's university. *JACET Journal* 63, 27-45.
- Lee, S. H. (2021). *Korean wild geese families: Gender, family, social, and legal dynamics of middle-class Asian transnational families in North America*. Lexington Books.
- Lee, Y. J., & Koo, H. (2006). 'Wild geese fathers' and a globalised family strategy for education in Korea. *International Development Planning Review* 28, 533-553.
<https://doi.org/10.3828/idpr.28.4.6>
- May, S. (2013). *The multilingual turn: Implications for SLA, TESOL, and bilingual education*. Routledge.
<https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203113493>
- Norton, B. (2013). *Identity and language learning: Extending the conversation* (2nd ed.). Multilingual Matters.
<https://doi.org/10.21832/9781783090563>
- Norton Peirce, B. (1995). Social identity, investment, and language learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 29(1), 9–31. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587803>
- Park, S. C. (2020). *Korean international students and the making of racialized transnational elites*. Lexington Books.
- Yoon, J. (2020). 'Wild goose' families: The sacrifices so many Koreans make to give their kids a life in Canada. Retrieved from:
<https://www.cbc.ca/news/canada/montreal/wild-goose-families-montreal-1.5479845>
- Zontini, E., & Reynolds, T. (2018). Mapping the role of 'transnational family habitus' in the lives of young people and children. *Global Networks*, 18(3), 418-436.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/glob.1218>

What are Stonks: Please ELI5

Robert Dykes

Sojo University

TLDR (too long didn't read) and ELI5 (explain it to me like I'm 5 years old) are recent examples of language change. Language has always been fluid. The speed of language change has increased with each advance in communication technology: the printing press, radio, movies, and TV. The internet has connected people worldwide and has possibly had the single largest influence on English since Shakespeare added 1,700 words. The speeding up of language change is demonstrated by covering various periods of modern English. After discussing the internet's impact in detail, Reddit, the world's most visited social news aggregator website, is examined. Reddit has added dozens of words to popular usage, but in January of 2021, the world may have witnessed the fastest ever exposure of language change. Because of the GameStop stock (also known as GME) and the Wall Street saga going viral overnight, millions of people worldwide began buying "stonks" and making "tendies." Are ESL/EFL teachers up to speed with today's rapid pace of language change?

TL;DR? では (too long didn't read)、ELI5 です(explain it to me like I'm 5 years old)。言語は常に流動的です。しかし、その変化のスピードは印刷機の登場に始まり、ラジオ、映画、テレビと新たなメディアの発展とともにどんどんと早くなってきました。そして、インターネットは世界中の人々をつなげただけでなく、シェークスピアが英語に 1,700 の新語を加えて以来の英語へ大きな影響をもたらしました。本論ではその変化の加速を近代英語の時代ごとの変化を追って見ていきます。インターネットの言語変化への影響を詳しく述べた後、世界中で最も見られているソーシャルニュースアグリゲーターサイト Reddit について述べていきます。Reddit はこれまでもいくつもの言葉を流行語にしてきましたが、2021 年の 1 月には今までにない言語の変化を見せつけました。それは、GameStop 株 (GME 株) の急騰とウォール街の一連のニュースによって、一夜にして世界中が「stonk」を買い、「tendies」を生み出したのです。ESL/EFL 教員らはこの急激な言語の変化についていけているでしょうか。。

TL;DR (too long; didn't read)? Here is the ELI5 (explain like I am five): "TL;DR" and "ELI5" are common acronyms found all across the internet these days and simply mean here is the synopsis, and explain simply and succinctly respectively. These two examples epitomize that language change may be speeding up and spreading faster than many, even those whose profession depends on English, can keep up. The speed of language change has increased with each advance in communication technology: the printing press, radio, movies, and TV. The internet has recently connected people worldwide and has possibly made the largest single impact on English since Shakespeare added 1,700 common-use words to the language (Shakespeare's Words, 2022). This paper emphasizes how fast new English is spreading to larger numbers of people faster than ever. The speed of language change will be demonstrated through a historical look at Modern English, focusing on a viral internet phenomenon that originated on Reddit, exposing millions of people, literally overnight, to new language that immediately saw wide exposure across many communication mediums. Words like "stonks" and "tendies" began propagating across Reddit, Facebook, Twitter, print media, and TV such as ABC News and Saturday Night

Live to tens of millions of people across the globe. The event involves a corner of Reddit, GME (GameStop) stock, and Wall Street. Before breaking down this event, this paper will first cover the following topics, language register, tenor, and style, some notable instances of language change in modern English, and technology's effect on language change leading up to the internet's impact. After discussing the GME and Reddit viral event, the closing will cover why such events matter to ESL/EFL teachers.

Register, Tenor, and Style

Many language teachers and applied linguists might see language like "selfie," "stonks," "lol," "ELI5," "ROFL," and even emojis simply as slang, easy to dismiss. However, language is not so easily classifiable. Different linguists use various terms. Register is used to distinguish language variations according to the user (Biber, 2006). Tenor refers to the participants of a communication act and the language used based on their relationship to each other and the communication act's purpose (Swales, 1990). Style is also similar to both, used to

classify language based on social meaning (Irvine, 2001). The reality of language classification is that it is messy and does not easily group into perfect categories. If all the terms linguistics use to classify language could be envisioned as a Ven diagram, they would be depicted as overlapping groupings that are constantly in flux, not just because of time but also based on who is observing these trends. This is because language is a social construct.

The author does not want the reader to dismiss some of the keywords covered here, like “stonks” and “tendies,” as silly internet slang. However, this paper will not spend any space trying to classify or justify these words either. Instead, try to see these words for what they are, language change. Only time and society will determine if they become slang, colloquialisms, or even some form of formal speech. Alternatively, they may fade from the lexicon completely like so many words have before.

What may seem like silly internet slang could end up with tomorrow’s textbooks. For example, in the past century, the singular “they” would get marked with red ink on many term papers or an X on a grammar test, but today the Merriam Webster and APA Style guide have officially recognized its use. In 2008, English actor, broadcaster, comedian, director, and writer, Stephen Fry rants in his blog (Stephen Fry, 2008) about using the acronym CCTV. He complains that it “is such a bland, clumsy, rhythmically null and phonically forgettable word, if you can call it a word, that the swipe lacks real punch.” “CCTV” has become such a part of daily life, and the general lexicon, Fry’s opinion on it feels anciently out of place in 2021. ESL/EFL instructors need to be aware that language change is accelerating. They should be acutely aware of the regular updates to mainstream dictionaries and style guides such as APA. Cambridge Assessment (Getting Started, 2022) home page explains that language awareness is paramount to a language teacher and that language teachers should better understand student’s language needs. They claim that “One way to achieve this is for teachers to become more ‘language aware’. Being language aware means you understand the possible challenges that language presents to learning” (Getting Started, 2022) Our students today are students from the digital age, with language needs that may be filled with many forms of language found and propagating through the internet.

Language Change

When mentioning language, this paper only refers to English, and in that regard, only Modern English, which is where this section’s historical examination begins. Also, when referring to language change, a large number of items are included but not limited to: new words, new word meanings (i.e., mouse, a device used to control a computer), pronoun usage (i.e., singular

“they” is a recent adoption), verbs (i.e., some very recent auxiliary verbs have entered English, “wanna” and “gonna”), the regularization of English irregular verbs, phonology, syntax (i.e., using “less” for countable nouns instead of “fewer” is a fairly new syntactic rule), etc.

Sometimes language change is difficult to pinpoint, nor is it widely agreed upon, which is demonstrated below with the North American pronunciation of “data.” Other times language change can be pinpointed to the exact time and day it is introduced, and that language change is sometimes widely accepted. This is demonstrated with the fairly new meaning and spelling of the word “hodl,” which is described in detail later. But ultimately, it should be noted that language change exists on a wide spectrum.

Data

Stories are roaming the internet that the North American TV show *Star Trek: The Next Generation* changed how North Americans pronounce the word “data.” The stories originate from a talk, and subsequent YouTube video, from actor Brent Spiner, who played a character named Data on *The Next Generation* (Brent Spiner on the “Data” name, 2021). The story goes that Captain Picard, played by British actor Patrick Stewart, pronounced “data” one way, which was different from most people in North America. The show was so popular that Stewart’s pronunciation stuck and changed how most North Americans pronounce it. It is impossible to pinpoint the extent to which this is true or not through internet sleuthing, and it is still hotly debated across language forums. There are three major pronunciations of “data” that include ‘dā-tə, ‘da-tə, and ‘dä-tə (these pronunciations can be sampled at Merriam Webster, Data, 2021). If visiting this topic on the popular language forum, StackExchange, it is easy to see this topic is not close to a conclusion. Some statistics have been shared, such as the current usage statistics in the UK and US on the pronunciation of “data” and usage statistics of “data” in the UK predating *Star Trek: The Next Generation*. However, no one seems to have turned up any usage statistics for the pronunciation of “data” in the US pre-*Star Trek: The Next Generation*, which would be the key to turning this anecdotal story into a linguistic fact.

Hodl

Unlike the North American pronunciation of “data,” the spelling and meaning of “hodl” can be pinpointed to the exact minute it was created and with a meaning that is widely accepted. “Hodl” is a byword of cryptocurrency culture, a word that became the embodiment of cryptocurrency. “Hodl” was first used on December 18th, 2013, at 10:03 am in a Bitcoin forum on Bitcointalk.org. The original post is still viewable and unlocked (I AM HODLING, 2013). Viewing the original forum, is it visible

that “hodl,” a drunken mistake according to the original poster, began to propagate within minutes. At 10:05, user “elux” proclaims “HODL!” and in just 11 minutes, the first “hodl” meme is posted. In the then secluded corner of cryptocurrency culture, the explosive usage of this word would mostly stay hidden until cryptocurrency breached into the mainstream in 2017 and language such as “hodl” (as measured by Google usage statistics, Hodl, 2021). What does “hodl” mean? While there are variations, the majority of people agree it means “do not sell your cryptocurrency, even in the face of a bad market correction.”

The following section briefly looks at some key points in Modern English to emphasize the slow but consistently speeding up language change, from centuries to decades to mere days. Modern English began around 1500 to 1600 AD, but as Crystal (2003) notes, these dates are debated; some put the date as early as the 1400s. For linguistic, historical context, this was the time of William Shakespeare, the Tudor Period, and when the King James Bible was created. The 1700s witnessed an explosive spread of English due to British colonial expansion. Around this time, from between 1600 to the 1700s, the American and British English linguistic split occurred.

William Shakespeare

Before moving onto technology’s effect on language, William Shakespeare (born in 1564, Warwickshire, England) must be covered. Until the arrival of the internet, he had the greatest impact on modern English alongside the King James Bible (Crystal, 2003). A very quick search on any internet search engine would return dozens if not hundreds of articles, blogs, and forums throwing around the supposed adage that “Shakespeare invented 1,700 words.” There was a point when that number was as high as 3000+. However, scholars have been able to track Shakespeare’s contributions better, bringing the number down to a widely accepted 1,700 (note, this is not an exact number with estimates constantly in flux). Many online interactive materials allow users to browse “Shakespeare’s words” and pinpoint exactly when and where they were used (e.g., www.shakespeareswords.com). Some popular additions include “addiction” (introduced in *Othello*), “eyeball” (introduced in *Midsummer Night’s Dream*), and “dawn” (introduced in *Henry V*). Many of the 1,700 words were borrowed from other languages and altered; for example, the word “rant” comes from the Dutch “randten” and was introduced in *Hamlet*. Other words were merely changes to the parts of speech. In *Titus Andronicus*, the word “gloomy” was first used as an adjective, before it was a verb. Shakespeare would also create new words by adding prefixes and suffixes to existing vocabulary. In addition to “Shakespeare’s 1,700,” he canonized many modern idioms such as “heart of gold” and “breaking the ice.” Beyond simply

adding content to English, because his plays were so widely known, performed, and studied, Shakespeare helped standardize Modern English.

Technology’s effect

Printing press

William Caxton set up the first printing press in Westminster, England, in 1476 (The Gutenberg press was built in Germany in 1440. However, the first English book titled *Recuyell of the Historyes of Troye*, by Caxton and Colard Mansion, was printed in Bruges, Belgium.). The first book to be printed on Caxton’s press in the heart of England was Chaucer’s *The Canterbury Tales*. The printing press inevitably increased the quantity and availability of books to the general population. As a direct result, the rate of literacy increased. Possibly of equal importance, because of the nature of the printing press and the printing industry, the standardization of spelling and stricter punctuation rules took hold. Before the printing press, when books were copied by hand, scribes would enforce their personal spelling, rules, and styles to the books they copied (Stout, 1927). Ten scribes might copy the same book and have ten different variations of the finished product.

Radio, TV, and Film

Various literature movements, the Renaissance, steady improvements in standardization of the printing industry, new dictionaries (e.g., *Johnson’s Dictionary* in 1755), and grammar books (e.g., *Grammatica Linguae Anglicanae* in 1653) had a continued impact on English. However, it was not until nearly 300 years later that modern English would see such an impactful event as Shakespeare’s works, the King James Bible, or the printing press. That event would be the invention and quick, widespread adoption of the radio. Almost simultaneously, the introduction of “talkie movies” would occur, and TV would soon follow within a decade. It is known that these modern technologies affected English, but it is, unfortunately, impossible to quantify these changes because statistics were not collected or studied (Crystal, 2003). That corner of linguistics is still recent, and it was not until the last 40 years or so that such linguistic changes were measured and scrutinized, starting with the internet’s effect. In light of this, this section will show what kind of exposure such technologies had.

The British Broadcasting Corporation, better known as the BBC, began in 1922. By 1927 they had a monopoly on all British airwaves. For the first 50 years, the BBC pushed for a standard dialect of English. In the ‘70s and ‘80s, there was a push in the opposite direction with diverse dialects from around the UK; this was largely brought about by the increase in regional stations

across the country. The language used on the radio was influenced because “it becomes necessary to pay extra attention to how a program should be put through to the listener”; because radio was only sound, “it was important to grab the listener and hold them on” (Ranasuriya, 2015, p.2).

In the US, the first commercial radio station opened in 1920. By 1930, just ten years later, a staggering 50% of US households had at least one radio and by 1940 that number would grow to over 90% (Craig, 2004).

TV saw a similar explosion of popularity in both the UK (introduced in 1936) and the US (introduced in 1939). A 2002 survey found that there was on average one TV per person in the US, and the average American spent nearly 1,000 hours a year watching TV (Crystal, 2003).

Sound movies came about in the 1920s, around the same time as radio. In 1933, of all the movies throughout the world, more than 95% were in English (Crystal, 2003). Film was (and still very much is) a tool of soft US global imperialism—which helped spread English (and western culture) across the globe as audiences flocked to mostly US-produced, or at the very least, English language movies.

While many hard numbers are missing regarding movies’ effects on language, we can trace the inclusion of common words and phrases into daily use from the movies that first introduced them. The examples are numerous, but some famous examples include “I’m/you’re toast” from *Ghostbusters* (1981) to mean you are dead or something similar. *Clueless* (1995) introduced valley girl slang to popular culture. The phrase “bucket list” was coined for the movie (and book), *The Bucket List* (2007). The idea that Hollywood, politics, or some sort of industry has a “dark side” was not commonplace until *Star Wars* thrust that phrase onto audiences in 1977.

One example amazingly almost faded away completely before being resurrected from the brink of obscurity. “Derp” (foolishness or stupidity; Barro 2013) was first used in 1998’s *BASEketball*, by South Park creators Trey Parker and Matt Stone. Google only started tracking word usage from 2004 on, but looking at their statistics (Derp, 2021), in 2004, when tracking began, the usage was near zero until 2009 when its use began to rise again. By 2012 its popularity grew so much that Oxford Dictionary Online permanently added it in 2013 (Barro, 2013). Becket (2013) reports that “derp” reached popular usage from internet forums like 4chan and their infamous “rage comics.” Soon it spread to Twitter and other corners of the internet.

The internet’s impact on language change

“Language itself changes slowly, but the internet has sped up the process of those changes so you notice them more quickly” (David Crystal, interview, Kleinman,

2010). Crystal has stated that we are seeing a linguistic revolution because of the internet, and it has spawned a new branch of linguistics, internet linguistics (or internet CMC).

One important feature to note about the internet regarding all the technology mentioned before, which may help account for such rapid language change and exposure, is that the internet is decentralized. Radio, film, tv, and the printing industry were all centralized with rules, regulations, habits, standards, procedures. While some self-governing occurs in language use on the internet, what is acceptable or normal varies widely from popular sites like Twitter, Facebook, and Reddit.

The internet has introduced thousands of new words in a very short time. Many of which have been officially recognized in dictionaries like Oxford and Webster. Many more are waiting their turn to be added or to fade away into history, or possibly stay in the realm of slang clinging to the internet’s less than not-quite-well-known areas to be included in popular culture. Many completely new words have been added, such as “selfie.” For others, parts of speech have been added or changed, friend (noun) to friend (verb). Some words like “meme” and “tweet” existed well before the internet but now adopted new meanings specific to the internet. New abbreviations, acronyms, and initialisms have been created like “ELI5” (explain like I am five), “LOL” (laugh out loud), and “TL;DR” (too long; didn’t read). SMS or text speech has also become prevalent in some areas of the internet, for example, “later” written as “l8r.” Conversation discourse has changed, meaning that many social expectations of communication practices have changed and are changing. For example, letter writing has changed in large part because of the prevalence of email. Another example of conversation discourse breaking previous social expectations would be President Obama’s Reddit AMA (interview; see Dykes 2016). In this communication event with President Obama, many communication events fall outside the socially constructed expectation that existed up until that point. Because of the internet, reductions and shortenings have increased usage, such as “cuz” instead of “because.” With the internet, the introduction of emoji (😄) and pictograms (💎 🙌) in place of or in addition to words has increased. Variations in spelling have also become commonplace for example “stonks” instead of “stocks” and “hodl” instead of “hold”; often, these new spelling take on different or nuanced meanings. Emotions are now often expressed in many new ways, such as using emoji or “LOL,” “lulz,” “haha” to show amusement. Paralinguistic and prosodic changes have also taken place, altering the use of letter size, bolding, all caps, alternating upper and lowercase, and emoji to modify meaning and/or nuance.

Stonks and Tendies defined

Some key terminology is introduced in the next section: stonks and tendies. “Stonks” is a humorous or ironic pronunciation of “stocks.” It often indicates financial loss and/or a bad or risky investment. It originated on June 6th, 2017, in a Facebook meme group (Facebook, 2017). “Tendies” originated as slang for chicken tenders. Its use has been traced back to 4chan in 2018 (Special meme frash, 2021). At some point between its transitioned use on 4chan and Reddit, “tendies” took on the meaning of financial profit (usually from the sale of stocks or cryptocurrency).

Wallstreetbets, GME stock, and stonks

On and around January 25th, 2021, Stock market events may be the catalyst for one of the fastest expansions and exposure of language change. Many new words and phrases such as “stonks” and “tendies” were, for the most part, isolated to Reddit’s r/wallstreetbets subReddit, which, before the events in question, had less than 2 million readers (r/wallstreetbets stats, n.d.). In the weeks leading up to January 25th, there were rumors that GameStop’s stock (GME) would soar in value. Various sources valued the stock from around \$10 to as high as \$30 a share (Li, 2021). Hedge fund investors planned to short sell the stock; in essence, they were betting that the price would decrease. Users on r/wallstreetbets realized, or were told, or guessed (it is not clear which) that investors had (illegally) short sold more shares of GME than existed. Binding together, users of r/wallstreetbets bought up GME stock, driving the price of GME to skyrocket, causing the short-selling by the hedge funds to fail. This action is called a short squeeze. By January 25th, the short squeeze had begun, and the price of GME stock rose to as high as \$150. News agencies across the globe had begun publishing news stories about the events and the days and weeks to come, and the story progressed. By January 29th, 2021, the short squeeze, orchestrated by r/wallstreetbets, cost hedge funds worldwide to lose 19 billion USD (RUFFOLO: GameStop, 2021). Further controversy and news erupted when financial services, such as Robinhood, halted trades on their platform for GME, bringing the US’s not-so-open market into the spotlight.

By January 27th, in less than few days days, registered readers of r/wallstreetbets nearly doubled to well over 3 million. By February 3rd, r/wallstreetbets had reached a staggering 8 million members (r/wallstreetbets stats, n.d.) in less than seven days. (It should be noted that the actual number of visitors to r/wallstreetbets is much higher, but statistics on non r/wallstreetbets members and non-registered Reddit users who visit the site are not made public). As of August 2021, r/wallstreetbets is sitting at 10.7 million registered readers.

The exposure of words like “stonks” and “tendies” grew from less to 2 million readers to 8 million in less than two weeks. But the spread and propagation of this language change had far outstripped the confines of a single Reddit sub. On February 8th, the US’s American football Superbowl event was broadcast to an estimated 95 million people worldwide. During this event, a Reddit paid-for ad is played containing the word “tendies.” Before February was over, the word “stonks” would appear all over the world. Saturday Night Live (season 46, episode 10) would use the word in one of their sketches (estimated 6.7 million viewers; Porter, 2021). “Stonks” showed up on local news stations across the US, such as Kentucky’s WKYT (Why ‘stonk’ stocks are soaring, 2021). Elon Musk tweeted about “stonks” to his 53.5 million followers. Major news outlets read all over the English-speaking world included mention of “stonks” such as ABC News (Thorbecke, 2021), Investopedia (Hartwig, 2021), the English language Indian based The Economic Times (Wanna go in lockstep with Reddit, 2021), Reuters (Factbox: Stonks, 2021), Financial Post (Block, 2021), and the New York Times (Rochat, 2021).

Tens of millions, possibly hundreds of millions of English speakers, were exposed to multiple instances of this new language in a matter of weeks, if not days, due to the events set in motion by Reddit’s r/wallstreetbets on and around January 25th, 2021. Due to the very nature of the internet and social media, it is not a question of if such a language explosion will happen again, but when will the next one occur?

Why this matters to ESL/EFL teachers

As the GME and r/wallstreetbets events demonstrate, language change can happen in the blink of an eye. Ten years before these events took place, concerning language change brought about by the internet, BBC News asked, “Is everyone up to speed? (Kleinman, 2010). As language teachers, an open mind should be kept when facing the dynamic of ever-changing social contract.

Of all the many such words coined in various small communities every year, which ones should teachers pay attention to? How should teachers make that selection? These are questions this paper is not trying to answer. This paper is merely trying to demonstrate that language change is happening faster than many teachers may realize which adds to the difficulty of being “language aware” in this digital age.

When submitting this topic’s abstract for presentation at a conference, one reviewer suggested “rejection” and asked, “[W] hat’s the value in hearing about this recent and highly specialized internet slang for learners or teachers?” In response to that question: ESL/EFL teachers and learners should not be so quick to judge language change because what may have been internet

slang yesterday may be in a headline in the New York Times tomorrow, possibly heading towards a style guide or dictionary soon after.

References

- 4chan (2021). <https://www.4chan.org/>
- Barro, J. (2013, August 28). 'Derp' Added To Oxford Dictionaries Online, Will Live Forever. *Insider*. <https://www.businessinsider.com/derp-added-to-oxford-english-dictionary-will-live-forever-2013-8>
- Becket, S. (2013, June 4). The Origins of Derp. *Intelligencer*. <https://nymag.com/intelligencer/2013/06/derp-meaning-origin.html>
- Block, C. (2021, February 12). Why the 'stonk' bubble poses major global risks and could trigger a 1930s-style market crash. *Financial Post*. <https://financialpost.com/financial-times/why-the-stonk-bubble-poses-major-global-risks-and-could-trigger-a-1930s-style-market-crash>
- Biber, D. 2006. Register: Overview. In Keith Brown (ed.), *Encyclopedia of Language and Linguistics* (2nd Ed.), Vol 10, 476-482. Oxford: Elsevier.
- Brent Spinner on the "Data" name in "Star Trek: The Next Generation" (2021). *YouTube*. <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xeqTMT0xid8>
- Craig, S. (2004). How America adopted radio: Demographic differences in set ownership reported in the 1930-1950 US Censuses. *Journal of Broadcasting & Electronic Media*, 48(2), 179-195.
- Crystal, D. (2003). *English as a global language*. Cambridge University Press.
- Data (2021). *Merriam Webster*. https://www.merriam-webster.com/dictionary/data?pronunciation&lang=en_us&dir=d&file=data0002
- Derp (2021, February 5). *Google Trends*. <https://trends.google.com/trends/explore?date=all&q=%22derp%22&hl=en-US>
- Dykes, R. (2016, November). *A Genre Analysis of President Obama's Reddit AMA*. [Poster Presentation]. JALT International Conference 2016.
- Getting Started with Language Awareness (2022) *Cambridge University Press & Assessment*. <https://www.cambridge-community.org.uk/professional-development/gswla/index.html>
- Hartwig, J. (2021, February 10). WallStreetBets Slang and Memes. *Investopedia*. <https://www.investopedia.com/wallstreetbets-slang-and-memes-5111311>
- Factbox: Stonks in Washington – Deciphering Reddit's WallStreetBets lingo (2021, February 18). *Reuters*. <https://www.reuters.com/article/us-retail-trading-slang-factbox-idUSKBN2AI0JF>
- Hodl (2021, February 5). *Google Trends*. <https://trends.google.com/trends/explore?date=2013-12-01%202021-08-24&q=hodl>
- I AM HODLING (2013, December 18). *Bitcointalk*. <https://bitcointalk.org/index.php?topic=375643.0>
- Irvine, J. (2001). Style as distinctiveness: The culture and ideology of linguistic differentiation. In J. R. Rickford & P. Eckert (Eds.), *Style and Variation* (pp. 21-43).
- Kleinman, Z. (2010, August 6). How the internet is changing language. *BBC News*.

<https://www.bbc.com/news/technology-10971949>

o-gamestop-scandal-showcases-limited-free-market-in-u-s/

Li, Y. (2021, January 25). GameStop jumps amid retail frenzy, shares double at one point in wild trading. *CNBC*.

<https://www.cnn.com/2021/01/25/gamestop-shares-jump-another-40percent-shake-off-analyst-downgrade-as-epic-short-squeeze-continues.html>

Shakespeare's Words (2022). *Shakespeare Birthplace Trust*. <https://www.shakespeare.org.uk/explore-shakespeare/shakespedia/shakespeares-words/#:~:text=William%20Shakespeare%20is%20credited%20with,still%20used%20in%20English%20today&text=William%20Shakespeare%20used%20more%20than,words%20in%20the%20English%20language>.

Porter, R. (2021, February 2). TV Ratings: 'Saturday Night Live' Returns to Solid Numbers. *The Hollywood Reporter*.

<https://www.hollywoodreporter.com/tv/tv-news/tv-ratings-saturday-sunday-jan-30-31-2021-4126066/>

Special meme fresh (2017, June 6). *Facebook*.

<https://www.facebook.com/speshmemefresh/photos/a.756603181050463/1576454562398650/?type=3>

r/wallstreetbets stats (no date). *Subreddit Stats*.

<https://subredditstats.com/r/wallstreetbets>

Stephen Fry (2008, November 4). *Don't Mind Your Language...*

<https://www.stephenfry.com/2008/11/dont-mind-your-language%e2%80%a6/>

Ranasuriya, D. (2019). Effects of Radio and Television Media on Language. *Journal of Mass Communication and Journalism*, 5(6). 1-6. DOI:10.4172/2165-7912.1000265.

Stout, S. (1927). The Mind of the Scribe. *The Classical Journal*, 22(6), 405-417.

<http://www.jstor.org/stable/3288517>

Rochat, P. (2021, February 5). Stonks. *New York Times*.

<https://www.nytimes.com/2021/02/05/learning/stonks.html#commentsContainer>

Swales, J. (1990). *Genre analysis: English in Academic and Research Settings*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

RUFFOLO: GameStop scandal showcases limited free market in US (2021, February 9). *Marquette Wire*.

<https://marquettewire.org/4046781/opinion/ruffol>

Thorbecke, C. (2021, February 13). GameStop timeline: A closer look at the saga that upended Wall Street. *ABC News*.

<https://abcnews.go.com/Business/gamestop-timeline-closer-saga-upended-wall-street/story?id=75617315>

Polysemy and homonymy should be considered when teaching vocabulary

Sarah Miyoshi Deutchman

Waseda University

Vocabulary is necessary to study a language; without words, it is difficult to communicate. Considering that languages are composed of hundreds of thousands of words it is necessary to focus on which words L2 learners should be taught. Using frequency-based vocabulary lists may seem to provide the best return for effort (Nation & Waring, 1997). An issue with these lists is that most of them (e.g., BNC/COCA, GSL) usually only contain headwords. This is problematic because according to Zipf's Law (1945) the most common words have the most meanings. If students lack vocabulary depth, they may not be able to understand a new meaning of the word, which could lead to problems with comprehension. This paper will attempt to explain the usage of polysemy, how it affects learners, and ways to introduce it into a classroom.

言語を学ぶには単語が必要である。単語がなければコミュニケーションは不可能です。言語は数十万の単語で構成されていることを考えると、L2 学習者にどの単語を教えるべきか考える必要がある。頻度ベースの単語リストを使用すると、努力に対する最善の見返りが得られるように思われる (Nation & Waring, 1997)。こちらのリストの問題は、ほとんど (BNC / COCA、GSL など) には通常、見出し語しか含まれていないこと。ジップの法則 (1945) によれば、最も一般的な単語が最も意味の数が多い。単語の深さが不足していると、単語の複数の意味が覚えにくくて、将来的に単語の理解に問題が生じる可能性がある。本論文では多義性の使用法、学習者にこれはどのような影響するか、そしてこれを教室にどうやって使用できるかを説明する。

Languages tend towards being ambiguous. According to Zipf's Law (1945), the most frequent words in a language are likely to have the largest number of meanings. This is particularly true for verbs, the more frequent the verb, the more senses it is likely to have (Brown, 2008). Gries (2008) found 55 separate senses of the word run consisting of moving quickly by foot (core meaning), to cause a sense of motion, and to oversee something. From Gries' study, it is clear that run does not have one meaning. Considering that most high-frequency word lists (e.g., BNC/COCA, GSL, EWL) consist of mostly headwords (lemmas) it is difficult for learners to understand what the word means. This is problematic for L2 learners in particular because it can interfere with lexical inferencing strategies (Nassaji, 2006), which lead learners to think there is only one meaning for a word leading to lexical fossilization (i.e., the learner only remembers a certain meaning or set of meanings from early exposure) (Yamagata, 2016), or may hinder meaning if the learner thinks the L1 word is an exact translation of an L2 word (Akamatsu, 2010). The focus of this paper will be on teaching in Japan.

This paper will give an overview of what ambiguous words are and how they are stored in the mental lexicon, how these ambiguous words affect comprehension, and pedagogical suggestions to teach these ambiguous words.

Literature Review

Types of ambiguous words

Language tends to be ambiguous; the meaning of a word is not always clear. This is because most of the words in English do not have only one meaning. Ambiguous types of words can be classified into two categories: polysemy (i.e., words that have multiple related senses) and homonym (i.e., words that have two or more unrelated meanings) (Eddington & Tokowicz, 2015).

What is polysemy?

Polysemy can be defined as a word that has one core meaning and several related senses (Crossley et al., 2010; Crossley & Skalicky, 2017). Polysemy arises due to the economy of expression (Falkum, 2015). Depending on the context, one word can be interpreted in multiple different ways (Rabagliati & Snedeker, 2015). This is known as the law of least effort (Gyori, 2002; Murphy, 2004 as cited by Crossley et al., 2010). In other words, it is easier to take a word and extend the meaning into a different context instead of creating a new word. A common example of polysemy would be the word head which can refer to the top part of the body (core meaning), the top person in a company, intelligence (head for numbers), or moving in a direction. In sum, polysemous words have overlapping senses that extend from one core meaning.

What is homonymy?

Homonyms can be defined as a single word that has two or more semantically unrelated meanings, the most common example of this is bank (riverbank vs. financial bank) (Pylkkänen et al., 2006). Another example is ring. It is possible to wear a ring on a finger and for something to ring true. These words do not have the same origin and can occur because of historical accidents (MacGregor et al., 2015). In short, homonyms have separate unconnected meanings despite having a single phonological word.

Why are using high-frequency word lists by themselves problematic?

Vocabulary lists such as the GSL and the BNC/COCA focus on the breadth of vocabulary, which can be defined as the size of one's vocabulary (Qian, 2002). This is because frequency lists mostly only include headwords (lemmas). The practice of using headwords, although convenient (Dang & Webb, 2016) can be problematic as it does not consider vocabulary depth. Depth of vocabulary refers to how well one knows a word (Qian, 2002). Knowing a word can be broken down into word knowledge aspects (e.g., form, and word use), but also knowledge of polysemy, collocations (i.e., word neighbors), and derivational forms (Schmitt, 2014). Different meanings arise depending on their context (Schmitt, 2014); this is problematic because semantic context must be used to disambiguate the stimulus (Pylkkänen et al., 2006). In short, if the wrong sense of a word is triggered and the learner does not understand enough of the surrounding context, it may cause difficulty with comprehension. When learners encounter a polysemous word in the wild they may not be aware that the word has more than one meaning. This can lead to implementing the wrong meaning which leads to a misunderstanding of the passage (Parent, 2009). This is important because it is connected to performance on academic reading comprehension (Qian, 2002). Therefore, not only breadth but depth of vocabulary should be focused on when creating vocabulary lists. Another reason to focus on the depth of vocabulary, particularly ambiguous words (i.e., polysemy, homonymy), is the nature of language.

Effects of ambiguous words on learners

The mental lexicon can refer to how words are stored in the mind. Atchison's model of the mental lexicon suggests that children attach new meanings to a word in three phases: labeling, packaging, and network building (as cited by Hoshino & Shimizu, 2018). In other words, a child will see something and name it (e.g., dog) and then connect it to other words (e.g., big dog, barking dog), and finally they link that word to other words (e.g., wolf, pet). These observations form a core structure in

the mental lexicon usually by the age of seven (Stella et al., 2018). As the child grows the network continues to expand as new words and meanings of the words connect to the mental lexicon. This lexical network is constructed not only between words but also within the word itself (Hoshino & Shimizu, 2018). This can be caused because the most frequent words have the largest number of meanings and connections with other words (Hoshino & Shimizu, 2018). This includes polysemous words and homonyms. It has been found that where L1 polysemous senses can facilitate comprehension, homonyms have competing meaning senses (MacGregor et al., 2015). As the person gets older the network starts to become more structured (Hoshino & Shimizu, 2018). Therefore, it becomes easier to comprehend texts even if they consist of polysemy or homonymy.

The model of the mental lexicon can be applied to L2 learners. Jiang's (2000) theory stated that first an L1 translation is attached to an L2 word form. Jiang continued to state that as the learner becomes more proficient, a stronger link can be created from an L2 form to an L1 lemma, eventually leading to the L2 word not being dependent on the L1. Problems with mapping in the lexicon can occur with the category of false friends. False friends are created when there is a partial overlap between the L1 and L2 lemmas (Jiang, 2000). This can cause confusion as only some of the senses of a word can be shared across languages, and others might not be shared at all (Jiang, 2000). L2 learners may not realize that collocations in their mother tongue are not equivalent with L2 ones, which can cause an incorrect form or meaning to be primed (Paquot, 2013). When reading a text, learners may be confused by the multiple senses of a word (Verspoor & Lowie, 2003). Furthermore, Schmitt (2014) has stated that learning multiple meanings for the same word form may not be that different from learning a different word with its own meaning. Therefore, if learners do not have knowledge of multiple meanings of words, and how there is not always a one-to-one translation between their L1 and L2, they are likely to become confused when meeting natural language. For example, translations of one English verb can correlate to multiple translations of Japanese verbs. This can be seen by looking at wear when translated into Japanese it becomes kiru, kaburu, haku, hameru, kakeru, shiteru, chakuyou shiteiru depending on what the part of the body is being talked about. If students do not understand this concept their comprehension is likely to be hindered and this could lead to misunderstandings and misconceived knowledge (Akamatsu, 2010). These misconceptions can result in lexical fossilization (Akamatsu, 2010) making it difficult to add new word senses to memory, which can lead to continued errors.

Moreover, students' scores on standardized tests can be lowered if they are not aware of the ambiguity of

words. It has been stated that polysemous words often occur on standardized tests. Hoshino (2016) found that many basic words occur across all grades of the EIKEN, these basic words can include words with multiple meanings. Hoshino discovered that these types of words occurred across both the upper and lower grades of the EIKEN. Hoshino (2016) further went on to explain that if learners did not have enough understanding of these words their comprehension would be hindered. Additionally, Crossley, Salsbury, and McNamara (2010) found that those with developed linguistic and lexical growth (i.e., knew more multiple word senses) were shown to have higher TOEFL scores. Qian and Schedl (2004) also noted that TOEFL scores were connected to the depth of vocabulary knowledge (i.e., polysemy, collocations, synonymy). Thus, test scores could reflect that impediment of not being aware of polysemy.

Pedagogical practices for introducing ambiguous words

It would be nearly impossible to teach L2 learners all polysemous senses and homonyms. Therefore, it is important to focus on smaller targets. Yamagata (2016) advised focusing on verbs. This is because mastering verbs can be quite difficult as their meanings will usually change depending on their context (Akamatsu, 2010; Altenberg & Granger, 2001; Csabi, 2004; Pawley, 2006 as cited by Yamagata, 2016). To teach verbs that have polysemy, students must first be made aware that polysemy exists. Parent (2009) recommends using some consciousness-raising activities to do so. Veliz (2017) suggested asking students what they believe the

word means. For example, students should be made aware of the most concrete sense of the word. Here concrete means clear and easy to understand. A way to determine if a definition is more concrete is to think about how easy it is to explain the word. A concrete definition of *break* is *pause*.

- i. They were so tired from work that they needed a break. (pause)
- ii. It was time to take a break for lunch. (pause)

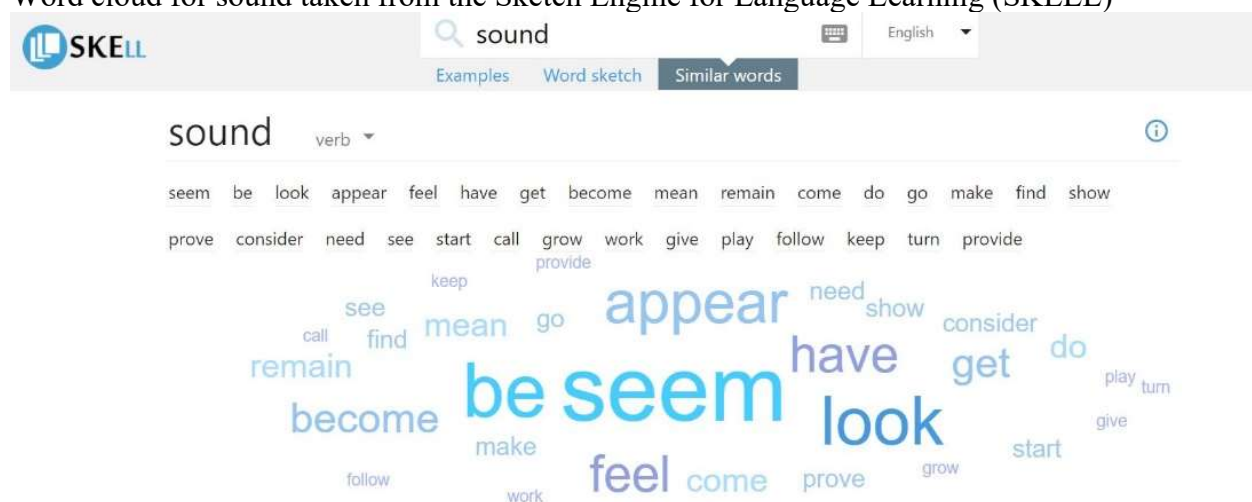
After students are familiar with the concrete meaning of the word, they can be introduced to other meanings.

- iii. After falling on the road, the girl broke her arm. (damage)
- iv. He broke his promise. (discontinue)

Sentence 3 is a concrete example that is easy to understand. Sentence 4 is a bit more abstract as it is not possible to physically break a promise. Therefore, when introducing sentences on the board it is important to start with the most concrete meaning (i.e., not abstract and easily understood).

Another way to determine which meaning of the word to teach first is to look at word cloud. Figure 1 shows the word cloud for *sound* as a verb. Because *seem*, *be*, and *appear* are amongst the largest words, they have the closest relationship to *sound*.

Figure 1
Word cloud for sound taken from the Sketch Engine for Language Learning (SKELL)



Data-driven learning (DDL) which uses corpora (i.e., large bodies of text from different sources) allows learners to look at naturally occurring language and find

patterns on their own (Boulton, 2009). This method works well for learning vocabulary items, basic grammar items, and verb phrases (Mizumoto & Chujo,

2015). SKELL is an example of a free easily searchable web corpus that can be used to look for patterns in language. In Figure 2, it is possible to see 5 sentences containing the word *press*. In the first 5 sentences *press* has the meaning of to squeeze, something related to

journalism, or related to a machine that exercises the upper body. By using corpora such as SKELL, it is possible to see which words are associated with each other and the different meanings of a word.

Figure 2

First five results of for bow using SKELL

The screenshot shows the SKELL search interface for the word "press". At the top, the word "press" is displayed in a large font, followed by "157.41 hits per million" and an information icon. Below this, a list of five numbered sentences is shown, with the word "press" highlighted in red in each sentence:

1. Her closed eyelids **pressed** more tightly shut.
2. Fresh **pressed** apple cider was another main attraction.
3. Another high speed digital **press** was added.
4. Some bench **press** machines are performed seated.
5. The **press** release below has more details.

SKELL can be used for different tasks such as asking students what they believe the word means in a particular sentence. Additionally, worksheets can be created taking sentences from SKELL and blanking out the target word. Students can be given a word box and then using SKELL they can do simple searches to complete the sentences. Dual language corpora, such as Sketch Engine or Tatoeba, can be used for beginners instead to help them compare the collocation

patterns used in learners' L1 and L2 (Chujo et al., 2005). Tatoeba can be used to show different examples of how a word can be translated into many different languages. A potential downside of Tatoeba is that the translations are supplied by different users, which means that the accuracy of the translations can vary. Figure 3 shows two translations of a sentence using sound and shows that the writer is CK. By clicking the name, it is possible to see CK's profile.

Figure 3

Example translation of sentences that can be found on Tatoeba

The screenshot shows a Tatoeba entry for the sentence "Rugs absorb sound." The sentence is displayed with a UK flag icon and the word "sound" highlighted in yellow. Below the sentence, there are two translation options, each with a right-pointing chevron, a Japanese flag icon, and a speaker icon for audio playback:

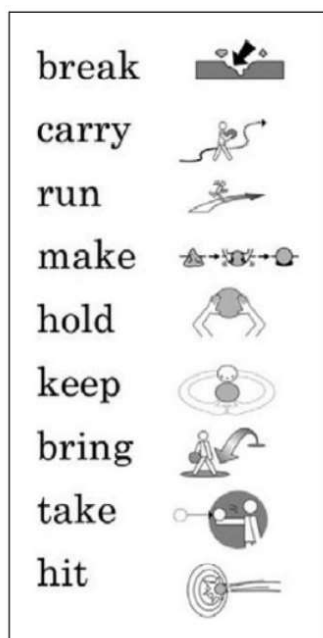
- > 敷物は音を吸収する。
- > ラグは音を吸おと きゅうしゅう収しゅうします。

It is also possible to create a corpus from materials for a specific teaching context. Toriida (2016) goes through the steps of creating an annotated word list that is based on frequency and will target the words used in a particular teaching context, which involves starting with a needs analysis, and plugging the necessary words into the software AntfileCoverter. This is free software from Laurence Anthony which allows people to create a corpus. Laurence Anthony has a Youtube channel that gives instructions on using his software.

Another method of teaching polysemy or homonymy is image-based schema instruction. Morimoto and Loewen (2007) define image-based schema instruction as a form of vocabulary instruction in which the process of learning a word is mediated by using image schema. This type of lesson would start with a consciousness-raising activity, followed by students being shown images (Figure 4) and being told the core meaning of the word, followed by a card game where students match the picture to the definition (Yamagata, 2016), or a translation task (Morimoto & Loewen, 2017). These types of tasks allow learners to solidify the word sense in the mental lexicon. Because they can join the L1 and L2 senses together. Yamagata (2016) found that this method has both a higher rate of accuracy and retention.

Figure 4

Pictures displaying the core meaning of a verb (Yamagata, 2016)



Conclusion

When teaching vocabulary, it is important to teach more than one definition of a word because words can be ambiguous. If students do not know the meaning of the

word, it can lead to miscomprehension, which can lead to poor scores on standardized tests and lexical fossilization. Therefore, it is necessary to teach multiple meanings of words per the learning context. This can be done through consciousness-raising activities, DDL, or image-based schema instruction.

References

- Akamatsu, N. (2010). Difficulty in restructuring foreign-language vocabulary knowledge: Polysemous verbs. *JACET Kansai Journal*, 12, 68-79.
- Boulton, A. (2009). Testing the limits of data-driven learning: Language proficiency and training. *ReCALL*, 21(1), 37-54.
- Brown, S. W. (2008). Polysemy in the mental lexicon. *Colorado Research in Linguistics*, 21, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.25810/s1d0-gj21>
- Chujo, K., Utiyama, M., & Nishigaki, C. (2005). A Japanese-English parallel corpus and CALL: A powerful tool for vocabulary learning. *Selected Proceedings of FLEAT*, 16-19.
- Crossley, S., Salsbury, T., & McNamara, D. (2010). The development of polysemy and frequency use in English second-language speakers. *Language Learning*, 60(3), 573-605. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2010.00568.x>
- Crossley, S. A., & Skalicky, S. (2019). Making sense of polysemy relations in first and second-language speakers of English. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, 23(2), 400-416. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1367006917728396>
- Dang, T. N. Y., & Webb, S. (2016). Evaluating lists of high-frequency words. *ITL-International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 167(2), 132-158. <https://doi.org/10.1075/itl.167.2.02dan>
- Eddington, C. M., & Tokowicz, N. (2015). How meaning similarity influences ambiguous word processing: The current state of the literature. *Psychonomic Bulletin & Review*, 22(1), 13-37. <https://doi.org/10.3758/s13423-014-0665-7>.
- Falkum, I. L. (2015). The how and why of polysemy: A pragmatic account. *Lingua*, 157, 83-99. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.lingua.2014.11.004>
- Gries, S. (2008). Corpus-based methods and cognitive semantics: The many senses of to run: In S. Gries & A. Stefanowitsch (Ed.), *Corpora in Cognitive Linguistics: Corpus-Based Approaches to Syntax and Lexis* (pp. 57-100).

- Berlin, New York: De Gruyter Mouton.
<https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110197709.57>
- Hoshino, Y. (2016). Which meanings of basic words appear in English reading tests with various difficulties? -Focusing on polysemy. *ARELE: Annual Review of English Language Education in Japan*, 27, 33-48.
- Hoshino, Y., & Shimizu, H. (2018). The organization of the senses of polysemy in Japanese EFL learners' mental lexicon. *Creative Education*, 9(3), 353-367.
<http://www.scirp.org/journal/PaperInformation.aspx?PaperID=82948&#abstract>
- Jiang, N. (2000). Lexical representation and development in a second language. *Applied Linguistics*, 21(1), 47-77.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/21.1.47>
- MacGregor, L. J., Bouwsema, J., & Klepousniotou, E. (2015). Sustained meaning activation for polysemous but not homonymous words: Evidence from EEG. *Neuropsychologia*, 68, 126-138.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.neuropsychologia.2015.01.008>
- Mizumoto, A., & Chujo, K. (2015). A meta-analysis of data-driven learning approach in the Japanese EFL classroom. *English Corpus Studies*, 22, 1-18.
- Morimoto, S., & Loewen, S. (2007). A comparison of the effects of image-schema-based instruction and translation-based instruction on the acquisition of L2 polysemous words. *Language Teaching Research*, 11(3), 347-372.
<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1362168807081181>
- Nassaji, H. (2006). The relationship between depth of vocabulary knowledge and L2 learners' lexical inferencing strategy use and success. *The Modern Language Journal*, 90(3), 387-401.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4781.2006.00431.x>
- Nation, P., & Waring, R. (1997). Vocabulary size, text coverage and word lists. In N. Schmitt and M. McCarthy (Eds.) *Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy* (pp. 6-19). Cambridge University Press.
- Paquot, M. (2013). Lexical bundles and L1 transfer effects. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics*, 18(3), 391-417.
<https://doi.org/10.1075/ijcl.18.3.06paq>
- Parent, K. (2009). Polysemy: A second language pedagogical concern. (Doctoral Dissertation, Victoria University of Wellington).
<http://hdl.handle.net/10063/970>
- Pylkkänen, L., Llinás, R., & Murphy, G. L. (2006). The representation of polysemy: MEG evidence. *Journal of Cognitive Neuroscience*, 18(1), 97-109.
<https://doi.org/10.1162/089892906775250003>
- Qian, D. D. (2002). Investigating the relationship between vocabulary knowledge and academic reading performance: An assessment perspective. *Language Learning*, 52(3), 513-536. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00193>
- Qian, D. D., & Schedl, M. (2004). Evaluation of an in-depth vocabulary knowledge measure for assessing reading performance. *Language Testing*, 21(1), 28-52.
<https://doi.org/10.1191%2F0265532204lt273oa>
- Rabagliati, H., & Snedeker, J. (2013). The truth about chickens and bats: Ambiguity avoidance distinguishes types of polysemy. *Psychological Science*, 24(7), 1354-1360.
<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0956797612472205>
- Schmitt, N. (2014). Size and depth of vocabulary knowledge: What the research shows. *Language Learning*, 64(4), 913-951.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/lang.12077>
- Stella, M., Beckage, N. M., Brede, M., & De Domenico, M. (2018). Multiplex model of mental lexicon reveals explosive learning in humans. *Scientific Reports*, 8(1), 1-11.
<https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-20730-5>
- Toriida, M. C. (2016). Steps for creating a specialized corpus and developing an annotated frequency-based vocabulary list. *TESL Canada Journal*, 34(1), 87-105.
<https://doi.org/10.18806/tesl.v34i1.1257>
- Veliz, L. (2017). A route to the teaching of polysemous lexicon: Benefits from cognitive linguistics and conceptual metaphor theory. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 7(1), 211-217.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.7n.1p.211>
- Verspoor, M., & Lowie, W. (2003). Making sense of polysemous words. *Language Learning*, 53(3), 547-586. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1467-9922.00234>
- Yamagata, S. (2018). Comparing core-image-based basic verb learning in an EFL junior high

school: Learner-centered and teacher-centered approaches. *Language Teaching Research*, 22(1), 65-93.
<https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1362168816659784>

Zipf, G.K. (1945). The meaning-frequency relationship of words. *The Journal of General Psychology*, 33(2), 251-256.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/00221309.1945.10544509>

Translingual Onomatopoeia: Literary Innovation from the Language Classroom

Jared Michael Kubokawa

Aichi University

This article develops the concept of translingual onomatopoeia as well as providing a definition and coinage for the terminology. Originally manifesting in a second language creative writing (poetry) context in a Japanese university, *translingual onomatopoeia* is a multilingual literary device and learner-created innovation used to evoke both an emotional response in the reader and situate the text in a specific cultural context by utilizing an onomatopoeic phrase in a language that differs from the primary language of the text. This article is divided into three sections. This first section offers a descriptive analysis to disseminate the meaning and conception of the term translingual onomatopoeia. The following two sections utilize a university student's second language poem as an exemplary text to provide sociocultural and phonological analyses of the concept. The analyses explore the interdisciplinary relationships between linguistics, literary scholarship, and language teaching. Finally, this article investigates the potential impact of threshold concepts such as translanguaging and code-switching as well as literary multilingualism in multilanguage pedagogies.

Keywords: translingual onomatopoeia, translingual writing, literary multilingualism, second language writing, poetry

この論文は、トランスリンガルオノマトペア(translingual onomatopoeia)の概念を展開せ、その用語の定義と新語について提示する。もともと第二言語の創造的な作文(詩)の文脈で現れる、トランスリンガルオノマトペアは多言語の文学的な仕掛けであり、第一言語と異なる言語のオノマトペアフレーズを利用することによって、読者の感情的な反応を呼び起こし、特定の文化的文脈で文章を結びつけるために使用される。この論文は3つのセクションに分けられる。最初のセクションでは、トランスリンガルオノマトペアという用語の意味と概念を扱う。次の2つのセクションでは、大学生の第二言語の詩を例として取り上げ、その概念の社会文化的と音韻論的に解析を行う。この論文は、トランスリンガルオノマトペアを新しい言語現象として提示し、その文学的革新の分析と普及について記述したものである。

キーワード: トランスリンガルオノマトペア、トランスリンガル作文、オノマトペア、第二言語作文、文学装置。

Translingualism scholar Steven Kellman (2019a) writes: "Translingual texts have an ancient pedigree, beginning perhaps shortly after the invention of writing itself" (p. 109). Kellman (2019a) is discussing the nautical Phoenicians and the appropriation of their alphabet by several less sea-faring ancient civilizations—writing both their unlettered native languages as well as borrowed Phoenician. These translingual writing practices continued until late-eighteenth century Europe when, as Yildiz (2011) argues, the "monolingual paradigm" emerges (p. 2). Yildiz conceptualizes the current condition of multilingual practices as the *postmonolingual condition* to express the tensions between (re)emerging multilingual practices and dominant monolingual paradigms. However, multilingual authors, such as the canonized Beckett, Conrad, and Nabokov, ignored the paradigm and continued to write novels in multiple languages (Kellman, 2000, 2003). These modern

translingualists— "those who write in more than one language or in a language other than their primary one" (Kellman, 2003, p. ix) trace the foundations of the new(ish) critical movement in academia entitled the *multilingual turn*. Similar in scope to the social turn of the late 90s, the multilingual turn is a critique of (monolingual) ideologies in research (mostly) stemming from second language acquisition and applied linguistic departments in the United States (Ortega, 2013). Thus, taking a multilingual or translingual approach to language pedagogy could offer an alternative stance on second language (L2) learners in their linguistic, rhetorical, and cultural breadth.

Turning towards L2 writing, Canagarajah (2020) advocates for university L2 writing instructors to consider varied and complex issues that influence classroom pedagogy and to consider how best to work with and for a range of L2 students who are "resourceful

Translingual Onomatopoeia

and not deficient” in their breadth and depth of linguistic, rhetorical and compositional strategies (p. 49). It is these types of recommendations that need to be strongly considered when conducting both L2 writing research and composition instruction in both EFL and ESL contexts. Not only does this statement encompass the complexities of L2 writer identity, but it also suggests the interdisciplinary nature of L2 writing as a field—the crossroads of applied linguistics and composition studies.

A pedagogical approach that prioritizes translingual orientations promotes L2 learners’ access to all accessible experience while also challenging Yildiz’s (2011) monolingual paradigm. Furthermore, if language teachers respect translingual and transnational approaches in their language courses, students may begin to transform literacy beliefs and practices through *rhetorical attunement*, as Leonard (2014) describes it. In contextualised rhetoric, rhetorical attunement encourages meaning negotiation across differences and implies pluralism. An educational system that values language diversity can also have bigger ideological learning repercussions, such as *cosmopolitanism* (You, 2016, 2018), which is the ideal of a global citizen who acknowledges that all people are members of a common community regardless of affiliations like language or citizenship status. In other words, language teachers can create effective transnational spaces that frustrate the monolingual paradigm and allow for threshold concepts such as translingual writing, writing as a social act, rhetorical attunement, and other approaches that are inclusive of heterogeneity and difference by designing courses and course content that values reflective practices, emphasizes genre, and invites translingualism.

From this resourceful perspective, this article develops the concept of *translingual onomatopoeia* as well as providing a definition and coinage for the term. This article presents descriptive analysis and dissemination of translingual onomatopoeia as a new terminology, learner-centered innovation, and linguistic phenomenon. To achieve this aim, the article is divided into three sections that display translingual onomatopoeia as a concept of language innovation and of linguistic diversity that can be utilized in the study of literary multilingualism, and language teaching. This first section offers a descriptive analysis to disseminate the meaning and conception of the term translingual onomatopoeia. The following two sections utilize a university student’s L2 poem as an exemplary text to provide sociocultural and phonological analyses of the concept. The analyses explore the interdisciplinary relationships between linguistics, literary scholarship, and language teaching. Finally, this article investigates the potential impact of concepts such as translanguaging and code-switching on literary multilingualism studies and multilanguage pedagogies.

Before an understanding of translingual onomatopoeia can be reached, it would be useful to explore both the terms *translingual* and *onomatopoeia* individually. This article is primarily concerned with the first half of Kellman’s (2019b) definition—texts written in more than one language i.e., L2 English poems that contain Japanese onomatopoeic phrases. Regarding the theoretical positioning of translingual orientations, the practices of translingual writing are centuries old; however, as Canagarajah (2020) argues, “theorizing them for modern academic and scholarly communities has just begun” (p. 40). Thus, translingual pedagogy and academic inquiry remain “a work in progress” (Canagarajah, 2020, p. 40). Therefore, confusion and debates surrounding terms such as code-switching/code-meshing (Canagarajah, 2006; Matsuda, 2013) and the relationship between translingualism and L2 writing (Silva & Wang, 2020), are pervasive—however, this article argues, that the foci should remain on the literary and pedagogical implications, which are imperative to how writers, students, and teachers understand the place of the L1 in the L2. This article does not have the scope to properly explore the academic discourse encompassing these debates (and subsequent reconciliation); however, Silva and Wang (2020) provide an excellent grounding in the concepts.

Moving now to the less controversial term of *onomatopoeia*—“the formation of words or names by imitation of natural sounds” (Article about etymology of onomatopoeia, n.d.). In other words, in onomatopoeic words, the sound is the meaning e.g., sizzle, cuckoo, bang, zip. Because of onomatopoeia’s association with natural sounds—the words can trigger recall of human memory and emotion; thus, it is often used for literary effect as artists can bank on the latent knowledge and memory inducing emotional evocations of a specific sound (e.g., the sound of a fire crackling reminds me of the fireplace in the house I grew up in).

Of similar interest, however entirely different, is *cross-linguistic onomatopoeia*—the use of onomatopoeia, which differs from language to language and culture to culture. This paper makes the distinction between cross-linguistic onomatopoeia and translingual onomatopoeia—in both the fact that cross-linguistic onomatopoeia is not an innovation as well as in the following definition. Briefly, cross-linguistic onomatopoeia asks the age-old question: Do dogs bark differently in different languages? The answer is a resounding, yes. Obviously, the actual sound of a dog does not differ; however, the sociocultural linguistic representation of a dog barking differs greatly depending on the language. For example, the English language representation of the sound a dog makes could be *bow-wow*, or *ruff-ruff*. But in Japanese the sound is *wan-wan* or *kian-kian*, in Hebrew—*hav-hav*, and in Spanish—*gau-gau*. Cross-linguistic

onomatopoeia is related to translingual onomatopoeia; however, cross-linguistic onomatopoeia does not carry communicative meaning intended by a multilingual literary writer, especially in terms of rhetorical strategies. Thus, this article intends to make clear that cross-linguistic onomatopoeia and translingual onomatopoeia are two entirely different concepts.

Finally, turning to the definition, meaning, and conception of the term *translingual onomatopoeia*—a multilingual literary effect used to evoke both an emotional response in the reader and situate the text in a specific cultural context by utilizing an onomatopoeic phrase in a language that differs from the primary language of the text. Thus, the translingual onomatopoeia phenomena, by definition, requires two aspects: (1) the word or phrase needs to be onomatopoeic in nature; and simultaneously, (2) the word or phrase needs to carry a translingual approach to its linguistic meaning. Originally manifesting in an L2 creative writing (poetry) course in the author's Japanese EFL university teaching context, the translingual writing practices occurred in a natural, organic process without explicit pedagogy, instruction, or prompting by the teacher. Closer analysis of this phenomenon can best be understood through the following example.

A Student's Example Text

As a brief introduction to the example text, students in an elective communication skills English course at a Japanese university were asked to write 12 poems (five *haiku/shinhaiku*, five short poems and two long poems) over the course of a 15-week semester. *Shinhaiku* (or new haiku) is an alternative to traditional haiku and was a trend in Japanese literature at the turn of the twentieth century led by haiku master Shiki Masaoka (Yamagiwa, 1959). *Shinhaiku* is a modern take on the traditional form and does not assume the classic 17 syllable structure; thus, the focus is on meaning rather than meter. Further reading about *shinhaiku* and the pedagogy for the course can be found in Kubokawa (2021a, 2021b) and additional student exemplary texts containing translingual onomatopoeia can be found in the appendix to this article.

For research purposes, the writer of the poem *Summer Vacation*, has consented to including her name as well as the text itself. At the time of writing *Summer Vacation*, Wakana was a second-year university student majoring in literature. She is an L1 Japanese user, and her English was near an A2-B1 level in the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). Although, highly motivated to communicate in English, Wakana was a rather shy student with strong passive skills (listening and reading), yet modest about both her speaking and writing abilities. Before reading the analysis following the poem, as a literary practice,

please consider what effect the translingual onomatopoeic techniques have on you as a reader:

Summer Vacation by Wakana

When I woke up
Morning cicadas were singing
Mean, min min min min, mee...
I slammed the window shut

When I grabbed the pencil
to do my book report
Sweat broke out on my forehead
I turned on the air conditioner

When I finished my homework
Evening cicadas were singing
Kana, kana, ki ki ki ki...
I didn't realize it was growing dark

To begin with the form, there are a uniform three stanzas containing four lines each. In line three of both stanzas one and three, the writer makes her translingual onomatopoeic moves with two differing sounds for the cicada insect. Comparing the translingual onomatopoeiae in the first and third stanzas, the writer makes the distinction between the morning sounds of the cicadas, "*Mean, min min min min, mee...*" and the evening sound "*Kana, kana, ki ki ki ki...*" The writer is employing the difference in sound as a rhetorical strategy to show meaning and juxtaposition in the poem. This juxtaposition is also apparent in the "Morning cicadas" and "Evening cicadas"—in this sense Wakana is utilizing the translingual onomatopoeiae as not only a rhetorical strategy but also as a compositional strategy to show the passage of time within the poem itself.

The translingual aspect of the onomatopoeiae usage comes from the representation of the animal sounds. Both "*Mean, min min min min, mee...*" and "*Kana, kana, ki ki ki ki...*" are coming from a Japanese language perspective. In English, the sound of a cicada insect would probably be "buzz" or even "chirp" and thus if the writer used the English onomatopoeic wording for the cicadas—the Japanese sociocultural context would be lost.

Sociocultural Linguistic Analysis

In most cases, the names given to Japanese cicada species are derived from the onomatopoeic noises that they make. The *higurashi* cicadas or *higurashi zemi* elicit a softer response and often remind listeners of the Japanese Obon festival, a Buddhist festival to honor the dead. Hence, utilizing the almost rubbing sound of the *higurashi*'s "*Kana, kana, ki ki ki ki...*" is shorthand for a feeling of evening in the height of summer—to the Japanese reader. Moreover, it could allude to feelings of longing because of the particular onomatopoeic emotional tone that the *higurashi* evokes in the culturally

informed listener. A *Japan Times* feature newspaper article, claims that “different species of cicada also call at different times of the day. According to artist Makoto Aida, filmmakers can trade on that latent knowledge to evoke certain emotions in viewers: “The species that people like best is the one that calls when the sun is going down and the day has cooled off,” Aida says. “They’re called *higurashi*. People feel relieved that the heat has gone down slightly and it’s a little more comfortable. It’s a nice feeling. That sound appears in films a lot” (McKirdy, 2019). Hence, Wakana is banking on the Japanese reader’s inherent knowledge of the *higurashi* cicada to add depth of meaning into her poem.

The harsher cousin to the *higurashi* is the *min-min* cicada, or *min-min zemi* and are named for the sound that they create—onomatopoeic etymology. The “*Mean, min min min min, mee...*” evokes the traditional sound of the Japanese cicada at the height of summer during the hottest time of day. It is a play on the uncomfortable feelings of the Japanese summer, the unnerving sound itself is quite uncomfortable to the listener—more on this in the phonological analysis section. In the end, the emotional, cultural, rhetorical, and compositional effects originating from the sound of the translingual onomatopoeiae in *Summer Vacation* would have been entirely different had the writer chosen to use onomatopoeic phrases in the primary language of the poem—English. The communication of this specific Japanese experience comes directly from the writer’s cultural and linguistic understanding of the world—it is only natural for these onomatopoeic sounds to be transmitted in the Japanese language, considering the cultural and linguistic background of the writer. This can be viewed through the lens of *critical contrastive rhetoric* (Kubota & Lehner, 2014), which investigates and rethinks cultural difference in rhetoric, hence it considers poststructuralist, postcolonial, and postmodern critiques of language and culture.

Phonological Linguistic Analysis

Because of the auditory nature of onomatopoeic words, this article will now present a phonological analysis of Wakana’s *Summer Vacation* by exploring the relationship between sound and meaning of the two translingual onomatopoeic usages in the poem. In line three of stanza one, the “*Mean, min min min min, mee...*” of the morning *min-min* cicadas evokes the tension felt at the beginning of a day when there are several tasks to be completed. This is mainly because the /i:/ sound, which is the nucleus of the first syllable, is a high front vowel, as is the /i/ sound which is repeated in the next four syllables, followed again by the long /i:/ in the final syllable. The tension in the oral cavity that it takes to produce these vowels—as well as their high tonality—can feel intense and uncomfortable. Furthermore, the high vowel is enclosed by the two nasal sounds /m/ and

/n/ in all but the last syllable. While, in the third stanza, the nasal /n/ in the “*kana*” complements the pleasant sonority of the /a/, in contrast, the voiced nasal sounds in this line seem to prolong the unpleasant tension of the /i/. The /i:/ in the final syllable reinforces this. As a long vowel, it could continue until one runs out of breath, giving the impression that there is no relief from the tension of the sound and the oppressive heat at midday during midsummer in Japan. The overall impression is one of stress and irritation.

The evening *higurashi* cicadas produce the sound “*Kana, kana, ki ki ki ki...*”—which unlike the previous example—equally breaks into the Japanese phonetic syllabary sounds of *ka*, *na*, and *ki*. Immediately, a more uniformed approach to sound is offered by the writer. Breaking these into English phonemes, the unvoiced /k/ sound is first encountered, which therefore creates a softer, more intimate feeling. This is followed by the low vowel /a/ that is produced with a relatively relaxed oral cavity—making it a pleasant sound both to produce and to hear. The nasal sound /n/ follows. Producing this sound allows the air to flow through the nasal cavity, it barely interrupts the sonority of the /a/ sound, which again follows the /n/. The overall effect of these two syllables is almost like two soft sighs, evocative of a summer evening after a busy day, when all tasks are finally finished. “*Kana*” is repeated and then followed by the syllable “*ki*” produced four times. Again, the unvoiced /k/ creates a relaxed feel. Although the /k/ is followed by the high vowel /i/, which is produced with more tension in the oral cavity, the unvoiced /k/ mitigates the pressure and the line retains its calm feel.

In sum, phonetic usage of Japanese onomatopoeiae compliments the meaning and follows the narrative of the poem itself: in the morning the character has a lot of tasks, she is stressed and irritated, yet by the evening the tasks are completed, and she is relaxed. This is reflected in the phonemes (the sound) in which the writer uses to represent the two types of cicadas. The use of Japanese onomatopoeiae clearly communicates the writer’s authentic perspective of the world onto the reader—a Japanese ethnolinguistic perspective within a critical contrastive rhetorical frame. One could argue that this is the authentic sound that cicada’s make to the writer’s ears. Both the meaning and the various phonetic features encode these cultural conceptions into the poem, in this case a cultural metaphor. The onomatopoeic sound and symbolism are deeply entrenched in the latent knowledge of the group-level, cultural cognition of Japanese language users. Yet, one cannot forget that this is primarily an English language poem, and the Japanese onomatopoeiae only comprise one part of the overall compositional semantics of the entire poem.

The writer signifies an intercultural perspective by semantically labeling the sounds of the experience of the poem as Japanese. Sociolinguist Valerie Fridland

(2021) argues that language change can add coherence to notions that become part of our community's shared knowledge by using the semantic labelling method. In this sense, the poem is inviting the reader into a unique literary multilingual and multicultural experience and providing the reader the opportunity to join a new linguistic community with shared knowledge. Therefore, the writer and the text itself could be considered ambassadors of intercultural communication and exemplary of a World Englishes orientation as well as literary multilingualism and translingualism in use.

Discussion

When given the time, space, freedom, and scaffolding, L2 creative writers naturally included translingual approaches in their texts and uncovered the linguistic phenomenon of translingual onomatopoeia—developed and coined in this article. The unprompted and organic creation of translingual and multilingual rhetorical, linguistic, and compositional concepts seemed a natural evolution in their L2 writing and English language learning. Furthermore, L2 poetry, as a genre, is ripe for exploring conceptions of translingual orientation and other threshold concepts as a pedagogical practice: “L2 creative writing pedagogies can provide opportunities for L2 writers to galvanize their cultural, linguistic, compositional, and rhetorical tools, which are actually always at their disposal” (Kubokawa, 2020, p. 91). As L2 creative writing is often underutilized in language teaching, there could be scope for future pedagogical endeavors in this area. Specifically, poetry seems an efficacious pedagogy for learners to develop agency and L2 identity - a longitudinal study on agency and L2 poetry pedagogy is forthcoming by the author of this article (Kubokawa, in press).

Having spoken at length of the virtues of translingual onomatopoeia, a turn towards what the phenomenon loses on the reader, semantically speaking, is equally necessary. In the example of *Summer Vacation*, it is an English language poem after all, and most English language users are not familiar with the cultural and emotional nuances of the sounds of Japanese cicadas. Nor is there any instruction or information for the reader to understand the invisible culture in the denotative meanings that undergird the Japanese onomatopoeiae. Further to that, what use, if any do translingual writing practices have in the practical endeavors of teaching EFL, especially English for academic purposes (EAP)? In this respect, a useful perspective on teaching EAP and L2 writing would be Ruecker and Shapiro's (2020) critical pragmatism approach. In Ruecker and Shapiro's view, the concept of critical pragmatism serves as a “conceptual umbrella for approaches that pursue a “both/and” approach to standard academic English—both teaching and problematizing the norms” (p. 129).

By utilizing a “both/and” approach to teaching both pragmatic EFL and EAP writing standards as well as “problematizing the norms” by incorporating L2 creative writing and translingual pedagogies, a balance can be achieved. In effect, this balance covers both sides of the coin and views standard and innovative approaches on a continuum rather than as dichotomous binaries. Espousing these concepts in a language classroom can frustrate Yildiz's (2011) monolingual paradigm and turn towards a more inclusive and equitable multilingual (Ortega, 2013) and transnational (You, 2018) Web 3.0 future. Practically speaking, embracing threshold concepts in language classrooms can embrace concepts of cosmopolitanism (You, 2016) and rhetorical attunement (Leonard, 2014), which celebrate multilingualism, multiculturalism, and global citizenship.

Conclusion

As with all inquiries, this article has its obvious limitations and several questions for future research arise from the innovation of translingual onomatopoeia presented. For example, how do certain types of written discourse, such as translingual onomatopoeia, e/affect the reader in varying linguistic contexts? What is the effect of innovative translingual approaches on an L2 poem? What is the effect of innovative translingual approaches on the writers of L2 poetry? These are significant questions that touch on the heart of L2 creative writing, translingual orientations, and literary multilingualism. While it may be the aim of L2 writing courses to develop standardized production of accepted academic genres, including translingual orientations as well as a creative writing pedagogy may allow for authentic and unique cultural linguistic experiences to be communicated by an L2 writer. Further to that this may afford the reader the opportunity to recognize said experiences and thus gain a deeper understanding on the perspectives of people, cultures, and languages that differ from their own. Finally, it is the hope of this author that other language teachers will pause and re-think what it means for language learners and L2 users to be innovative in their L2 speaking and writing, and that “errors” in standard varieties can be considered innovations if viewed through an inclusive and creative lens.

Acknowledgements

The author would like to thank the students for writing and sharing such unique and honest poetry. Additionally, the writer would like to thank the anonymous reviewers for their formative comments during the review process. The writer would like to thank Naoko Takahashi for her initial recommendations during the pre-writing stage. Finally, the author would like to sincerely thank April Eve

Day for her significant contributions to the overall completion of this article.

References

- Article about etymology of onomatopoeia. (n.d.). Etym. <https://www.etymonline.com/word/onomatopoeia/>
- Canagarajah, S. (2006). The place of world Englishes in composition: Pluralization continued. *College Composition and Communication*, 57, 586-619. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/20456910>
- Canagarajah, S. (2020). Addressing language statuses in the writing of multilingual students. In T. Silva & Z. Wang (Eds.), *Reconciling translingual writing and second language writing* (pp. 40–50). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003003786>
- Fridland, V. (2021, August 1) *Language change as a coping strategy? How creating new words helps us make sense of our experience*. Psychology Today. <https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/blog/language-in-the-wild/202108/language-change-coping-strategy>
- Kellman, S. G. (2000). *The translingual imagination*. Lincoln, NE: University of Nebraska Press. <https://www.nebraskapress.unl.edu/nebraska/9780803274471/>
- Kellman, S. G. (2003). *Switching languages: Translingual writers reflecting on their craft*. University of Nebraska Press. <https://doi.org/10.7202/009793ar>
- Kellman, S. G. (2019a). Does literary translingualism matter? Reflections on the translingual and isolingual text. *Dibur Literary Journal*, 7, 109–119. <https://arcade.stanford.edu/dibur/does-literary-translingualism-matter-reflections-translingual-and-isolingual-text>
- Kellman, S. G. (2019b). Literary translingualism: What and why? *Polylinguality and Transcultural Practices*, (16)3, 337–346. <https://doi.org/10.22363/2618-897X-2019-16-3-337-346>
- Kubota, R., & Lehner, A. (2004). Toward critical contrastive rhetoric. *Journal of Second Language Writing*, 13(1), 7–27. <https://doi.org/10.1016/J.JSLW.2004.04.003>
- Kubokawa, J. M. (2021a). Second language creative writing: Learner development in the shinhaiku pedagogy. *Nagoya JALT Journal*, 2(1), 71–96. <https://doi.org/10.37546/JALTCHAP.NAGOYA2.1-4>
- Kubokawa, J. M. (2021b). Show don't tell: Developing a creative writing community in an EFL Context. *Language and Culture: Bulletin of the Institute for Language Education at Aichi University*, 44, 81–94. <http://id.nii.ac.jp/1082/00010494/>
- Kubokawa, J. M. (in press). Tracing learner development: The effect of L2 poetry writing on voice and agency. *International Journal of TESOL Studies*.
- Leonard, R. L. (2014). Multilingual writing as rhetorical attunement. *College English* 76(3), 227-247. https://www.academia.edu/48926549/Multilingual_Writing_as_Rhetorical_Attunement
- Ortega, L. (2013). SLA for the 21st century: Disciplinary progress, transdisciplinary relevance, and the bi/multilingual turn. *Language Learning*, 63, 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00735.x>
- McKirdy, A. (2019, July 25) *The sound of summer: Love them or hate them, cicadas have a special place in Japanese culture*. The Japan Times. <https://features.japantimes.co.jp/cicada/>
- Matsuda, P. K. (2013). It's the wild west out there: A new linguistic frontier in U.S. college composition. In *Literacy as Translingual Practice: Between Communities and Classrooms* (pp. 128-138). Taylor and Francis. <https://www.taylorfrancis.com/chapters/edit/10.4324/9780203120293-19/wild-west-new-linguistic-frontier-college-composition-college-composition>
- Rueker, T. & Shapiro, S. (2020). Critical pragmatism as a middle ground in discussions of linguistic diversity. In T. Silva & Z. Wang (Eds.), *Reconciling translingual writing and second language writing* (pp. 125–134). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003003786>
- Silva, T., & Wang, Z. (Eds.). (2020). *Reconciling translingualism and second language writing* (1st ed.). Routledge. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9781003003786>
- Yamagiwa, J. K. (1959). *Japanese literature of the Shōwa period: A guide to Japanese reference and research materials*. University of Michigan Press. <http://www.worldcat.org/oclc/577505>
- You, X. (2016). *Cosmopolitan English and transliteracy*. Southern Illinois University Press. <http://www.siupress.com/books/978-0-8093-3525-1>
- You, X. (2018). Introduction: Making a transnational turn in writing education. In X. You (Ed), *Transnational writing education: Theory, history, and practice* (pp. 1-60). Routledge.

<https://www.routledge.com/Transnational-Writing-Education-Theory-History-and-Practice/You/p/book/9780815383505>

Yildiz, Y. (2011). *Beyond the mother tongue: The postmonolingual condition*. Fordham University Press.
DOI:10.5422/fordham/9780823241309.001.000
1

Appendices

Appendix A

Childhood Snowy Day by Jo

Open the window,
"Wow!"
A cold wind is blowing in.
Adults shovel snow.

Open the door.
White world,
walk on a snowy way.
There's footprints left.

"Good day!
Close the school"
We play with snow;
Snowman, snowball fight, *Kamakura*.

Take a break at home.
We warm up with *kotatsu*,
the sun came out.
It is warm.

We go out again.
"What a thing!"
Toro toro...
Everything was gone.

The lifespan of snow is short.
Snow seems like time.
Snow, fall again
We open the window again

Appendix B

Feelings of the Washing Machine by Haruka

Today is hot and sunny
Such a day is the day
When I play an active part

Round and round
Round and round round and round
Guruguruguruguruguruguruguruguruguru

I am turning my eyes
I am getting tired
Let's rest a little

The owner has come
It is sad...
I will do my best

Gyaaaaaaaaaaaaaaaa
There is a cockroach underneath
I want to run away

Let's run away secretly
The trick is to walk like a Ninja
Sasasasasa

Oh!
The owner has come
It is sad...

Pyrroline
Pyrroline
Laundry is over

Appendix C

To a Comfortable Sleep by Akari

In the bed

I can hear sound of rain

para para para...

The sound invites me to sleep

My eyes gradually close...

Like healing music

Appendix D

Shooting Star by Mao

Twinkle, twinkle—
Sky without a cloud
Glittering like the sea

I lie down with my brothers
Like the character for river ///
We look up at the falling sky

Kiran—

We join hands in a hurry
We close our eyes tightly
We mutter three times in our hearts

We smile each other without saying anything

Teaching Presentations Remotely and Engagingly

Richard Sparrow

Kyoto Sangyo University

Presentations are meant to be done in person, but since last year, that has not been possible. Group discussion (debate) is a benchmark in many communication classes that allow for a lot of spontaneous (unscripted and with less preparation) interaction and student agency, which makes for more meaningful communication. However, the difficulty level is much higher. Aclan & Aziz (2015) found that when students lack the platforms to practice their English in a more meaningful and critical way, that debate is a practical tool for developing oral communication. Together presentations and group discussion enhance and simplify each other. Presentations can be used to scaffold discussion and allow students to create a foundation of information and vocabulary with which they can discuss. Applied carefully together, students can explore different topics and create presentations for them, and then discuss using Zoom while the teacher is there for support.

プレゼンテーションは直接行うことを目的としていますが、昨年からできませんでした。グループディスカッション（ディベート）は、多くのコミュニケーションクラスのベンチマークであり、多くの自発的な（スクリプト化されておらず、準備が少ない）対話と学生エンジェンシーを可能にし、より有意義なコミュニケーションを可能にします。ただし、難易度ははるかに高くなります。Aclan & Aziz 2015は、学生がより有意義で批判的な方法で英語を練習するためのプラットフォームを欠いている場合、ディベートがオーラルコミュニケーションを開発するための実用的なツールであることを発見しました。それらがどのようにお互いを強化し、単純化するかを示すことができます。プレゼンテーションは、討論の足場として使用でき、学生が話し合うことができる情報と語彙の基盤を作成できるようにします。一緒に注意深く適用すると、生徒はさまざまなトピックを探索してプレゼンテーションを作成し、教師がサポートのためにそこにいる間に Zoom を使用して討論することができます。

Group discussions and presentations are two of the many tools that teachers may use in their classrooms, but often separately and to help students reach different learning goals. These activities sometimes incorporate aspects of debate. Inoue (1996) defines debate as “a process of argument in which the two (or more) opposing parties try to persuade each other or a third party about a controversial issue, whatever it is about, whether it is about shopping or a national policy.” (p.150) Originally, class group discussions are meant to be tasks where the students can freely interject and ask questions. However, the order and structure provided by a debate allows for better participation, gives each student a fair amount of time to respond to every question, and makes it the responsibility of each student to make sure the debate proceeds. Group discussions that use elements of debate seem to be easier for students to learn and easier for teachers to teach since they are systemized. Inoue (1996) contrasts group discussion and debate as they are both common in English communication curricula as follows:

In debate participants argue for and against the pre-fixed proposition, while in discussion, participants look for a solution to a problem. 2. Consequently, two

alternatives are considered in debate, while discussion considers multiple alternatives. 3. Debate is usually regulated by strict rules about the time and order of speeches. Discussion is conducted more freely with less formal rules. 4. In debate, the decision is made by a third party based on the arguments presented by the affirmative and the negative sides. In discussion, the purpose is to reach an agreement among participants.

The first three propositions allow for even lower-level students to feel included in the discussion, whereas in a group discussion, students do not know where to start and when they can participate. In a group discussion, the teacher relies on the chemistry of the group and for students to figure out the pragmatics of the group discussion. Debate allows for much more efficient use of class time. Inoue & Nakano (2004) identified five benefits of debate: analytical/critical skills, English skills, speaking/communication skills, social life/meeting people, and knowledge/education. They were specifically researching parliamentary debate (PD) and traditional American debate/national debate team (NDT) through the lens of competitions held between Japanese university English speaking societies. The use of debate has been supported by many studies

(Zare & Othman, 2013; Bellon, 2000; Kennedy, 2007) to have multiple benefits as well as giving students more opportunities for meaningful input/output, and realistic opportunities to negotiate meaning. Different studies have looked at different systems of debate some of which have been mentioned above (PD, NDT). Over the course of four years, this system of group discussion that uses elements of debate to provide more structure and support, and which relies heavily on students doing their own research while creating a presentation for the class beforehand, has developed organically. In this way, this style of group discussion is somewhat related to NDT which requires analysis of one topic based on research. Students can not only increase their communication skills but also their depth of knowledge as the class progresses.

Methods

Over the course of fifteen weeks, college students in their first and second years prepared to do graded discussions which would take up two entire 90-minute class sessions. Students would be expected to choose from a list of topics that had been developed to mirror the study goals of the chapters of the textbook which they were using. It was fine if students chose the same topic, because many times students would present their topics differently based on their opinions/experiences. They would write a two hundred-word speech, create a PowerPoint to present alongside it, and write three discussion questions that were concerned with their topic. The format/structure was carefully taught and

graded. Finally, students would be placed into groups of four or five and be given ten minutes each to present their topic and discuss it.

Discussion Support Tools

The first discussion is in week 6 of the semester and the second one is in week eleven. They were purposefully separated so as to prepare students for each one differently and give them time to learn and practice different skills. Students are of course seemingly intimidated by the fact that they have to speak English for a considerable period of time, and as Humphries et. al (2015) points out and from my own experience, most of the students have not had very many opportunities to communicate in English spontaneously. They need support and leading up to the discussion, time is spent in class learning the necessary skills.

Discussion phrases

In week two, we study a discussion phrases sheet (Appendix A). The sheet provides twenty-six useful phrases for discussion and a translation that students can use to understand them. In class, activities and lectures provide examples of how the phrases are used pragmatically (please see figure 1). Each phrase is not presented separately or reviewed extensively, but instead, basic phrases that are easy to understand. For example, "I agree. I think..., I disagree. I think..., I agree with OO because..., I disagree with OO because..." are focused on. Students are encouraged to study the others on their own.

Figure 1

Discussion phrases' pragmatic uses

- | | |
|--|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Giving your opinion <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. 意見を言う ■ Agreeing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. 賛成する ■ Disagreeing <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. 反対する ■ Preference <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. お好み | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Asking for more information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. 詳細な情報を求めること ■ Changing topic (related) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. 話は変わって (関連質問) ■ Continuing discussion (Glue phrases) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> a. 話を続いて |
|--|---|

Figure 2

Model discussion

DL: What is the best **fruit** to eat in the **summer**? Why?
DL: I think that watermelon is the best **because** it is very juicy.
DL: What do you think GMA?
GMA: **I agree** with you. **I think** that *watermelon* is delicious. I like to eat it with salt. **Thank you.**
DL: **Thank you GMA.** How about you GMB?
GMB: **I think so too.** I love watermelon. It's very sweet and refreshing. **Thank you.**
DL: I love eating Watermelon at the beach! **Do you like going to the beach GMA?**

Basic parts of a Discussion

Now that the students have phrases that they can use to agree/disagree and give their opinion, they are taught the basic parts of this style of discussion: 1. Discussion Question / Topic 2. Agreeing / Disagreeing 3. Giving your opinion 4. Follow up questions / comments. This is important because students should know what the expectations are for their discussion and responses. They can articulate their thoughts easier when responding to questions if they have a process to follow.

Code-switching

Before every discussion and every discussion practice, students are told that they should not speak any Japanese during the duration of the discussion. This is not an absolute rule, however. If they can preface their use of Japanese by using code-switching phrases, then it is acceptable. This practice gives students a way out if they cannot find a way to express themselves. Code-switching also allows for an opportunity to negotiate meaning and learn something new. Being unable to express themselves in front of others is probably one of students' biggest fears, and giving them this support allows for better communication and keeps them from relying on their native language. It makes them think in English first. Students study two phrases: 1. How do you say _____ in English? 2. What does _____ mean in Japanese? Together they cover almost every situation. Students should ask their groups first, and if they cannot figure out the answer, then they should ask the teacher. The teacher should be the final level of support rather than answering the moment a question is raised. In this way, students can develop better metacognitive skills regarding English communication.

In-Class Preparation

Every week in class the above discussion support tools are reviewed and students practice discussion in ten-minute sessions. Next, let us examine the practice discussion format.

Practice discussion format

Before each discussion session, a discussion leader (DL) is chosen. This person will ask the discussion questions and help the discussion move to its conclusion (as seen in figure 2 above). The DL will first read the question and answer it him/herself. Next, the DL will ask one of the group discussion members the question (GMA). Group member A will answer the question by agreeing or disagreeing with the DL and then providing their opinion. Each group member will end their turn by saying "Thank you" which helps the discussion move more smoothly. The DL will thank them for their opinion and move on to the next group member (GMB) who will be given the opportunity to express whether they agree with their group members or not and give their opinion. After all of the group members have been given a turn, the DL will move on to the next round and the next discussion question. This is the simplest format of the discussion. Later on in the semester, students should ask follow up questions in between each round of discussion questions, and in its final stage each group member to ask follow up questions. Model discussions of varying complexity and topics are presented to help students progress from very simple discussions to more complex ones. Students read through the practice discussion first (Figure 2) before trying it on their own (Figure 3).

Figure 3

Practice discussion

DL: What is the best **fruit** to eat in the **summer**?
Why?
DL:
DL: What do you think GMA?
GMA:
Thank you.
DL: **Thank you GMA.** How about you GMB?
GMB:
Thank you.
DL:

Discussion questions

One of the benefits of discussion is the questions that students will ask. Good discussion questions make for a good discussion. Students are encouraged to be creative and to make questions that are thought-provoking but not so far out of their experience or above their ability to answer them (no questions about black holes or other topics that are very technical). However, most students do not have the experience formulating questions that would allow for discussion. Without guidance students will produce a lot of yes/no and conversational questions like they are used to reading in their textbooks. Therefore, please look at this list of

good and bad discussion questions. These are questions (Figure 4) students are used to making and they make for easy conversation (highlighted phrases are not acceptable). These are “conversational questions” and students should avoid them. This list of questions (Figure 5) helps students get an idea of what a good discussion question should look like (the highlighted phrases and words are acceptable structures), and it helps reinforce grammar points of superlatives, comparatives, and modality, also ways to formulate questions that allow the interlocutor to better give their opinion. Of course, depending on the fluency of the students, different kinds of questions will be made.

Figure 4

Bad discussion questions

- Do you like ice cream?
- What's your favorite ice cream?
- How often do you eat ice cream?
- Can you eat ice cream?
- Have you eaten ice cream?
- What do you want to do?
- Do you want to...?
- Conversational Questions

Figure 5

Good discussion questions

- What do you think about wasabi ice cream?
- What would you think if ice cream was healthy?
- What is the best flavor of ice cream?
- Which is better chocolate or vanilla ice cream?
- What could we do...
- Do you think it's good to eat ice cream more than once a week?
- What are the good points and bad points about OO.
- What should you do....

In class students make groups of four or five and choose discussion leaders for each group. Then, the groups have five minutes to make three discussion questions based on the topic of that day's lecture (for example Figure 6 below). Students can use their native language during this time because it is important for all the group members to understand the questions' meanings, and group members are more willing to collaborate. After

five minutes the discussion leaders from each group report their questions. Questions are typed up and the teacher should help them with any grammar, word order, or word selection problems. Finally, after all the groups have reported their questions, they practice group discussion in ten-minute sessions. They have to discuss for the entire time, and they are not allowed to speak their L1 unless they use it with a code-switching phrase.

Figure 6

Discussion question practice

Write 3 New Discussion Questions

- Topic: Winter(food, places to go, things to do, seasons, hobbies, New Years, Halloween, Christmas, Holidays, weather)
- Group Work
- 5 Minutes (Japanese ok)
- Discussion Leader will report the group's questions

Zoom

Most of these tasks and materials were created while teaching by remote teaching last year. In class group discussions were adapted for application on Zoom. Zoom has three functions that are useful for discussion: screen share, breakout rooms, and a built-in recording function.

Screen share

In a distance learning environment, there are distractions at home. Being allowed to screen share lets students dictate to me, and I can type out what they say. In addition, there is a huge focus on what is being typed rather than on me the teacher. The feedback is visual

and auditory. Also, students can share their own presentations.

Breakout rooms

Breakout rooms are important because they allow students to split up into random and appropriately sized groups which can be cycled through for observation and support. The breakout rooms also have a timer function which lets the teacher help students rather than worry about the time.

Recording function

Recording the breakout sessions keeps the students honest. They are less likely to speak L1 and more likely to discuss the total required time. If there are five groups of four or five students, the teacher cannot be with every group at the same time as in a classroom. It also creates a record that can be reviewed while doing final grading.

Graded Discussions

As mentioned before, there are two graded discussions over a fifteen-week season in weeks six and eleven. In the first section, students learn how to prepare for the graded discussions and in the second half, they study how to refine their presentations. Finally, there is the format of the graded discussions, presentation preparation, and post-discussion.

Graded discussion format.

Each student is responsible for ten minutes of discussion time which is split into two parts. First, students will give a PowerPoint presentation that takes up about two to three minutes. They then act as discussion leader and ask three discussion questions while conducting a discussion just like we practiced in the weeks beforehand. Students are provided with two documents to help them prepare for the graded discussion: Group Discussion Guidelines (Appendix B) and Group Discussion Speech and PowerPoint Guide (Appendix C). Students choose a topic for their presentation and discussion from the guidelines document. The rubric for how the students will be graded is also found in the guidelines document.

Presentation Preparation

Presentation is a big part of these group discussions. Two weeks before the discussion students choose a topic from the Group Discussion Guidelines and submit their three discussion questions as homework. Students will then do research on the topic and will use it to provide evidence reinforcing their opinion. This provides a baseline knowledge for the group as they begin their discussion after the presentation has concluded. The presentation informs the group and creates context for the group discussion. Together the presentation and

group discussion allow for students to develop listening and critical thinking skills. Students are given a format for their presentations (Appendix C): Introduction, Body 1, Body 2, Body 3, Conclusion. This makes all their presentations similar and provides for a higher quality product.

Post-Discussion

Finally, students reflect on their discussion. What did they do well? What can they improve for their next discussion? What did they enjoy? What did they learn? Students answer these questions using the web platform FlipGrid which is a free social media product from Microsoft that is specifically built for educational use and allows students to upload videos of themselves to a private website that only the educator and classmates can view. Collecting speaking data from the videos could be a possibility in the future. Also, a post discussion vocabulary activity where students use Google sheets to report vocabulary, learned preparing for or during the task.

Conclusion

To do this style of group discussion/presentation in class takes a lot of time and effort, but the results, the experience, the students get, and the confidence they can build are worth it. The key to making this system work is to start out with very simple examples and topics and slowly build the complexity and difficulty. Do not teach the students the whole system at once and instead, break it into many smaller and easier to understand parts. Review a lot in class, make sure that students use the code-switching phrases, while giving them a lot of support. This will keep them from relying on their L1, make them feel comfortable giving their opinions, and help them buy into the system which will maximize their English learning.

References

- Aclan, E. M., & Aziz, N. H. (2015). Exploring parliamentary debate as a pedagogical tool to develop English communication skills in efl/esl classrooms. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics & English Literature*, 4(2). doi:10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.4n.2p.1
- Bellon, J., 2000. A research-based justification for debate across the curriculum. *Argumentation and Advocacy*, 36(3): 161-173.

- Humphries, S. C., Burns, A., & Tanaka, T. (2015). "My head became blank and I couldn't speak": Classroom factors that influence English speaking. *The Asian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 2(3), 164-175. Retrieved from <https://caes.hku.hk/ajal/index.php/ajal/article/view/230>
- Inoue, N. (1996). Traditions of "Debate" in Japan. *Bulletin of the Graduate School of Social and Cultural Studies*, 2, 149–161. Retrieved from <http://www.flc.kyushu-u.ac.jp/~inouen/deb-trad.html>
- Inoue, N. & Nakano, M. (2004). The benefits and costs of participating in competitive debate activities: Differences between Japanese and American college students. Paper presented at Wake Forest University/International society for the study of argumentation, Venice argumentation conference, June 27–30.
- Kennedy, R., 2007. In-class debates: Fertile ground for active learning and the cultivation of critical thinking and oral communication skills. *International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education*, 19(2): 183-190.
- Zare, P., & Othman, M. (2013). Classroom Debate as a Systematic Teaching/Learning Approach. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, 28(11), 1506–1513. <https://doi.org/10.5829/idosi.wasj.2013.28.11.1809>

Appendices

Appendix A

Group Discussion Key Phrases

1. I agree with you, except for...

私は、〇〇以外はあなたに賛成です（同意します）。

2. How do you feel about...?

〇〇については、どう感じますか？

3. What do you mean?

どういう意味ですか？

4. What do you think about...?

〇〇について、どう思いますか？

5. It seems to me that...

私には、〇〇のように思われます（感じられます）。

6. I disagree because...

私は反対です、なぜなら〇〇だからです（〇〇だから反対です）。

7. I'd like to add that...

私は〇〇を追加したい（加えたい）と思います。

8. In my opinion...

私の意見としては、

9. Yes, that's true, but...

はい、その通りですね。（確かに。）ですが～

10. I think...

私は〇〇だと思います。

11. Can you tell me why you think that way?

なぜ、そういった・そのような方向でお考えなのか、教えてもらえますか？

12. Could you give us an example?

何か例をもらえますか？

13. I believe...

私は〇〇だと思います。

14. That's a great idea.

それは良い考えですね。

15. That's a good point. I think...

良い点をつけていますね。私は～ だと思います。

16. I see what you mean, but...

あなたの言っていることは分かります。ですが、～

17. Absolutely, exactly.

もちろんです。 そうそう、そのとおり。

18. That's so true.

本当にそうですよね。確かにそのとおりですね。

19. What if...?

もし～だったら？

20. I guess so.

そういえば、そうですね。そうみたいです。

21. I/He/She/We/They could...

～するかもしれない。【可能性を表す】

22. I prefer...

～の方が好きです。

23. I'd prefer...

～の方が好きなのですが...。～してほしいのですが。

24. Do you/Does anyone have any other ideas?

誰か、他に何かアイデアはありますか？

25. What do you think?

どう思いますか？

26. How about you?

あなたの方はどうですか？（どうしますか？）

※4. What do you think about...? ...について、どう思いますか？

「...」について相手はどう思うのかを聞いている。聞かれた相手の回答範囲は限定される。

25. What do you think? どう思いますか？

about がないことで、聞かれた相手の回答範囲が広がっている。

Appendix B

Group Discussion Guidelines

Before class:

1. Choose one topic.
2. Write about one topic.
3. Your writing should take you about 2-3 minutes to say.
4. Make a PowerPoint and print it out
- a. Your PowerPoint should have these slides:
 - i. Title
 - ii. Introduction
 - iii. Topic 1
 - iv. Topic 2
 - v. Topic 3 (at least 2-3 topics)
 - vi. Conclusion
 - ii. Discussion Questions
5. Write 3 discussion questions, related to your topic. They should make you think, be interesting, and not so easy.
6. Prepare to talk:
 - Practice
 - Check spelling and grammar

Unit 1&2

- What are 3 good ways to make new friends? Does everybody need to have a lot of friends?(unit 1)
- Talk about your hobby in detail. Do hobby's need to be active? Why or why not?(unit 1)
- Talk about your hometown. Is it better to grow up in a small town or a big city?(unit 1)
- What makes you happy? What things are important for gaining happiness in life? Are some more important than others? (unit 2)
- What do you think about famous people? Do they have a responsibility to be good role models? What do you think it is like to be a celebrity? How do they feel? (unit 2)
- What are the pros and cons of living with your family while you're a college student? Is living independently better? Talk about your current situation. How does it make you feel?(unit 2)

My topic is: _____

In class: (10 Minute discussion)

1. Give a presentation using your PowerPoint 2-3 Minutes
2. With the rest of the time ask your discussion questions
3. Give your opinion first and then ask your group what they think
4. Take turns giving your opinion, agreeing, and disagreeing. We are having a discussion, so details are very important.

5. If you don't know how to say something in English, please ask your group first, and then the teacher.
 - a. How do I say _____ in English?
 - b. What does _____ mean in Japanese?

Speech & PowerPoint: Microsoft Word (.doc) & Microsoft PowerPoint (.ppt)

Speech: 200+ words

Include your 3 Discussion Questions

Submitted on the Moodle

How you will be graded 100 Pts

Speech + PowerPoint: 200+ words (20 pts)

PowerPoint (NO PowerPoint = -50%)

Required amount and type of slides

Discussion Questions (30 pts)

3 discussion questions

Are good discussion questions

Correct format

Not too easy

Not too hard

DO NOT USE LIKE (Automatic 0)

Discussion Leader (30 pts)

Keeps discussion moving

no long pauses

asks good questions

listens to the group

changes topics smoothly

Does not speak Japanese

Group Participation (20 pts)

Gives good opinions

Asks good questions

Doesn't speak Japanese

Uses discussion phrases

Doesn't hold up the group discussion

If you don't participate in the group discussion you will get a zero

If you need help, please ask your group first, and then ask the teacher

How do I say _____ in English?

What does _____ mean in Japanese?

Appendix C

Group Discussion Speech and PowerPoint Guide

Group Discussion:

200-300 words Time: 2-3 Minutes

Introduction 50+ words

Body 1 100+ words

Body 2

Body 3

Conclusion 50+ Words

Introduction:

Greeting Phrase

Topic Introduction

Background Information

Main Idea

Preview

Greeting Phrase

挨拶

Hello!

How are you doing today!?

Nice to see you!

Topic Introduction

私のトピックは「〇〇」です。

Tell us what your speech topic is:

Today I'm going to be talking about...

Background

Information

トピックについての予備知識

Background Information:

Tell us a little bit about your topic.

Basic facts about your country

トピックの基本的な情報を簡単に述べます。

Main Idea

発表者の最も言いたいこと

What do you want to say in your speech?

Preview

展開の提示

Tell us what the contents of your speech are.

Today, I'm going to talk about _(Body 1)_, _(Body 2)_, _(Body 3)_, _(Body 4)_.

Basic Structure of the Body

Point→Explanation→Examples = Facts→Repeat the Point

Body: The Info

The body is split up into different topics that are concerned with your main topic

Main Topic: Oda Nobunaga

Early Life

Owari Province

Military Campaigns

Death

Body

本題は、スピーチの主題に関係する、いくつかのトピックに分かれてること。

Conclusion

ここでは、今まで述べてきたことを、もう一度簡単にまとめて述べます。してわいけないことは、最も言いたかったを初めてここで言うことです。

Conclusion

Review of Key Points

Thoughts and Feelings

Farewell Phrase

Review of Key Points

Tell us what the contents of your speech WERE.

Today, I TALKED about _(Body 1)_, _(Body 2)_, _(Body 3)_, _(Body 4)_.

Thoughts and Feelings

Tell what you thought about your topic and how you feel now.

Farewell Phrase

Say goodbye

Say thank you

Ex: Thank you for listening!

Example PowerPoint

Main Topic

Name

Introduction

Body 1

Body 2

Body 3

This is your preview

Less words and more pictures is better for a PowerPoint

Include pictures that help explain your speech

Body 1

Main points

Main points

Main points

Include pictures that help explain your speech

Body 2

Main points

Main points

Main points

Include pictures that help explain your speech

Body 3

Main points

Main points

Main points

Include pictures that help explain your speech

Conclusion

Body 1

Body 2

Body 3

This is your review

Include pictures that help explain your speech

Discussion Question Slide

Question

Question

Question

JALT Special Interest Groups and the PanSIG Conference

Bilingualism

Our group provides support to families who are bringing up children in two or more languages in Japanese contexts. Our newsletter, *Bilingual Japan*, includes practical information about bilingual parenting, as well as academic and theoretical issues. The SIG's annual forum and banquet at the national conference provide an opportunity for members to network with other bilingual families. Further information can be found at www.bsig.org.

Business Communication

The JALT Business Communication (BizCom or BC) SIG represents a group of like-minded teachers intended to develop the discipline of teaching English conducive to participation in the world business community in Japan. To facilitate this, we aim to provide instructors in this field with a means of collaboration and sharing best teaching practices.

CEFR and Language Portfolio

CEFR & LP SIG wants to discuss the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) and European Language Portfolio (ELP), and other similar frameworks and their relevance for Japan. There is an emphasis on developing materials to support educators who would like to use these pedagogic tools; the bilingual Language Portfolio for Japanese University is available on the SIG website.

College and University Educators

Our goal is to provide a forum for the presentation and discussion of educational activities, ideas and research of broad interest to college and university educators in Japan. If you are involved in tertiary education and are committed to professional development, you are CUE too.

Computer Assisted Language Learning

The CALL SIG serves the interests of language teaching professionals who are interested in bringing together knowledge and skills of technology and language learning. CALL practitioners work in a variety of educational settings: private language schools, elementary and secondary schools as well as colleges and universities.

Critical Thinking

The Critical Thinking (CT) SIG was established for the purpose of providing a clear but ever-reforming definition of critical thinking; to provide a forum for the discussion of critical thinking and praxis; to provide research opportunities to language educators interested in promoting critical thinking; and to provide an area where language teachers can enjoy friendly, professional and engaging examination of the rationale, validity and, furthermore, the critical importance of its instruction in various environments.

Extensive Reading

The ER SIG exists to help promote extensive reading (ER) in Japan. Through our website, our newsletter, the ERJ Journal, and presentations throughout Japan we aim to help teachers set up and make the most of their ER programmes.

Gender Awareness in Language Education

The purpose of the GALE SIG is to research gender and its implications for language learning, teaching, and training. We welcome submissions for our newsletter (spring, summer, and fall issues) on topics, both theoretical and practical, related to the SIG's aims. Book reviews, lesson plans, think pieces, poetry -- basically anything related to gender and language teaching is welcomed. To see our past newsletters, please visit our website at www.gale-sig.org.

Global Issues in Language Education

GILE aims to promote global awareness, international understanding, and action to solve world problems through content-based language teaching, drawing from fields such as global education, peace education, environmental education, and human rights education. The SIG produces a quarterly newsletter, organizes presentations for local, national, and international conferences, and maintains contacts with groups ranging from Amnesty International to Educators for Social Responsibility to UNESCO.

Intercultural Communication in Language Education

This SIG aims to explore various ways language teachers could help shape their students' intercultural minds, raise their students' cultural self-awareness, and educate for intercultural understanding. It promotes discussion about various approaches to teaching intercultural communication in a language classroom, allowing educators to become better informed about language intercultural education theory. We also promote the development of resources appropriate to a foreign language teaching environment while considering the practical challenges of taking culture into account in the language classroom.

Japanese as a Second Language

日本語教育研究部会 (JSL SIG) の役割は、第二言語としての日本語指導、日本語学習、日本語教育研究の向上を目指し、指導、学習、研究のための資料や情報を与えることです。日本語の指導者、学習者、研究者の皆様加入大歓迎です。発表の援助をし、ニュースレターと論文集を発行するので論文・記事の寄稿を歓迎します。

The mission of the Japanese as a Second Language (JSL) SIG is to serve as a resource for promoting JSL teaching, learning and research. We welcome JSL teachers, learners, and researchers to join and take an active role in our SIG.

Learner Development

The Learner Development SIG is an active and supportive community of individuals with a broad range of personal and professional experiences, all sharing an interest in exploring learner (and educator) development. We encourage anyone with similar interests to join us. To find out more, please visit our SIG's website, ld-sig.org.

Lifelong Language Learning

We offer a bright future to our aging society. The energy of older learners who wish to lead active lives is flowing all over Japan. LLL (**Life Long Learning**) is willing to help these older learners enrich their lives through language learning. LLL also provides resources and information for teachers who teach English to older learners by holding events and publishing online newsletters.

Listening

The Listening Special Interest Group (Listening SIG) provides a forum for focused listening research and discussion in specific regard to teaching and learning. The group offers both teachers and researchers a place to connect, collaborate and share practice and research regarding how teachers teach listening and assess their learners, how learners improve their listening and use it to improve their knowledge, and finally how theoretical aspects connect to classroom practice.

Literature in Language Teaching

Hi! A hearty welcome to the Literature in Language Teaching SIG. We started up this group to encourage and promote the use of literature in the language classroom. Literature provides real content to engage and to motivate our EFL students.

Materials Writers

The MW SIG was established for the purpose of helping members to turn fresh teaching ideas into useful classroom materials. We try to be a mutual assistance network, offering information regarding copyright law, sharing practical advice on publishing practices, including self-publication, and suggesting ways to create better language learning materials for general consumption or for individual classroom use.

教材開発研究部会 (MW) は、メンバーが日々の教育の場で得た新しいアイデアを教材にしていく助けとなることを目的に設立されました。著作権に関すること、自費出版を含めた出版に関する実践的なアドバイス、広く一般学習者または特定の授業のためにどうしたらより良い語学教材が作れるか、といったことに関するアイデアを共有しお互いを高め合える部会であることが願いです。教材開発についてもっと知りたい、自分のアイデアを形にしたいという方、入会大歓迎です。一緒に活動しませんか。

Mind, Brain, and Education

The Mind, Brain, and Education SIG is a forum for language educators and researchers to share insights in neuroscience. We hope to be a driving force in bringing relevant new discoveries in psychology, cognitive neuroscience and neurolinguistics into language teaching in Japan.

Mixed, Augmented, and Virtual Realities

Mixed, Augmented and Virtual Realities (MAVR) is not a new concept or area of study, but it an area that is beginning to be implemented at a larger scale in many other fields. There are those of us working in this area connected to education here in Japan and more specifically language education in Japan. Our SIG is not just about the technology, it is also looking into what these technologies mean for how we communicate and learn as we create and augment our own reality.

Other Language Educators

Hello; dobr denj; kalimera; ni hao; guten tag; anyong hashimnikka; bonjour, buenos dias; hyvää päivää; bom dia; haisai; konnichiwa!

In a time when we can easily understand where and how other people live, there is still only one surefire way to find out what they think individually or as a culture: to learn their language. As every culture contains specific patterns of thought and mindsets which cannot always be put into English or translated easily from one language to another, learning its language opens the door to that culture and the countries using it. The purpose of the OLE SIG is to serve the special needs of such learners and teachers.

Performance in Education

The mission of the Performance in Education (PIE) SIG is to provide a forum for teachers and academics to discuss, research, and implement oral interpretation, speech, debate, and drama in language education. The main activities are creation of a newsletter and sponsoring a National Speech, Drama, and Debate Contest. Future activities may be the sponsoring of workshops and conferences, and supporting local and regional speech, drama, and debate contests or festivals.

Pragmatics

The Pragmatics SIG welcomes members who are interested in both research and practical teaching issues related to "how people do things with words." The group's newsletter, *Pragmatic Matters*, is published electronically three times a year. Our *Pragmatics Resources* series offers practical and theoretical papers on language in use. If you do anything with language, you are using pragmatics! So, come join us!

School Owners

Language School owners have always played a significant role in JALT both at national & local levels. The SO SIG is where owners can share ideas, experiences, and solutions to the academic and commercial challenges they face which cannot be addressed through other SIGs. If you have questions or would like to learn more about what the SIG provides, please contact us at so@jalt.org or visit our website at <https://jaltsosig.wixsite.com/home>.

Study Abroad

The Study Abroad SIG welcomes anyone interested into its wide membership, domestically and overseas. The aim is to facilitate an active and working network of faculty, staff, and students who can share and exchange experiences, knowledge, and knowhow on how to plan, prepare, implement, and evaluate different study abroad programs/experiences. Study abroad includes all categories of inbound and outbound, one-way study abroad, exchange, internships, experience, and cultural programs. The goal for many SIG members is to network, to collect and share data and information for future collaboration, research, presentations, and papers in the area of study abroad.

Task-Based Learning

The JALT Task-Based Learning (TBL) SIG is a Special Interest Group aimed at teachers who currently use, or are interested in using, task-based approaches in the classroom. The SIG focuses in particular on issues related to Task-Based Language teaching and learning in the Asian EFL context, where TBLT has yet to enter the mainstream of language pedagogy. We hope that the SIG will serve as a useful forum for the exchange of practical teaching ideas, theoretical discussion, and academic studies of TBLT issues.

Teacher Development

The Teacher Development SIG is a group committed to helping ourselves and our peers to become more effective language teachers in order to better serve learners. As such, our varied activities and interests include forums, conferences, and journals about professional development, practitioner research, and reflective practice. Our SIG offers opportunities for teachers from different educational settings to come together for careful and critical reflections and explorations of their practice, with a view to developing as professionals. The TD SIG is a flexible group, open to new ideas and potential collaborations.

Teachers Helping Teachers

The THT SIG began from the charity work of the late Bill Balsamo and we organize 4 overseas conferences in Laos (Feb/Mar), Vietnam (Early August), Kyrgyzstan and Bangladesh (Sept, date depends on Ramadan) as well as work to develop overseas volunteer opportunities. Participants pay their own way, and are asked to prepare 2-3 presentations (practical presentations are most welcome) that they may present multiple times to organize and fill out the conference schedule. For more information, please contact thtjalt@gmail.com.

Teaching Younger Learners

The TYL SIG is for teachers of younger learners. This SIG was formed by the merger of the JALT Teaching Children SIG and the Junior Senior High SIG in February 2015. The goal of the TYL SIG is to support those involved with or simply interested in the teaching of languages to learners aged 0-18. We publish a bilingual newsletter with columns by many of the leading teachers in the field.

Testing and Evaluation

The Testing and Evaluation SIG aims to provide avenues for research, information, and discussion related to foreign language testing and evaluation both from within JALT membership and with other professional organizations which have common interests and goals. Please visit our website at www.jalt.org/test.

Vocabulary

The Vocabulary Special Interest Group (Vocab SIG) provides a forum for focused research and discussion in specific regard to vocabulary acquisition. We offer both teachers and researchers a place to connect regarding how learners improve vocabulary knowledge, how to test their knowledge, and how these theoretical aspects connect to classroom practice. The Vocabulary SIG aims to be a driving force for both current and future research in the field of how vocabulary can be taught, learned, and tested in an increasingly global context.



PanSIG Journal 2021

ISBN# 978-4-901352-57-4

Patrick Conaway –Editor-in-Chief

Duncan Iske –Associate Editor

PanSIG Journal 2021

Selected articles from the 2021 PanSIG Conference

JALT Central Office

Urban Edge Bldg. 5F, 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo 110-0016, Japan

<http://jalt.org/>

<http://www.pansig.org/>



PanSIG Journal 2021

ISBN# 978-4-901352-57-4

Created and Edited by Patrick Conaway and Duncan Iske

PanSIG is a yearly conference held by the Special Interest Groups in the Japan Association of Language Teachers.